SosA inhibits cell division in *Staphylococcus aureus* in response to DNA

damage

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Short title: SosA inhibits *S. aureus* cell division

Key words: *Staphylococcus aureus*, cell division, SOS response, cell-division inhibition, SosA, DivIC,
PBP1, CtpA.

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Abstract

Inhibition of cell division is critical for cell viability under DNA damaging conditions. In bacterial

cells, DNA damage induces the SOS response, a process that inhibits cell division while repairs are

being made. In coccoid bacteria, such as the human pathogen *Staphylococcus aureus*, the process

remains poorly understood. Here we have characterized an SOS-induced cell-division inhibitor,

SosA, in *S. aureus*. We find that in contrast to the wildtype, *sosA* mutant cells continue division

under DNA damaging conditions with decreased viability as a consequence. Conversely,

overproduction of SosA leads to cell division inhibition and reduced growth. The SosA protein is

localized in the bacterial membrane and mutation of an extracellular amino acid, conserved

between homologs of other staphylococcal species, abolished the inhibitory activity as did

truncation of the C-terminal 30 amino acids. In contrast, C-terminal truncation of 10 amino acids

lead to SosA accumulation and a strong cell division inhibitory activity. A similar phenotype was

observed upon expression of wildtype SosA in a mutant lacking the membrane protease, CtpA.

Thus, the extracellular C-terminus of SosA is required both for cell-division inhibition and for

turnover of the protein. Functional studies showed that SosA is likely to interact with one or more

divisome components and, without interfering with early cell-division events, halts cell division at

a point where septum formation is initiated yet being unable to progress to septum closure. Our

findings provide important insights into cell-division regulation in staphylococci that may foster

development of new classes of antibiotics targeting this essential process.

Importance

Staphylococcus aureus is a serious human pathogen and a model organism for cell-division studies in spherical bacteria. We show that SosA is the DNA-damage-inducible cell-division inhibitor in *S. aureus* that upon expression causes cell swelling and cessation of the cell cycle at a characteristic stage post septum initiation but prior to division plate completion. SosA appears to function via an extracellular activity and is likely to do so by interfering with the essential membrane-associated division proteins, while at the same time being negatively regulated by the membrane protease CtpA. This report represents the first description of the process behind cell-division inhibition in coccoid bacteria. As several pathogens are included in this category, uncovering the molecular details of SosA activity and control can lead to identification of new targets for development of valuable anti-bacterial drugs.

Introduction

Bacteria multiply by coordinated and essential DNA replication and cell-division events, two important biological processes that are valuable targets for antimicrobial therapy (1-4). In the event of DNA damage, the SOS response is activated and ensures that cell division is delayed until the DNA is repaired. The SOS regulon is controlled by the conserved LexA repressor, which is inactivated in response to RecA, a sensor of DNA damage at stalled replication forks, binding to single-stranded DNA (5-7). The SOS response has mostly been studied in *Escherichia coli*, a gram-negative rod-shaped bacterium where the LexA-regulated gene, *sulA*, encodes a cell-division inhibitor. This inhibitor suppresses division by binding to FtsZ, which acts as a scaffold for the

assembly of cell-division components at the division site (4, 8-13). In rod-shaped bacteria,

inhibition of cell division leads to filamentation as a consequence of lateral peptidoglycan

synthesis. This phenotype is also observed in *E. coli* mutants lacking the Lon protease of which

SulA is a substrate, further substantiating the role of SulA in cell-division inhibition and

filamentation (14, 15).

SulA is poorly conserved in species outside Enterobacteriaceae. The α-proteobacterium

Caulobacter crescentus encodes an SOS-induced cell-division inhibitor SidA that does not show

homology to SulA. In contrast to cytosolic SulA, SidA is a membrane-anchored, small protein that

does not interact with FtsZ but rather with later cell-division proteins (16). In this species, yet

another, possibly redundant, cell-division inhibitor DidA is implicated in survival during DNA

damage, while being independent on the SOS response (17). Hence, it appears that bacteria

choose fundamentally different ways to orchestrate regulated cell-division inhibition in response

to DNA damage. For gram-positive, spherical cells such as *Staphylococcus aureus*, however, little is

known of how SOS induction is coupled to cell division nor have specific posttranslational

mechanisms for the negative regulation of cell-division inhibition been identified.

S. aureus is a serious gram-positive human pathogen, notorious for being implicated in a wide

range of infections and for being able to acquire resistance towards important antibiotic classes. It

originally received its name from the grape-like clusters of coccoid cells that result from the

unique cell-division process that occurs in three consecutive orthogonal planes (18-20). In this

organism, we and others have previously identified *lexA* and noted an open reading frame

(designated *sosA*) that is divergently transcribed from *lexA* and controlled by the LexA repressor

and the SOS response (21-24). The location of *sosA* adjacent to *lexA* indicated that it might encode

a cell-division inhibitor, as similar gene synteny has been observed for SOS-induced, cell-division

inhibitors encoded by gram-positive, rod-shaped bacteria, namely *Bacillus subtilis* (25), *Bacillus*

megaterium (26), *Listeria monocytogenes* (27, 28), *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (29), and

Corynebacterium glutamicum (30) (Fig. 1A). The cell-division inhibitors of these organisms display

no similarity to SulA, and within the group they generally show little homology with the exceptions

of YneA from *L. monocytogenes* and ChiZ from *M. tuberculosis* (29) that resemble *B. subtilis* YneA.

Commonly, however, they have a single membrane spanning segment, a predicted extracellular C-

terminus and, except for DivS from *C. glutamicum*, a LysM domain, which is a ubiquitous

peptidoglycan binding motif (31, 32), suggesting that membrane and/or cell-wall localization is a

common feature characterizing gram-positive cell-division inhibitors.

The fundamental processes of staphylococcal cell division have been studied spatiotemporally

using super-resolution microscopy techniques (19, 33), and recent efforts combining genetic

approaches have unveiled the molecular mechanism in unprecedented detail (34, 35). Here, we

demonstrate that *sosA* encodes the SOS-inducible cell-division inhibitor in *S. aureus* and document

its impact on cell division following treatment with DNA damaging agents. Moreover, we identify a

possible mechanism for the proteolytic control of endogenous cell-division inhibition. Thus, we

further our insight into these basic biological phenomena, which could lead to the development of

new antimicrobials targeting the cell-division machinery in *S. aureus*.

Results

Conservation of *sosA* in staphylococci. In *S. aureus*, the open reading frame located adjacent to *lexA* (divergently transcribed) was named *sosA* and hypothesized to encode an inhibitor of cell division (Fig. 1A) (23). The 77-amino-acid-long product has homology and 25-60% amino-acid identity to proteins encoded by genes occupying the same chromosomal location in a range of staphylococci (Fig. 1B and Fig. S1), while showing no clear homology to the known gram-positive cell-division inhibitors. Of note, the C-terminal part of SosA lacks a LysM domain, which is present in the cell-division inhibitors YneA and ChiZ (36, 37). The N-terminal half of SosA includes a putative transmembrane (TM) domain, and the C-terminal part is predicted to be located extracellularly (TOPCONS server [38]). Among the different staphylococcal species, a highly conserved sequence is located just C-terminally of the predicted TM domain and, although less striking, some conservation also seems to exist in the extreme C-terminus (Fig. 1B).

