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**Multiple classes of bactericidal antibiotics cause DNA double strand breaks in
*Staphylococcus aureus***

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Running title: Antibiotics cause *S. aureus* DNA damage

35 **Abstract**

36 Antibiotics inhibit essential bacterial processes, resulting in arrest of growth and in some cases cell
37 death. Many antibiotics are also reported to trigger endogenous production of reactive oxygen
38 species (ROS), which damage DNA and other macromolecules. However, the type of DNA damage
39 that arises and the mechanisms used by bacteria to repair it are largely unclear. We found that
40 several different classes of antibiotic triggered dose-dependent DNA damage in *Staphylococcus*
41 *aureus*, including some bacteriostatic drugs. Damage was heterogenous and varied in magnitude
42 between strains. However, antibiotic-triggered DNA damage led to double strand breaks, the
43 processing of which by the RexAB helicase/nuclease complex triggered the SOS response and
44 reduced staphylococcal susceptibility to most of the antibacterials tested. In most cases, DNA DSBs
45 occurred under aerobic but not anaerobic conditions, suggesting a role for ROS. We conclude that
46 DNA double strand breaks are a common occurrence during bacterial exposure to several different
47 antibiotic classes and that repair of this damage by the RexAB complex promotes bacterial survival.

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52 Introduction

53 *Staphylococcus aureus* is a common cause of both superficial and invasive infections [1]. Many of
54 these infections, such as infective endocarditis and osteomyelitis can be difficult to treat, requiring
55 lengthy courses of therapy [2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]. Staphylococcal infections are also associated with a
56 high rate of relapse and/or the development of chronic infections, even when the bacteria causing
57 the infection appear to be fully antibiotic susceptible [2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10].

58 There is, therefore, a pressing need to identify new approaches to enhance antibiotic efficacy. To do
59 this, it is important to have a comprehensive understanding of the factors that influence bacterial
60 susceptibility to antibiotics. For example, replication rate has been shown to correlate with
61 susceptibility to several classes of antibiotic [11,12,13]. However, recent evidence suggests that
62 metabolic activity is a better indicator of susceptibility than the replication rate, indicating that
63 metabolism contributes to the bactericidal activity of certain antibacterial drugs [14]. This is because
64 the inhibition of bacterial processes by bactericidal antibiotics leads to metabolic perturbations,
65 which in turn result in the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) [15,16,17,18,19,20,21,22].
66 These highly reactive molecules damage cellular molecules including DNA, lipids and protein and
67 have been proposed to contribute to the lethality of bactericidal antibiotics [15,16,23,24,25,26].

68 Antibiotic-triggered ROS production has been reported to occur in several different bacteria in
69 response to many different classes of antibiotic [15,16,17,18,19,20,21,22]. However, the magnitude
70 of the damage caused by antibiotic-triggered ROS production and the degree to which these radicals
71 contribute to bacterial killing is unclear [27,28,29]. This issue is worth resolving because a greater
72 understanding of the mechanisms by which bacteria repair the damage caused by ROS may help to
73 identify new therapeutics that enhance antibiotic activity. For example, we have shown previously
74 that the combination antibiotic co-trimoxazole (trimethoprim plus sulphmethoxazole) caused DNA
75 double strand breaks (DSB) and induction of the SOS DNA repair response in an oxygen-dependent
76 manner in the major human pathogen *Staphylococcus aureus* [30]. This DNA damage was lethal if
77 not repaired, resulting in 50-5000-fold greater reduction in CFU counts of a mutant defective for DSB
78 repair (*rexB::Tn*) relative to wild type *S. aureus*. As such, inhibitors of RexAB would be expected to
79 significantly enhance the bactericidal activity of co-trimoxazole against *S. aureus*.

80 To understand whether our findings with co-trimoxazole were applicable to other antibacterial
81 drugs, we undertook a comprehensive analysis of multiple classes of antibiotics. This revealed that
82 most antibiotics cause DNA damage in *S. aureus* under aerobic conditions, which results in DNA
83 DSBs, since mutants lacking DNA DSB repair complex RexAB were more susceptible to antibiotic
84 killing. Novel inhibitors that block staphylococcal DNA repair complex RexAB would, therefore, be
85 expected to sensitise *S. aureus* to the bactericidal activity of multiple antibiotics.