Genotoxic stress inhibits cell division in an SosA-dependent manner. To analyze whether SosA serves as an SOS-induced cell-division inhibitor, we exposed 8325-4, the common laboratory *S. aureus* strain, and JE2, a derivative of the clinically relevant USA300 lineage, to a lethal concentration of the DNA damaging agent Mitomycin C (MMC) and observed induction of SosA expression in both strains by western blot analysis (Fig. S2A). In contrast, no SosA was observed in deletion mutant derivatives but was expressed in a complemented strain. (Fig. S2A). Upon exposure to the same lethal dose of MMC for a 2 hour period, wildtype cells showed 10-100-fold greater survival than the mutant cells lacking SosA, whereas the optical densities of both cell type cultures were comparable (Fig. 2A). Flow cytometry measurements of cell size distributions revealed that treatment with MMC led to a three- and six-fold increase in forward light scatter

(FSC-A) values in 8325-4 and JE2, respectively, while the cell size distribution of the mutants

lacking *sosA* remained essentially constant (Fig. 2B). The constant cell size but increasing optical

densities of the *sosA* mutant populations implies that during DNA damage these cells, in contrast

to wildtype cells, continue to divide. Indeed, this striking phenotype was confirmed by time-lapse

microscopy, where wildtype cells increased in size over time, occasionally growing so large that

lysis occurred, while the size of the mutant cells lacking *sosA* stayed the same and cell division

continued (Fig. 2C and Movie S1). The phenotypes of the 8325-4 *sosA* mutant were abrogated in a

strain complemented with a chromosomal copy of *sosA* expressed from its native promoter (Fig.

S2B and C). Thus, SosA seems to prevent or delay cell division; maintain viability of *S. aureus* under

DNA damaging conditions, and as a consequence of continued peptidoglycan synthesis cause cell

size to increase.

SosA overexpression inhibits cell division. If SosA is indeed a cell-division inhibitor in *S. aureus*, it

can be predicted that overexpression of the protein should be sufficient to inhibit growth even

under conditions with no DNA damage. Hence, we expressed *sosA* episomally from an

anhydrotetracycline (AHT)-inducible promoter and found that while the control vector did not

affect cell viability, the plating efficiency of cells carrying the *sosA* overexpression plasmid was

markedly compromised under inducing conditions (Fig. 3A). When grown in liquid culture and

compared to the control, the SosA overexpressing cells showed a 2-3-fold increase in forward light

scatter values, reflecting that the size of the *sosA*-expressing cells increased (Fig. 3B). Microscopy

observations over time confirmed the slight increase in cell size and the reduction in the overall

number of cells upon SosA overproduction (Fig. 3C and Movie S2). Interestingly, contrary to what

was observed under DNA-damaging conditions (Fig. 2B), we found that ectopic induction of SosA

caused only a transient increase in cell size (compare time points 45 and 90 min to 135 min in Fig.

3B), indicating the existence of a negative regulatory mechanism.

The C-terminal part of SosA is functionally essential and possibly required for autoregulation.

The C-terminal part of SosA contains segments that appear somewhat conserved in staphylococci

(Fig. 1B), and *in silico* it is predicted to be extracellular. First, we confirmed its extracellular

location by constructing PhoA-LacZ reporter fusions (39), whereby a fusion of the reporter

chimera to the C-terminus of SosA conferred a phosphatase-positive, β-galatosidase-negative

phenotype in *E. coli*, indicative of translocation across the membrane (Fig. 4). Next, aiming at a

functional characterization of its role in SosA activity, we constructed a series of C-terminally

truncated variants by the successive elimination of ten amino acids (AAs), resulting in four variants

of SosA lacking between 10 and 40 of the C-terminal AAs (Fig. 5A). Strikingly, we observed that

truncation of the 10 C-terminal AAs (and to some extent also removal of 20 C-terminal AAs)

strongly compromised plating efficiency even at low inducer concentrations (Fig. 5B). Time-lapse

microscopy revealed that cells producing SosAd10 (SosA missing the last 10 AAs) had a dramatic

phenotype, with prominent cell swelling and a reduction of the cell-cycle rate (Fig. 5C and Movie

S3). The phenotypes from the plating assay correlated with the cell size measurements by flow

cytometry (Fig. S2D). These results indicate that cells expressing the 10 AA truncated protein are

stalled in a non-dividing state leading to abnormal cell size, whereas those expressing full-length

SosA are only transiently halted or delayed in cell division (Fig. S2D and Movie S3). In contrast,

deletion of 30 or 40 AAs from the C-terminal part eliminated the ability of SosA to inhibit cell

division, as cells expressing SosAd30 or SosAd40 gave comparable plating efficiency as those

carrying the vector (Fig. 5B) and caused no effect on cell size upon induction (Fig. S2D). This

prompted us to investigate the relevance of the highly conserved residues located in the

membrane-proximal part of the SosA C-terminal part by performing alanine substitutions within

the protein. To this end, we used the highly inhibitory SosAd10 variant as a scaffold and found that

while point mutations at AA positions 37 or 38 (E and Q) had no effect, point mutations at

positions 40 or 41 (Y and E) partially inactivated and the mutations at positions 44 and 45 (D and

H) completely abolished the cell-division inhibitory activity of the protein (Fig. 6A). The mutation

at AA position 44 (D to A) was subsequently shown also inactivate the inhibitory activity of the full-

length protein (Fig. 6B). Importantly, the inactive variants SosAd40 and SosAd10(44A) are still

likely to be localized in the membrane, as are SosA and SosAd10, when evaluated by the PhoA-

LacZ translocation assay (Fig. 4). We conclude that conserved residues in the membrane-proximal

segment of the extracellular C-terminal part of SosA are essential for inhibiting cell division, while

truncation at the extreme C-terminus of the protein augments activity.

A CtpA protease mutant is hypersusceptible to SosA expression. We reasoned that one

explanation for the severe impact of the 10-AA-truncated SosA on cell division could be that the

extreme C-terminus of SosA serves as an endogenous signal for proteolytic degradation, and its

removal allows the mutant protein to escape degradation and accumulate. Indeed, we observed

that the cellular accumulation of the truncated protein was higher than for the wildtype protein

following one hour of ectopic expression (Fig. S2E). In parallel, we observed the same pattern for

cells expressing the 10-AA-truncated SosA variant with the 44A mutation that abolishes the cell

division inhibitory activity suggesting that the phenotype of the mutation is not related to

instability of the SosA variant (Fig. S2E). To identify a membrane localized protease that may be

responsible for SosA turn-over we searched the Nebraska Transposon Mutant Library (40) for *S.*

aureus protease mutant strains, and as a potential candidate, we identified the carboxyl-terminal

protease A, CtpA. The *S. aureus* CtpA protein is located at the cell-membrane/cell-wall fraction

and is involved in stress tolerance and virulence in a mouse model of infection (41). Importantly,

overproduction of the wildtype SosA protein in cells lacking *ctpA* completely abolished cell

viability, similarly to what was observed when the 10-AA-truncated SosA protein was expressed in

wildtype *S. aureus* cells (Fig. 7A). In agreement with this result, we found that overproduction of

SosA and CtpA in the *ctpA* mutant background alleviated the detrimental effect of SosA and that

the degree of complementation depended on the relative expressional levels of the two proteins,

where higher expression level of SosA was only partially complemented by CtpA expression (Fig.

S3). Further substantiating the negative regulatory role played by CtpA with respect to SosA, we

noted that the *ctpA* mutant was substantially more sensitive to MMC (measured by plating

efficiency) than wildtype *S. aureus*, but only when encoding a functional *sosA* gene (Fig. 7B).

Additionally, upon MMC-induced DNA damage, higher levels of the SosA protein accumulated in

the *ctpA* mutant when compared to the wildtype (Fig. 7C). Importantly, parallel experiments were

recently reported showing that CtpA in *B. subtilis* is one of two proteolytic regulators of the cell-

division inhibitor YneA, with CtpA displaying direct proteolytic activity against the target in vitro.

(42) Altogether, based on these results, we propose that the extracellular C-terminus of SosA is a

substrate for CtpA proteolytic activity and that proteolysis relieves SosA-mediated cell-division

inhibition allowing growth to resume once DNA stress has ceased.

SosA is a late-stage cell-division inhibitor. To pinpoint at which step of the cell-division process

the SosA-mediated inhibition is taking place, we employed fluorescence microscopy to monitor

the cellular localization of FtsZ and EzrA, crucial early-stage cell-division proteins in *S. aureus*, upon

induction of SosA overproduction. Neither the *sosA* overexpression plasmid in non-inducing

conditions (Fig. 8A and B) nor the control vector in non-inducing or inducing conditions (Fig. S4A

and B) changed the cell morphology or protein localization. As expected, SosA overexpression

caused cell swelling but also it did not cause de-localization of the cell-division initiator FtsZ (Fig.

8A) or affected the placement of the membrane-bound division protein EzrA (Fig. 8B), which is an

early recruited protein connecting the cytoplasmic division components with the peptidoglycan-

synthesizing membrane-bound complex (43). What was evident, however, was that whereas

wildtype cells are heterogeneous with respect to FtsZ localization due to their presence in

different phases of cell division, sosA-expressing cells appear highly synchronized with FtsZ

preferentially showing septal localization (compare uninduced and induced cells in Fig. 8A)

To further explore the cellular consequences of SosA-mediated cell-division inhibition, we

examined the phenotypes of JE2/pSosA cells that were labeled for five minutes with HADA,

marking regions of nascent peptidoglycan synthesis, and grown in the absence or presence of

SosA induction (Fig. S4C). While in the absence of AHT, 47% and 23% of cells, respectively, showed

a ring (incomplete septum) or line (complete septum) of nascent peptidoglycan synthesis, there

was accumulation (89%) of cells with incomplete septa and a severe drop in cells with complete

septa (1%) when SosA was overexpressed (Fig. 8C). Additionally, 1% of cells had an 'hourglass'

shape after incubation with AHT, indicative of non-productive, premature splitting taking place

prior to septum completion. Next, whole cell walls of cells overproducing SosA were labeled with a

fluorescent NHS ester and examined by 3D-structured illumination microscopy (3D-SIM).

Microscopy visualization revealed that most cells had only signs of septation — a so-called

'piecrust' (19) (Fig. S4Ei) — and showed that in an hourglass-like cell, there was a gap in the septal

peptidoglycan (Fig. S4Eii). The fact that SosA does not affect localization of early cell-division

proteins, FtsZ and EzrA, and the cell population becomes synchronized to a particular stage of the

cell cycle (phase P2 [33]) shows that SosA does not hinder the initiation of septum formation but

blocks the progression of septum completion — a phenotype similar to S. aureus DivIB-depleted

cells (44). Although DivIB has been shown to be dispensable for FtsZ and EzrA localization to the

septum and piecrust formation, its absence results in inhibition of septum progression and

completion and in the mislocalization of GpsB (44), a late cell-division protein (44, 45). However,

SosA overproduction did not impair the recruitment of GpsB to the mid-cell (Fig. 8D) even though

visible cell enlargement occurred in this reporter strain (Fig. 8D) and not in the vector control (Fig.

S4D). Altogether, these results indicate that SosA acts on (a) later cell-division component(s) than

FtsZ, EzrA, and GpsB, and we conclude that SosA causes a characteristic halt in cell division by

preventing progression through the morphological division stage P2, i.e. septum plate completion.

Possible divisome interaction partners for SosA. No direct interaction has been observed

between the gram-positive cell-division inhibitors and FtsZ, the scaffold for cell-division

components assembly at the division site. Though poorly characterized mechanistically, the gram-

positive inhibitors may suppress cell division at later stages, potentially by interacting with

FtsI/FtsQ (for *M. tuberculosis* ChiZ) as suggested by bacterial two-hybrid analysis (36) or via

delocalization of FtsL and/or DivIC (for *B. subtilis* YneA) which was only supported by indirect

experimental data (46). By employing a bacterial two-hybrid system approach that reports

protein-protein interactions, we sought to identify potential *in vivo* interaction candidates for SosA

based on cell-division proteins from *S. aureus* (43). This analysis indicated that PBP1 (penicillin-

binding protein 1), DivIC, and PBP3 are possible targets for the activity of SosA (Fig. 9A). PBP1 is a

homolog of *E. coli* FtsI (47) and an essential component of the divisome that, in *S. aureus*, is

considered to play a role in septum formation and cell separation, with only the latter activity

relying on transpeptidase (TP) activity of the enzyme (48). DivIC is part of an essential tripartite

complex, DivIB-FtsL-DivIC (FtsQLB in *E. coli*), considered part of the second recruitment to the

divisome (45, 49). Although displaying no enzymatic activity these proteins are mutually

dependent on each other for stability as well being required for assembly of the final synthetic

division machinery (49, 50). PBP3 is non-essential in *S. aureus* (51), but otherwise its localization

and function is unknown (20). If either of these proteins are indeed targets for SosA, we predicted

that ectopic expression of *pbpA* (encoding PBP1), *divIC*, or *pbpC* (encoding PBP3) would mitigate

the effect of concomitant SosA overexpression by increasing the level of target protein. While no

effect was observed upon DivIC and PBP3 co-overexpression, overproduction of PBP1 along with

SosA was manifested as a synergistically lethal phenotype with to considerable growth

impairment (Fig. 9B). Further, we found that this phenotype was apparent even at low inducer

concentrations, where the effect of SosA overproduction alone is negligible, and that it was

independent on the transpeptidase activity of PBP1 as overexpression of a mutant variant of PBP1

lacking this activity together with SosA still eliminated growth (Fig. S5A). The phenotype is,

however, dependent on the cell-division inhibitory activity of SosA as concomitant overproduction

of the SosA(44A) mutant protein abolished the phenotype (Fig. S5B), suggesting that the lethal

phenotype is not a simple artifact of ectopic overexpression of a membrane protein along with

PBP1. While these data do not support a simple titration of SosA by PBP1, it does support that

SosA is mechanistically linked to, or intercepts with the activity of PBP1. It is also conceivable that

SosA and PBP1 act synergistically on the same target protein, the former by inhibiting its activity

and the latter via disrupting the stoichiometry of the division components. Lastly, we examined

the importance of the inactivating mutation (44A) of SosA as well as the stabilizing (SosAd10) and

inactivating (SosAd40) truncations to the protein for interaction with PBP1 and DivIC, respectively.

Interestingly, we find that the inactivating mutation compromises interaction with DivIC only,

whereas both interactions are dependent on the C-terminus of SosA (Fig. 9C). This indicates that

the inhibitory activity of SosA is functionally related to its interaction with DivIC.

Discussion

Based on the results reported here, we propose the following model for regulation of cell division in the prolate spheroid bacterium *S. aureus* under DNA-damaging conditions (Fig. 10). During normal growth, the expression of *sosA* and the entire SOS regulon is repressed by the LexA repressor. Under DNA damaging and SOS inducing conditions, LexA is inactivated through autocleavage, which results in the expression of *sosA*. In this process, the N-terminal autocleavage product of LexA needs to be further proteolytically processed for *sosA* expression to be fully induced (23), thus adding another layer of expressional control, suggesting tight regulation of the inhibitory protein. Upon derepression of LexA-regulated genes, SosA accumulates to levels that inhibit cell division without causing FtsZ delocalization nor preventing the assembly of downstream components, EzrA and GpsB, which are representatives of early and later cell division components. The inhibitor appears to affect the progression and completion of septum formation via interaction with essential divisome components with DivIC being one such possible target candidate. As a consequence of SosA activity, the cells appear synchronized at the stage of septum formation initiation, while an ongoing off-septal peptidoglycan synthesis leads to cell enlargement (Fig. S4C). Once conditions are favorable for continued division, *sosA* expression is repressed, the membrane protease CtpA degrades SosA, and cell division resumes (Fig. 10).