86 **Results**

87 **Multiple classes of antibiotics cause DNA damage in *S. aureus***

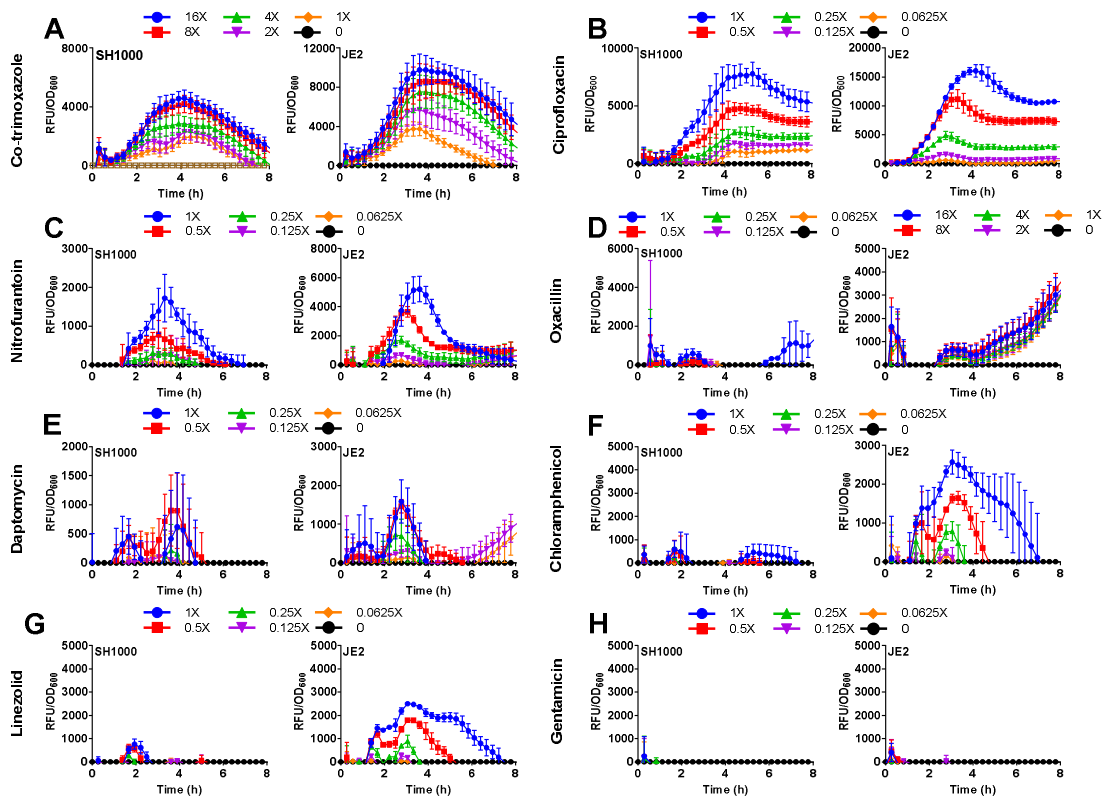
88 DNA damage in most bacteria, including *S. aureus*, triggers activation of the SOS response, which
89 leads to the transcription of genes whose products contribute to DNA repair [30,31,32,33,34]. These
90 genes include *recA*, which encodes the RecA protein required for homologous recombination and,
91 together with LexA, is a key regulator of the SOS response [31,32,33].

92 To determine whether antibiotics caused DNA damage in *S. aureus*, we used a *PrecA-gfp* reporter
93 system in two distinct genetic backgrounds: SH1000, a methicillin-sensitive *S. aureus* (MSSA) strain,
94 and JE2, a community-associated methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (CA-MRSA) strain of the USA300
95 lineage [30,34]. Co-trimoxazole was included as a control, since we have shown previously it triggers
96 the SOS response in *S. aureus* [23].

97 These strains were then exposed to various classes of clinically relevant antibiotics across a range of
98 concentrations that partially inhibited growth (Fig. S1). These included both bactericidal (co-
99 trimoxazole, ciprofloxacin, nitrofurantoin, oxacillin, daptomycin, gentamicin) and bacteriostatic
100 (chloramphenicol, linezolid) drugs.