The model illuminates several remaining unanswered questions. It will be particularly important to determine if and how SosA affects the function of DivIC and by which means SosA intercepts the activity of PBP1. In this context, it should be noted that our data fit well with the finding that the genetic depletion of PBP1 causes cell enlargement and incomplete septum formation (47). At present we cannot readily explain the peculiar finding that SosA and PBP1 seem to act in a

synergistically lethal manner (Fig. 9, and Fig. S5). Though it is formally possible that the two

proteins together constitute a signal to halt septum formation beyond a certain point, it is

plausible that our observations are due to severe changes in stoichiometry within the divisome. It

is also conceivable that overexpression of PBP1 is prematurely forcing septum completion which

could be counterproductive under the inhibitory activity of SosA. In fact, we find that

overexpression of another essential component of the peptidoglycan synthesis machinery, the

lipid II flippase MurJ, is also synthetically lethal when SosA is expressed (Fig S5C), showing that the

phenotype is not exclusively related to PBP1. Our microscopy and localization data suggest that

SosA acts quite specifically at a decision point between septum initiation and septum completion.

In this regard, it is interesting that cell division in *S. aureus* was recently reported to be a two-step

process characterized by an initial, slow FtsZ-dependent activity followed by a faster process when

MurJ arrives and directs peptidoglycan synthesis to the septum (in division stage P2 where SosA

expressing cells are stalled) (35). More intriguingly, MurJ recruitment was reported to be mediated

by the DivIB-FtsL-DivIC complex (35), which could constitute an important molecular cue for the

inhibitory activity of SosA. Along this line, FtsL and DivIC are considered unstable proteins, and in

B. subtilis stability of DivIC is dependent on FtsL (52). Hence, we tried to co-express FtsL along with

SosA and did note a partial alleviation of the inhibitory activity (Fig. S5D). We take this observation

as another indication that DivIC could be a direct target of SosA, although at present we cannot

exclude indirect effects. Interactions between the *S. aureus* divisome components constitute a

complex web, and in a previous bacterial two-hybrid study it has been shown that PBP1 interacts

with DivIC, which in turn interacts with PBP3 (43). Thus, the inhibitory activity of SosA could be

multifactorial and further studies are required to delineate the exact function of the protein. Such

studies should include localization studies of e.g., DivIC and MurJ as recently employed (35) but

could also include mutational and suppressor studies as elegantly used to map the cell-division

inhibition process in *C. crescentus* (16, 17).

Analysis of the AA sequence of SosA indicated that the N-terminal part contains a TM domain

while the C-terminal is located extracellularly. The hypothesis that the TM domain promotes

localization to the cellular membrane was supported by PhoA-LacZ fusion to SosA and by various

point and deletion mutants of the fusion protein (Fig. 4). The abrogation of activity by the 40-AA-

truncation as well as by a single alanine substitution (D44A) suggests that this segment is essential

for correct localization to the septum or, perhaps more interestingly, that the actual motif for cell-

division inhibition is localized at the exterior of the membrane. In this respect, it is interesting that

the single amino acid substitution affects the interaction with DivIC in the two-hybrid system (Fig.

9C). If divisome interference indeed lies within this extracellular segment of SosA, it could provide

a novel paradigm for interference with cell-division beyond the transpeptidase-inhibitory activity

exerted by β-lactam antibiotics.

Endogenously triggered cell-division inhibition must be strictly regulated, as demonstrated by

pioneering work showing that SulA of *E. coli* is degraded by the Lon protease (15). Similarly, YneA

from *B. subtilis* was reported to be regulated by proteolysis, by an undefined mechanism, and a

point mutation at its extreme C-terminus generated a stabilized yet functional variant of the cell-

division inhibitor (37). In *B. megaterium*, the temporal expression of a YneA homologue has been

suggested to be due to mRNA instability (26). We demonstrate that a minor truncation of the C-

terminus of SosA increases cell division inhibitory activity (Fig. 5), possibly as a consequence of

accumulation of the protein (Fig. S2E). This led us to speculate that the extreme C-terminus serves

as a signal for proteolysis and we identified the CtpA protease-deficient strain in which SosA

appeared to accumulate and had an increased detrimental effect compared to the wildtype

background. Bacterial carboxy-terminal proteases are poorly characterized, particularly with

respect to their substrate preferences; however, we propose that CtpA specifically regulates SOS-

induced cell-division inhibition in staphylococci, likely via recognition of the C-terminus of SosA. In

support of this, Burby et al. (42) recently disclosed that CtpA is involved in turn-over of YneA in *B.*

subtilis. Direct biochemical evidence for such a direct activity of CtpA on SosA in *S. aureus* is

needed, but a shared mechanism is highly conceivable. Of note, carboxy-terminal proteases are

ubiquitous in bacterial genera, and homologs of CtpA are found in other gram-positive species,

including also *L. monocytogenes* which share a homolog of YneA. Hence, the CtpA-like proteases

could represent functional homologs of the *E. coli* Lon protease, allowing negative regulation of

membrane-localized endogenous cell-division inhibition more broadly amongst Firmicutes and

beyond.

SosA may also prove to be a useful tool for scientists conducting studies of bacterial cell division,

which have recently benefitted from the development of genetic tools and highly sophisticated

microscopic imaging technologies. However, most often bacteria grow as an unsynchronized

population with individual cells in different phases of cell division, making it challenging to order

the temporal events that occur during cell-cycle progression, DNA replication, and division.

Essentially, SosA is involved in halting the *S. aureus* cell cycle at a specific morphological stage, e.g.

following the piecrust formation, and we anticipate that the exploitation of this function may

constitute a useful tool for the generation of synchronized staphylococcal cells for experimental

purposes.

Apart from its basic biological interest, the bacterial cell-division process may constitute an

unexhausted source of novel therapeutic targets (1,2). We believe that SosA could be a natural

scaffold, and that further studies on this protein can provide new therapeutically accessible

targets that would interfere with an essential process in *S. aureus* and other staphylococci.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial strains and plasmids used in this work. The bacterial strains and plasmids used in this

study are listed in Table S1. *E. coli* strains were grown in Luria-Bertani medium (Oxoid) or on LB

agar (Oxoid). *S. aureus* strains were grown in Tryptic Soy Broth (TSB) or on Tryptic Soy Agar (TSA)

(both Oxoid). Ampicillin (100 µg/ml), chloramphenicol (10 µg/ml), or erythromycin (5 µg/ml) were

added when appropriate. Anhydrotetracycline (AHT) (Sigma-Aldrich) and Isopropyl β-D-1-

thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) (Thermo Scientific) were used as inducers for protein expression.

Construction of strains and plasmids. All oligonucleotides used are listed in Table S1. *S. aureus*

8325-4Δ*sosA* is a clean deletion of *sosA* (SAOUHSC_01334) in strain 8325-4 obtained by allelic

replacement using the temperature-sensitive shuttle vector pIMAY (53). 1 kb regions up- and

downstream of *sosA* were PCR amplified (Phusion Hot Start II DNA Polymerase, Thermo Scientific)

using primer pairs Up-sosA_fw-KpnI/Up-sosA_rev and Dw-sosA_fw/Dw-sosA_rev-SacI,

respectively, and subsequently joined in a spliced overhang PCR using Up-sosA_fw-KpnI/Dw-

sosA_rev-SacI. The resulting deletion fragment was cloned into pIMAY via KpnI/SacI, generating

pIMAY-Δ*sosA*, purified from *E. coli* DC10B and transformed into *S. aureus* subsequently

maintained at 28°C. Chromosomal integration of the plasmid was performed at 37°C under

selective conditions (chloramphenicol) followed by passage at 28°C without antibiotic selection

and final plating on TSA containing 500 ng/ml of AHT for plasmid counterselection. Colonies were

replica-plated to select for sensitivity towards chloramphenicol and successful allelic exchange

were screened for by PCR amplification using primer pairs Ctrl_dsosA_F/Ctrl_dsosA_R positioned

outside *sosA* and Fwd_MCS/Rev_MCS targeting the vector, respectively. The allelic replacement

procedure was identical for *S. aureus* JE2 to create JE2Δ*sosA*.

The chromosomal transposon insertion mutation in *ctpA* conferring erythromycin resistance was

obtained from the Nebraska Transposon Mutant Library (NTML, NE847) (40) and was moved by

transduction (phage Φ11) to *S. aureus* JE2, JE2Δ*sosA*, *S. aureus* 8325-4 and 8325-4Δ*sosA*, resulting

in JE2-*ctpA*, JE2Δ*sosA*-*ctpA*, 8325-4-*ctpA* and 8325-4Δ*sosA*-*ctpA*, respectively. JE2-*ctpA*(−erm), an

erythromycin-sensitive derivative, was generated by elimination of the transposon-encoded *ermB*

in JE2-*ctpA* by allelic exchange using the pTnT vector using temperature-mediated chromosomal

integration and *secY*-mediated counterselection as described before (54).

All plasmid constructs mentioned below were cloned in E. coli IM08B (55) from where they were

transformed into *S. aureus* strains. For complementation of the *sosA* knockout, the *sosA* gene with

its native promoter was PCR amplified from strain 8325-4 using primers Up-sosA-promo_SalI and

Dw-sosA_EcoRI and cloned into designated restriction sites in plasmid pJC1112 (56). The resulting

plasmid (pJC1112-*sosA*) was transformed into the integration-proficient strain RN9011, creating

RN9011-*sosA*-compl. when selected with erythromycin. The chromosomally integrated plasmid

was transduced into 8325-4Δ*sosA*, resulting in 8325-4Δ*sosA*-compl. For *sosA* expression the *sosA*

gene including its predicted ribosomal binding site was cloned into the BglII and EcoRI sites of

pRAB12-*lacZ* (57) using primers Up-sosA_BglII/Dw-sosA_EcoRI, at the same time eliminating the

lacZ reporter gene. The resulting plasmid was called pSosA. Generation of plasmids encoding C-

terminally truncated variants of SosA was obtained by PCR amplification of DNA fragments using

Up-sosA_BglII and downstream primers Dw-sosA(d10)_EcoRI to Dw-sosA(d40)_EcoRI, all equipped

with premature stop codons. The PCR products were ligated into pRAB12-*lacZ* using BglII and

EcoRI cut sites to create pSosAd10, pSosAd20, pSosAd30 and pSosAd40. Single and double amino

acid substitutions (alanine) in the SosAd10 protein were obtained by cloning commercially

synthesized DNA fragments (Twist Bioscience) into pRAB12-*lacZ* using the same restriction sites.

The mutation at AA position 44 (D to A) was introduced to the full length SosA protein via

extension PCR by first using primers Up-sosA_BglII/SosA_R-long on the SosAd10(44A) template,

then using that product as template for amplification with primers Up-sosA_BglII/Dw-sosA_EcoRI

followed by cloning into pRAB12-*lacZ*, thereby generating pSosA(44A). Expression plasmids pPBP1,

pDivIC, pPBP3, pFtsL, pMurJ, and pCtpA were constructed by cloning the *pbpA*, *divIC*, *pbpC*, *ftsL*,

murJ, and *ctpA* genes behind the P_{spac} promoter in pSK9067 (58) using primer pairs pbpA_F-

SalI/pbpA_R-EcoRI, divIC-F_SalI/divIC-R_EcoRI, pbpC-F_SalI/pbpC-R_EcoRI, ftsL-F_SalI/ftsL-R_AatII,

murJ-F_SalI/murJ-R_AatII, and ctpA_F-SalI/ctpA_R-EcoRI, respectively. A plasmid for *pbpA**

expression was constructed by use of the same primer pair as for *pbpA* but using pMAD-PBP1*

(59) as a template. For membrane topology analysis using pKTop (39), *sosA*, *sosAd10*,

sosAd10(44A) and *sosAd40* were PCR amplified from respective expression constructs using

primer SosA_F-BamHI and primers SosA_R-KpnI, SosAd10_R-KpnI or SosAd40_R-KpnI, respectively,

and cloned in frame in front of the *phoA-lacZ* chimeric gene using BamHI/KpnI restriction sites.

In order to construct JE2 strains producing a fluorescent fusion of FtsZ, EzrA or GpsB in the

presence of the *sosA* expression plasmid, JE2 pSosA was transduced with a lysate from SH4665

(SH1000 pCQ11-FtsZ-eYFP), JGL227 (SH1000 *ezrA-gfp*+) or JGL228 (SH1000 *gpsB-gfp*+), resulting in

SJF4694 (JE2 pRAB12-*lacZ* pCQ11-FtsZ-eYFP), SJF4696 (JE2 pRAB12-*lacZ ezrA-gfp*+) and SJF4699

(JE2 pRAB12-*lacZ gpsB* -*gfp*+), respectively. Control strains SJF4693 (JE2 pRAB12-*lacZ* pCQ11-FtsZ-

eYFP), SJF4696 (JE2 pRAB12-*lacZ ezrA-gfp*+) and SJF4699 (JE2 pRAB12-*lacZ gpsB-gfp*+) were

constructed by a phage transduction of JE2 pRAB12-*lacZ* with lysates from SH4665 (SH1000

pCQ11-FtsZ-eYFP), JGL227 (SH1000 *ezrA-gfp*+) or JGL228 (SH1000 *gpsB-gfp*+), respectively. To

induce FtsZ-eYFP production in SJF4693 and SJF4694, cells were grown in the presence of 50 μM

IPTG.

In order to screen for interaction of SosA with cell-division/cell wall synthesis proteins of *S. aureus*,

sosA was amplified from *S. aureus* SH1000 genomic DNA using primers ALB133 and ALB134, and

ligated into pUT18C using BamHI/EcoRI cut sites, resulting in pT18-SosA. T18 fusions with SosAd10

and SosAd40 were generated by combining ALB133 with respective truncation primers (Dw-

sosA(d10)_EcoRI and Dw-sosA(d40)_EcoRI). The pT18-SosA(44A) plasmid was obtained as above

but by use of pSosA(44A) as PCR amplification template. All fusion constructs to T25 and control

vectors were generated previously (43, 60-62, Table S1).

Determination of OD$_{600}$ and CFU after MMC treatment. Strains were grown overnight on TSA

plates and used for inoculating TSB and allowed to grow to OD$_{600}$ = 0.05 when Mitomycin C (MMC

from *Streptomyces caespitosus*, Sigma-Aldrich) was added. Cell density was monitored by OD$_{600}$

measurements at intervals onwards and samples were withdrawn to determine culture colony

forming units by serial dilution in 0.9% w/v NaCl and plating on TSA.