101 As expected, we found that co-trimoxazole, ciprofloxacin, nitrofurantoin and oxacillin triggered SOS
102 induction in both the SH1000 and JE2 strains (Fig. 1A,B,C,D,) [30,34,35,36]. DNA damage was also
103 apparent during exposure to the bactericidal lipopeptide antibiotic daptomycin and the
104 bacteriostatic drugs chloramphenicol and linezolid, albeit to varying degrees and with some
105 differences between the two strains (Fig. 1E,F,G). However, we did not detect any induction of the
106 SOS response during bacterial exposure to gentamicin at any of the concentrations used (Fig. 1H).
107 Taken together, these data indicated that most clinically relevant classes of antibiotics, including
108 bacteriostatic agents caused DNA damage in *S. aureus*.

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111 **Figure 1. Induction of the SOS response in *S. aureus* SH1000 and JE2 by diverse classes of**
112 **antibiotics. (A-H) Induction of SOS measured by GFP expression driven from a *PrecA-gfp* reporter**
113 **construct upon exposure to a range of concentrations of various antibiotics. Concentrations were**
114 **chosen based on their ability to cause growth inhibition and represent multiples of the MIC of the**
115 **individual strain as indicated in the key above each graph. GFP fluorescence was normalised to OD₆₀₀**
116 **to determine induction of SOS relative to cell density. Data represent the mean of 3 independent**
117 **experiments (n = 3). Representative OD₆₀₀ measurements alone are shown in Fig. S1. Error bars**
118 **represent standard deviation of the mean.**

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128 **SOS induction is partly due to processing of DNA double strand breaks by the RexAB**
129 **helicase/nuclease complex**

130 We have shown previously that induction of the SOS response by co-trimoxazole is largely due to the
131 processing of DNA double strand breaks (DSBs) by the AddAB-family RexAB nuclease/helicase
132 complex [30,34,37]. Therefore, we determined whether SOS induction by other classes of antibiotics
133 was also due to RexAB-mediated processing of DNA DSBs. As before, co-trimoxazole was included in
134 these assays as a control.

135 To do this, we compared GFP fluorescence from wild type *S. aureus* JE2 and a *rexB::Tn* mutant
136 defective for RexAB, both of which contained the *PrecA-gfp* reporter system, during exposure to the
137 same panel of antibiotics as described for Figure 1 [30,34,38,39]. As expected from our previous
138 work, we found that the lack of RexAB reduced *recA* induction relative to the wild type during
139 exposure to co-trimoxazole (Fig. 2A) [30]. We also observed reduced *recA* expression in the *rexB::Tn*
140 mutant relative to the wild type during exposure to the quinolone antibiotic ciprofloxacin, which is
141 known to cause DNA DSBs (Fig. 2B) [40].