Flow cytometry. Cell size distributions of cultures were arbitrarily quantified by flow cytometry

using the forward scatter signal (FSC-A) acquired on a BD Accuri™ C6 flow cytometer (BD

Biosciences). Cell samples were diluted in 0.9% w/v NaCl to an approximate density of 10^6 cells/ml

and sonicated briefly to allow acquisition of scatter signal from single cells predominantly.

Sonication was performed with a Bandelin sonopuls HD2070/UW2070 apparatus (Bandelin

electronics, Germany) fitted with the MS 73 probe. Ten pulses of 500 msec were given at 50%

power. All flow cytometry experiments were independently repeated at least twice with similar

results.

Plating assays. Spot dilution was used to evaluate plating efficiency of strains carrying various

plasmid constructs. Strains were grown exponentially until an approximate OD_{600} of 0.5 under

plasmid selective conditions. Strains were then ten-fold serially diluted in 0.9% w/v NaCl and

positioned as 10 μl spots on TSA containing selective antibiotics with/without inducer at indicated

concentrations and incubated at 37°C overnight. All spot plating assays were independently

repeated with similar results.

Labelling *S. aureus* with HADA

Cells grown to mid-exponential phase (OD_{600} ~ 0.5) were incubated with 500 μM HADA at 37°C for

5 min. Cells were then washed by centrifugation and resuspension in PBS.

Labelling *S. aureus* with NHS ester

Labelling with NHS ester was performed as described before (34). Briefly, cells grown to mid-

exponential phase (OD_{600} ~0.5) were collected by centrifugation and growth medium was

discarded. Cells were resuspended in PBS containing 8 μg ml^{-1} Alexa Fluor 647 NHS ester

(Invitrogen) and incubated at room temperature for 5 min. Cells were washed by centrifugation

and resuspension in PBS.

Fixing

Cells were fixed by incubation in 4% (w/v) paraformaldehyde at room temperature for 30 min.

Widefield Epifluorescence Microscopy

Fixed cells were dried onto a poly-L-Lysine coated slide and mounted in PBS. Imaging was

performed using either a Nikon Ti Inverted microscope fitted with a Lumencor Spectra X light

engine or a v4 DeltaVision OMX 3D-SIM system (Applied Precision, GE Healthcare, Issaquah, USA).

3D Structured Illumination Microscopy

A high precision cover slip (High-precision, No.1.5H, 22x22mm, 170±5 μm, Marienfeld) was

cleaned by sonicating in 1 M KOH for 15 min at room temperature. The coverslip was washed with

water and incubated in 0.01% (w/v) poly-L-lysine solution (Sigma) for 30 min at room

temperature. The coverslip was rinsed with water and dried with nitrogen. Fixed cells were dried

onto the poly-L-Lysine coated cover slip and mounted on a slide with SlowFade Diamond

(Invitrogen). 3D SIM visualisation was performed using a v4 DeltaVision OMX 3D-SIM system

(Applied Precision, GE Healthcare, Issaquah, USA) equipped with a Plan Apo 60x, 1.42 NA oil

objective, using 1.514 immersion oil, a 642 nm laser and a standard excitation/emission filter set

(683/40). For each z-section, a sample was imaged in 5 phase shifts and 3 angles. The z-sections

were 0.125 nm in depth. Raw data were reconstructed with the Softworx software (GE

Healthcare) using OTFs optimized for the specific wavelength and oil used.

Time-lapse microscopy. Strains were grown overnight in TSB medium at 37°C, then diluted 100

times in fresh TSB and grown until OD = 0.1. Cells were washed once with fresh TSB and spotted

onto TSB-acrylamide (10%) pads previously incubated for 2h in TSB medium supplemented, when

appropriate, with 0.04 μg/mL mitomycin C (MMC) or 200 ng/mL anhydrotetracycline (AHT). Pads

were placed into a Gene frame (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and sealed with a cover glass. Phase-

contrast images were acquired on a DV Elite microscope (GE healthcare) equipped with a sCMOS

(PCO) camera and a 100x oil-immersion objective. Images were acquired with 200 ms exposure

time every 4 minutes for at least 6 h at 37°C using Softworx (Applied Precision) software. Images

were analyzed using Fiji (http://fiji.sc).

Western blot analysis. Purified rabbit anti-SosA antibody was obtained via GenScript Biotech

(Netherlands). A custom peptide, CEHKDPTNNSEQRDGA, comprising AAs 57-70 of SosA was used

for immunization. Bacterial cells were pelleted and frozen immediately at -80°C before being

resuspended in PBS containing cOmplete™ Mini Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Sigma-Aldrich) and

lysed by bead-beating (Fastprep-24™, MP Biomedicals). The protein concentration of the lysates

was measured using the Qubit™ Protein Assay Kit (ThermoFisher Scientific) and samples were

normalized to equal amounts of protein, 20 μg of total protein was separated on NuPAGE® 4-12%

Bis-Tris gels using MES buffer and the XCell sure-lock mini-cell system (ThermoFisher Scientific),

transferred to a polyvinylidene difluoride membrane(PVDF) and probed with primary antibody

diluted 1:1000. Bound antibody was detected with the WesternBreeze® Chemiluminescent Kit,

anti-rabbit according to the instructions from the manufacturer (ThermoFisher Scientific). All

western blots were independently repeated with similar results. Uncropped versions of blots are

displayed in Fig S6.

Bacterial two-hybrid assay. Interactions between SosA and proteins involved in cell division and

cell wall synthesis of *S. aureus* were tested using *E.coli* BTH101 (Δ*cyaA*) cotransformed with pT18-

SosA and a plasmid carrying a fusion of T25 with a cell-division or cell wall synthesis protein on

minimal medium as previously described (43). Mutant and truncated variants of SosA were tested

specifically for interaction with PBP1 and DivIC in comparison to the interaction observed with the

wildtype protein.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by grants from the Danish Council for Independent Research –

Technology and Production (1337-00129 and 1335-00772) to M.S.B., by the Danish National

Research Foundation (DNRF120) to H.I., and by the Medical Research Council (MR/K015753/1 to

the Wolfson Light Microscopy Facility at the University of Sheffield and MR/N002679/1). We

would like to thank Prof Simon Jones (University of Sheffield) for the HADA dye.

M.S.B., K.W., P.K., M.T.C., S.J.F., and H.I. conceived and designed the study. Experiments were

performed by M.S.B., K.W., C.G., and A.L.B. M.S.B. K.W., C.G., G.L., D.F., J.-W.V., S.J.F., and H.I.

contributed to analysis of data and drafting of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the

final manuscript.

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Figures

Figure 1

Fig 1 Gram-positive SOS-controlled cell-division inhibitors. (A) Schematic representation of genes

encoding characterized gram-positive SOS-regulated cell-division inhibitors (not drawn to scale)

including the uncharacterized *sosA* from *S. aureus*. Despite considerable sequence divergence,

these genes are commonly chromosomally co-localized with *lexA* homologous genes. The cell-

division inhibitors carry a single transmembrane domain (TM), and several proteins have an

additional LysM domain. (B) Alignment (CLUSTAL O[1.2.4]) of SosA sequences deduced from open

reading frames next to *lexA* in *S. aureus* strain 8325-4 (YP_499864) and seven *Staphylococcus*

species: *S. carnosus* (CAL27889), *S. simulans* (AMG96201), *S. arlettae* (EJY94737), *S. haemolyticus*

(YP_253482), *S. lugdunensis* (YP_003471776), *S. epidermidis* (YP_188489), and *S. warneri*

(EEQ79882). The proteins are 77 amino acids long and are characterized by a predicted

transmembrane segment at AAs 10-30 (for *S. aureus* SosA) and a predicted extracellular C-

terminal (TOPCONS [37]) with considerable sequence conservation at the membrane-proximal

portion ("*" indicates fully conserved residues, ":" indicates conservation of residues with highly

similar properties).

Figure 2

Fig 2 SosA supports survival of *S. aureus* subjected to lethal DNA damage and is involved in

bacterial swelling. (A) Culture optical density at 600 nm and cell viability of *S. aureus* strains 8325-

4 and JE2 in comparison with their respective Δ*sosA* mutants upon challenge with a lethal dose of

mitomycin C (MMC, 1 µg/ml) for two hours. Error bars represent the standard deviation from

three biological replicates. (B) Cell size of 8325-4 and JE2 wildtype and Δ*sosA* mutants exposed to

mitomycin C estimated by flow cytometry (FSC-A). Cells were grown exponentially prior to MMC

addition at an OD_{600} of 0.05. Samples were taken after 0 (black), 40 (brown), 80 (red), and 120

(blue) minutes of incubation with MMC. (C) Effect of MMC treatment (0.04 µg/mL) on cell shape

and cell number of JE2 wildtype and JE2Δ*sosA* as visualized by time-lapse phase-contrast

microscopy. Scale bar represents 2 µm.

Figure 3

Fig 3 Expression of *sosA* alone interferes with *S. aureus* growth. (A) The effect of a controlled

expression of *sosA* on the ability to form colonies was assessed in *S. aureus* RN4220. Strains

carrying either the vector control (vector) or *sosA* under an anhydrotetracycline (AHT)-inducible

promoter (pSosA) were grown exponentially to an OD_{600} of 0.5, serially 10-fold diluted, and plated

on TSA plates in the presence or absence of TSA+300 ng/ml of AHT. The plates were incubated

overnight at 37°C and imaged. (B) Evaluation of cell size distribution by flow cytometry (FSC-A) of

S. aureus RN4220 containing the control vector (black) or pSosA (red). Cells were grown

exponentially prior to induction with 100 ng/ml of AHT. At the indicated time points, the cells

were collected and analyzed by flow cytometry. (C) Visualization of cell size increase and reduction

of cell number of JE2/pRAB12-*lacZ* (control) and JE2/pRAB12-*sosA* in the presence of 200 ng/mL of

AHT by time-lapse phase-contrast microscopy at 37°C. Scale bar represents 2 μm.

Figure 4

Fig 4 Evaluation of membrane localization of SosA and truncated variants SosAd10, SosAd10(44A),

and SosAd40 by in frame fusion at the C-terminus to PhoA-LacZ in pKTop (the truncated variants

are explained in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6). *E. coli* IM08B cells carrying the constructs were streaked on a

dual indicator plate containing LB agar plus 50 μg/ml of kanamycin, 1 mM IPTG, 5-bromo-4-

chloro-3-indolyl phosphate disodium salt (80 μg/ml) and 6-Chloro-3-indolyl-β-D-galactopyranoside

(100 μg/ml). Cytoplasmic localization of the PhoA-LacZ chimera is indicated by red/rose color

development whereas translocation across the membrane is indicated by blue color development.

Figure 5

Fig 5 The effect of C-terminal truncations of SosA on the inhibitory activity of the protein. (A)

Schematic representation of the different truncated SosA constructs. Full-length SosA is a 77-

amino-acid peptide. SosAd10 lacks the extreme C-terminal 10 amino acids, while SosAd40 is SosA

truncated of almost its entire extracellular C-terminal part. Indicated conserved residues (∗)

originate from the alignment in Figure 1. (B) Activity of the constructs was assessed in *S. aureus*

RN4220 and compared to the vector control (vector). Cells were grown exponentially to an OD_{600}

of 0.5, serially 10-fold diluted, and plated on TSA (control) or TSA plus inducer (AHT) at indicated

increasing concentrations followed by incubation overnight at 37°C. (C) Visualization of the drastic

cell size increase and the reduction in cell number of JE2/pRAB12-*lacZ* (control) and JE2/pRAB12-

sosAd10 in presence of 200 ng/mL of AHT by time-lapse phase-contrast microscopy at 37°C. Scale

bar represents 2 μm.

Figure 6

Fig 6 (A) Assessment of the activity of SosAd10 variants with point mutations (alanine

substitutions) at conserved residues (37/38, 40/41, and 44/45) within the C-terminal part. Activity

of the constructs was assessed in *S. aureus* JE2 and compared to the vector control (-), SosA, and

SosAd10. Cells were grown exponentially to an OD_{600} of 0.5, serially 10-fold diluted, and plated on

TSA (control) or TSA plus inducer (AHT) at increasing concentrations followed by incubation

overnight at 37°C. (B) Comparison of the activity of the point mutation protein SosA(44A) with

wildtype SosA in *S. aureus* JE2. Cells were grown as above and plated on TSA or TSA plus 200 ng/ml

AHT.

 Figure 7

Fig 7 CtpA is a possible negative regulator of SosA. (A) Hypersusceptibility of an *S. aureus* JE2 *ctpA*

mutant to SosA-mediated growth inhibition. Expression of *sosA* (pSosA) in wildtype *S. aureus* JE2

(WT) and the corresponding JE2-*ctpA* mutant (*ctpA*) were compared and referenced to the vector

control (vector) and expression of the hyperactive SosAd10 variant (pSosAd10) in the wildtype.

Cells were grown exponentially to an OD_{600} of 0.5, serially 10-fold diluted, and plated on TSA

(Control) or TSA plus inducer (AHT) at indicated concentrations. The plates were incubated

overnight at 37°C and imaged. (B) Assessment of mitomycin C susceptibility of a *ctpA* mutant by

comparison of plating efficiency of *S. aureus* 8325-4 and JE2 wildtype, *ctpA*, and Δ*sosA-ctpA* in

presence of 0.5 µg/ml MMC. Cells were grown exponentially to an OD_{600} of 0.5 and serially 10-fold

diluted before plating and incubation at 37°C overnight. (C) Western blot of accumulated SosA in

S. aureus 8325-4 wildtype (WT) and the *ctpA* mutant at indicated time points after the addition of

1 µg/ml of MMC to exponentially growing cells.

Figure 8

Fig 8 SosA does not impair the localization of cell-division proteins and septum formation

initiation. (A) Localization of FtsZ-eYFP in SJF4694 (JE2 pSosA pCQ11-FtsZ-eYFP) grown in the

absence and presence of 100 ng/ml of AHT for 45 min. (B) EzrA-GFP localization in SJF4697 (JE2

pSosA *ezrA-gfp+*) grown in the absence or presence of 100 ng/ml AHT for 45 min. (C) Percentages

of JE2 pSosA cells exhibiting incomplete, complete, complete split, or incomplete split septa (n =

573 for no AHT, n = 607 for 100 ng/ml of AHT; organisms either isolated or co-adhered in pairs;

other represents staining in indistinct shape) after incubation with or without AHT for 45 min. (D)

GpsB-GFP localization in SJF700 (JE2 pSosA *gpsB-gfp*+) grown in the absence or presence of 100

ng/ml of AHT for 45 min. All fluorescence images are average intensity projections. All scale bars

represent 3 um.