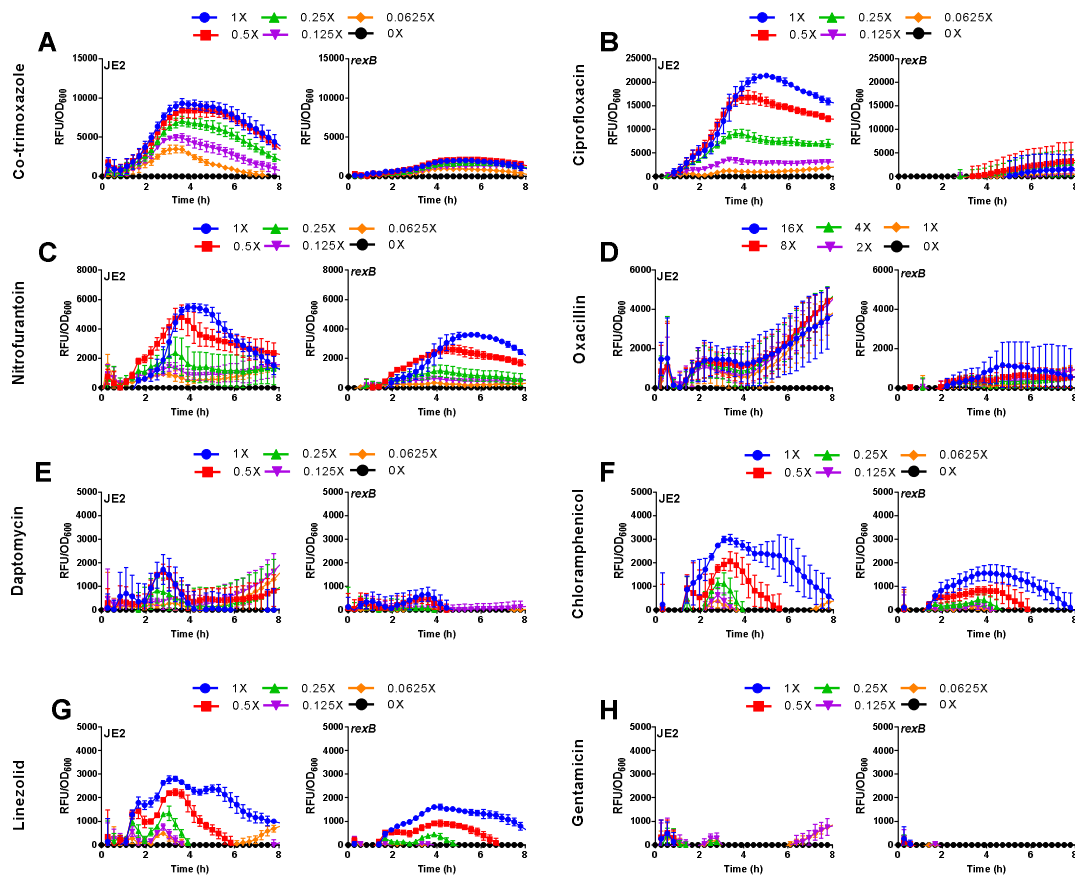
142 For nitrofurantoin, oxacillin, daptomycin, chloramphenicol and linezolid, we also observed lower
143 levels of SOS induction in the *rexB::Tn* mutant relative to the wild type, although the differences
144 between strains was not as profound as for co-trimoxazole and ciprofloxacin (Fig. 2C-H). As expected
145 from previous data (Fig. 1G), no *recA* induction was observed from either wild type or *rexB::Tn*
146 mutant during exposure to gentamicin (Fig. 2G). Therefore, as for co-trimoxazole, RexAB is required
147 for maximal induction of SOS in response to DNA damage caused by several clinically relevant
148 antibiotics, indicating that these drugs cause DNA DSBs in *S. aureus*.

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154 **Figure 2. *RexAB* is required for maximal induction of the SOS response during exposure to**
155 **antibiotics. (A-H) Induction of SOS response of JE2 wild-type and *rexB* mutant measured by GFP**
156 **expression upon exposure to a range of sub-lethal concentrations of antibiotics. Concentrations of**
157 **antibiotic are labelled by multiple of the MIC of the wild-type strain. GFP fluorescence was**
158 **normalised by OD₆₀₀ to determine induction of SOS relative to cell density (n = 3). Representative**
159 **OD₆₀₀ measurements alone are shown in Fig. S1. Error bars represent standard deviation of the**
160 **mean.**

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170 **DNA DSB repair reduces bacterial susceptibility to several classes of antibiotics**

171 The requirement of RexAB for maximal induction of the SOS response indicated that exposure to
172 most antibiotics caused DNA DSBs [30,34]. Since DSBs are lethal if not repaired, we hypothesised
173 that mutants defective for RexAB would be more susceptible than wild type strains to those
174 antibiotics that triggered the SOS response.

175 To test this, we determined the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of each antibiotic for wild
176 type *S. aureus* SH1000 and JE2, and associated *rexB::Tn* mutants (Table 1). The *rexB* mutants in both
177 JE2 and SH1000 strains were ≥ 2 -fold more susceptible to 7 of the 8 antibiotics tested conditions
178 (Table 1). Importantly, the absence of RexAB increased the susceptibility of the MRSA strain JE2 to
179 both oxacillin and ciprofloxacin 4-fold, despite this strain being resistant to both antibiotics.