Figure 9

Fig 9 SosA interaction with the central divisome components. (A) Analysis of the protein

interactions between SosA and a panel of *S. aureus* cell-division or cell wall-synthesis proteins

using the bacterial two-hybrid system. T18 and T25 are domains of an adenylate cyclase enzyme,

and the "T18-SosA" and "T25 fusions" labels indicate the fusions between the C-terminus of the

T18 adenylate cyclase fragment to the N-terminus of SosA and the T25 fusions to the cell-division

proteins. *Left*: Interactions between the *S. aureus* cell-division proteins fused to T25 and *S. aureus*

SosA fused to T18, wherein 10 µl of a 1:100 dilution of overnight culture of co-transformed

BTH101 were spotted onto minimal medium containing 150 µg/ml of X-gal and incubated at 30°C

for 36 h. +ve, T25-zip + T18-zip; -ve, pKT25 + pUT18C. *Right*: β–Galactosidase activity of

interactions between *S. aureus* T18-SosA and cell-division proteins (T25 fusions). Activity is

displayed as the mean of three independent measurements of β–galactosidase activity, in MUG

(4-methylumbelliferyl-β-D-galactopyranoside) units, for each co-transformant. Error bars

represent the standard deviation. Positive interactions are considered to be at least four times

higher than the activity level for the negative control, and this cut-off level is represented by the

red line in the bar chart. (B) Assessment of the plating efficiency of *S. aureus* JE2 upon

concomitant overexpression of *sosA* (pSosA, AHT-inducible) and *pbpA* (pPBP1) or *divIC* (pDivIC) or

pbpC (pPBP3) controlled by IPTG (+). (-) denotes the vector controls. Cells were grown

exponentially to an OD_{600} of 0.5, serially 10-fold diluted, and plated on TSA plates containing 100

ng/ml AHT and 0.2 mM IPTG where indicated. The plates were incubated overnight at 37°C and

imaged. (C) Interactions of T18 fusions to SosA, SosA(44A), SosAd10 and SosAd40 with T25-PBP1

or T25-DivIC. 10 µl of a 1:100 dilution of overnight cultures of co-transformed BTH101 were

spotted onto LB containing 150 µg/ml of X-gal and incubated at 30°C for 24 h. +ve and –ve

denotes positive and negative interaction controls, respectively.

Figure 10

Fig 10 Proposed model for a regulated survival strategy for *S. aureus* upon DNA damage. As part of

the SOS response, SosA is produced and, by a membrane-localized activity, corrupts normal cell-

division activity, likely via an interaction with essential divisome components. In effect, cells are

still able to initiate septum formation but are unable to complete it, leading to synchronization of

the cell population. This provides a spatio-temporal window for paralleled SOS response-regulated

DNA-repair activity. At the same time, the cell size increases due to off-septal activity of

peptidoglycan-synthesis enzymes. As the SOS response diminishes, the cellular concentration of

SosA is lowered, directly or indirectly, by the proteolytic activity of CtpA. At this stage, septa are

allowed to complete and normal growth/division continues.

Supplemental Material

6 supplementary figures, 1 supplementary table, 3 supplementary movies.

Legends for supplemental material

Fig. S1 Percent identity matrix for staphylococcal SosA proteins. Pairwise identity scores for the

proteins included in the alignment in Figure 1 were obtained by the Clustal 2.1 algorithm.

Fig. S2 (A) Detection by western blot of DNA-damage induced expression of SosA. SosA being

detected in wildtype *S. aureus* 8325-4 and the complemented strain, while being absent in the

sosA deletion mutant following 1 h of MMC treatment (1 µg/ml). Also displayed is the time-

dependent expression of SosA in *S. aureus* JE2 post MMC addition (1 µg/ml) in comparison to the

corresponding *sosA* deletion mutant. (B and C) Phenotypic complementation of the *sosA* deletion

mutant. The phenotypes of *S. aureus* 8325-4Δ*sosA* were restored back to wildtype by

chromosomal integration of a copy of the *sosA* gene under its native promoter (*S. aureus* 8325-

4Δ*sosA*-compl.) when evaluated for changes in cell density and viability (B) and cell size assessed

by flow cytometry (C) during challenge with MMC (1 µg/ml). Mean FSC-A values are indicated

below histograms. Cells were grown exponentially prior to addition of MMC at an OD_{600} of 0.05.

(D) Effect of different truncated SosA variants on *S. aureus* cell size. Evaluation of cell size

distribution was performed by flow cytometry (FSC-A) of *S. aureus* RN4220 containing expression

plasmids encoding full length SosA or C-terminally truncated variants of the protein. Mean FSC-A

values are indicated below histograms. Cells were grown exponentially prior to induction with 100

ng/ml of AHT and analyzed at indicated time points. (E) Western blot of accumulation in *S. aureus*

JE2 of SosA, SosAd10, SosA(44A), and SosAd10(44A) expressed from respective plasmid constructs

for 1 h with 200 ng/ml AHT.

Fig. S3 Hypersusceptibility of an *S. aureus* JE2 *ctpA* mutant to SosA-mediated growth inhibition.

Plating efficiency of the *S. aureus* JE2-*ctpA*(−erm) mutant transformed with both SosA and CtpA

expression plasmids (+) or vector controls (-) at different inducer concentrations; AHT for SosA and

IPTG for CtpA. Cells were grown exponentially to an OD_{600} of 0.5, serially 10-fold diluted, and

plated on TSA plus indicated inducer concentrations followed by incubation overnight at 37°C

before imaging.

Fig. S4 SosA halts septum completion. Localization of (A) FtsZ-eYFP in SJF4693 (JE2 pRAB12-*lacZ*

pCQ11-FtsZ-eYFP), (B) EzrA-GFP in SJF4696 (JE2 pRAB12-*lacZ ezrA-gfp*+) and (D) GpsB-GFP in

SJF4699 (JE2 pRAB12-*lacZ gpsB-gfp*+) grown in the absence and presence of 100 ng/ml of AHT for

45 min. Fluorescence images are average intensity projections. Scale bars represents 3 μm. (C)

Fluorescence microscopy images of JE2/pSosA grown in the absence or presence of 100 ng/ml of

AHT for 45 min and labeled with HADA for 5 min. Images are average intensity projections. Scale

bars represents 3 μm. (E) 3D-SIM Z-stack images of JE2/pSosA grown with 100 ng/ml of AHT for 45

min and labelled with Alexa Fluor 647 NHS ester. (i) A cell with initiated septum formation and (ii)

a cell splitting into daughter cells without finishing a septal disc. Scale bars represents 0.5 μm.

Fig. S5 Assessment of the plating efficiency of *S. aureus* strain JE2 upon expression of *sosA* (pSosA,

AHT-inducible) and concomitant overexpression of PBP1 (*pbpA*) or a PBP1 transpeptidase mutant

PBP1* (*pbpA**) (A), PBP1 (*pbpA*) and in comparison to SosA(44A) (B), MurJ (C), and FtsL (D).

Inducer concentrations for SosA (and SosA(44A)) were 50 ng/ml (panels A-C) and 150 ng/ml AHT

(panel D). Co-expression proteins were induced by 0.2 mM IPTG. (+) denotes protein encoding

vectors, (-) denotes empty vector controls. In all panels, cells were grown exponentially to an

OD$_{600}$ of 0.5, serially 10-fold diluted, and plated on TSA with/without inducers followed by

incubation overnight at 37°C before imaging.

Fig. S6 Uncropped western blots relating to Figure 7 and Figure S2.

Movie S1. Time-lapse microscopy of *S. aureus* JE2 WT and *sosA* mutant upon MMC exposure.

Movie S2. Time-lapse microscopy of *S. aureus* JE2 cells overexpressing SosA.

Movie S3. Time-lapse microscopy of *S. aureus* JE2 cells overexpressing SosAd10.