180 The one exception was gentamicin, where the SH1000 *rexB::Tn* mutant was 2-fold more susceptible
181 to the antibiotic, but the JE2 *rexB::Tn* mutant had the same MIC as the wild type strain, in keeping
182 with the fact that this antibiotic did not trigger the SOS response under the conditions tested (Table
183 1). Taken together, the MIC data provide additional evidence that most antibiotics cause DNA DSBs
184 in *S. aureus*.

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Strain	SH1000 WT	SH1000 <i>rexB::Tn</i>	JE2 WT	JE2 <i>rexB::Tn</i>
Antibiotic				
Co-trimoxazole	0.25	0.125 (2-fold)	0.5	0.25 (2-fold)
Ciprofloxacin	0.125	0.0078 (16-fold)	16	4 (4-fold)
Nitrofurantoin	8	4 (2-fold)	16	4 (4-fold)
Oxacillin	0.125	0.06 (2-fold)	4	1 (4-fold)
Daptomycin	0.25	0.125 (2-fold)	0.25	0.125 (2-fold)
Chloramphenicol	4	1 (4-fold)	4	2 (2-fold)
Linezolid	1	0.25 (4-fold)	1	0.25 (4-fold)
Gentamicin	0.0625	0.031 (2-fold)	0.125	0.125 (no diff)

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188 **Table 1.** MIC values ($\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) of *S. aureus* WT and *rexB* mutant in SH1000 and JE2 backgrounds for
189 various antibiotics ($n \geq 3$; median MIC is shown). The fold reduction in MIC of the *rexB::Tn* mutants
190 relative to the wild type are also shown.

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192 **DNA DSB repair promotes staphylococcal tolerance of several classes of antibiotics**

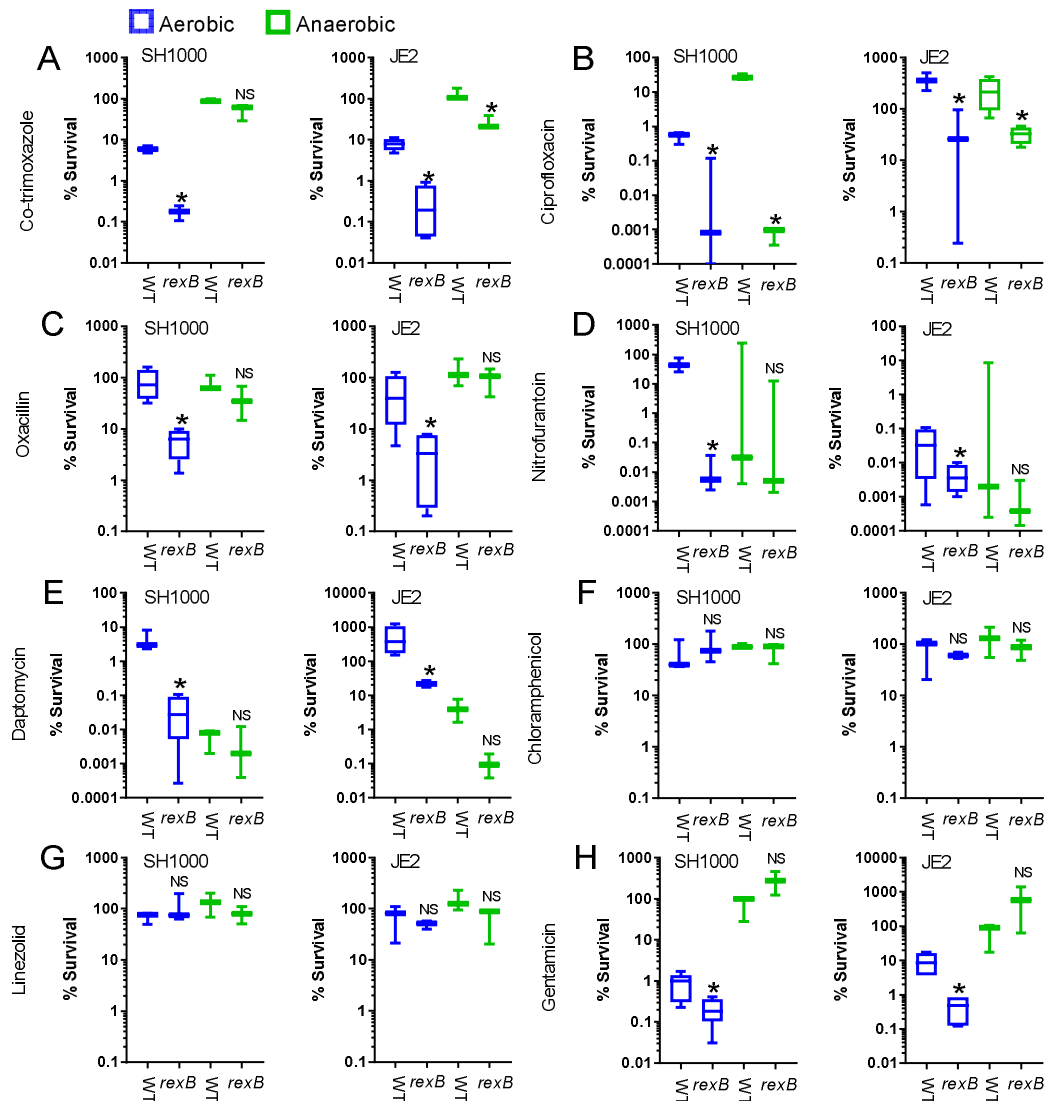
193 We have shown previously that DNA DSB repair by RexAB enables staphylococcal tolerance of the
194 combination antibiotic co-trimoxazole [30]. Since most of the other antibiotics we examined also
195 caused DNA DSBs, leading to increased susceptibility of *rexB*::Tn mutants in MIC measurements, we
196 hypothesised that RexAB would also contribute to bacterial survival during exposure to a supra-MIC
197 concentration of these other anti-bacterial drugs.

198 To test this we exposed wild type *S. aureus* SH1000 and JE2, and associated *rexB*::Tn mutants to 10X
199 the MIC of the wild type of each of the antibiotics used in previous assays and measured survival
200 after 8 h incubation at 37 °C in an aerobic atmosphere (Fig. 3). Similar to the MIC assays, 6 of 8
201 antibiotics tested were more active against the *rexB*::Tn mutant relative to wild type bacteria,
202 resulting in lower survival of the DNA repair defective strains (Fig. 3). The two antibiotics where
203 there was no difference in survival between wild type and *rexB*::Tn mutants were linezolid and
204 chloramphenicol, which are both bacteriostatic and did not reduce CFU counts of any of the strains
205 (Fig. 3F,G). The remaining 6 antibiotics (co-trimoxazole, ciprofloxacin, oxacillin, nitrofurantoin,
206 daptomycin, gentamicin), all of which are classified as bactericidal, caused significantly greater
207 decreases in CFU counts of the *rexB*::Tn mutants relative to wild type bacteria (Fig. 3A,B,C,D,E,H).
208 The increased susceptibility of the *rexB*::Tn mutants resulted in 5-500-fold greater reductions in CFU
209 counts compared to wild type cells after 8h exposure to the 6 bactericidal antibiotics (Fig.
210 3A,B,C,D,E,H).

211 To test whether DNA DSBs caused by bactericidal antibiotics were due to endogenous ROS
212 production, we repeated bactericidal activity assays under anaerobic conditions. As reported
213 previously, co-trimoxazole lost bactericidal activity in the absence of oxygen, as did ciprofloxacin and
214 gentamicin, the latter due to the reduction in membrane potential in the absence of oxygen [30,42]
215 (Fig. 3A,B,H). The bactericidal antibiotics nitrofurantoin and daptomycin retained bactericidal activity
216 under anaerobic conditions, but oxacillin did not (Fig. 3C,D,E). However, by contrast to aerobic
217 conditions, nitrofurantoin and daptomycin were equally bactericidal against wild type and *rexB*::Tn
218 mutants, suggesting that they caused DNA damage in a ROS dependent manner (Fig. 3).

219 The finding that loss of RexAB resulted in increased killing of both the SH1000 MSSA and JE2 MRSA
220 strain by the frontline anti-staphylococcal penicillin oxacillin was particularly noteworthy because
221 this indicated a mechanism by which MRSA strains could be re-sensitised to the antibiotic.
222 Therefore, we repeated this assay and included mutants complemented with the *rexBA* operon [34]
223 (Fig. 4). As expected, the *rexB*::Tn mutants were more susceptible to killing by oxacillin than wild
224 type bacteria under aerobic but not anaerobic conditions. Complementation of mutations with

225 plasmids containing the *rexBA* operon, but not the plasmid alone, restored survival to wild type
 226 levels, confirming the role of RexAB in staphylococcal tolerance of oxacillin (Fig. 4).
 227 Taken together, these findings support previous work by showing that several diverse classes of
 228 antibiotics cause DNA damage under aerobic conditions, most likely via ROS generation [30]. The
 229 data presented here extend these previous observations by demonstrating that antibiotic-mediated
 230 DNA damage leads to DNA DSBs and that repair of these DSBs by the RexAB helicase/nuclease
 231 complex promotes bacterial survival during exposure to several different classes of antibiotic.
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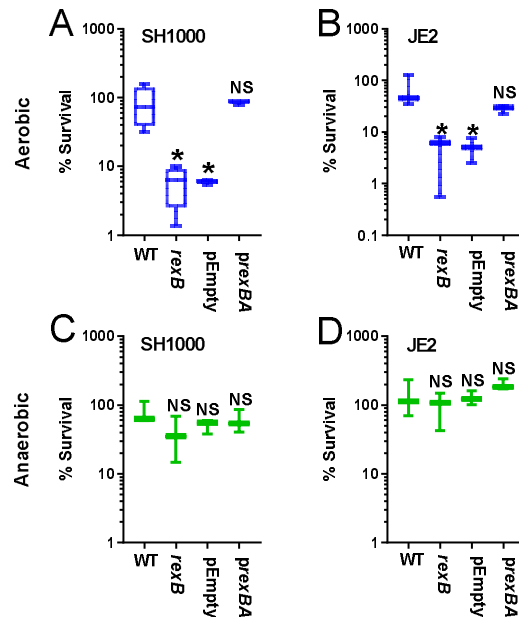


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235 **Figure 3. Lack of effective DNA repair increases the killing of *S. aureus* by bactericidal antibiotics**
 236 **under aerobic conditions. (A-H) Survival of *S. aureus* WT and *rexB* mutant in SH1000 and JE2**
 237 **backgrounds after 8 h incubation at 37°C in TSB supplemented with 10x MIC. Survival was assessed**

238 under aerobic (blue) or anaerobic (green) conditions (n = 3). Data were analysed by one-way ANOVA
239 (* = P < 0.05) and presented as a box and whisker plot and presented as a box and whisker plot with
240 error bars showing the full data range.

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244 **Figure 4. Complementation of the *rexB::Tn* mutant restores tolerance to oxacillin in *S. aureus***
245 **SH1000 and JE2. (A-D) Survival of *S. aureus* WT and *rexB* mutant in SH1000 and JE2 backgrounds**
246 **after 8 h incubation at 37°C in TSB supplemented with 10x MIC. Survival was assessed under aerobic**
247 **(blue) or anaerobic (green) conditions (n = 3). Data were analysed by one-way ANOVA (* = P < 0.05)**
248 **and presented as a box and whisker plot with error bars showing the full data range.**

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253 Discussion

254 Staphylococcal infections are associated with high rates of treatment failure, even in the case of
255 apparently drug-susceptible strains [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]. This, together with the threat posed by
256 multi drug resistant MRSA strains, necessitates a greater understanding of how antibiotics function
257 and the identification of opportunities to improve their efficacy [9].

258 There is compelling evidence that diverse antibiotics trigger metabolic perturbations in bacteria that
259 lead to endogenous ROS production under aerobic conditions [14,15,16,17,18,19,20,21,22,23].
260 However, the consequences of this for bacterial viability remain a matter of debate [27,28,29]. This
261 is important because if endogenous ROS production is a common property of antibiotics then it
262 could be exploited to enhance treatment outcomes, for example by designing inhibitors of bacterial
263 processes that detoxify ROS or repair the damage it causes [30,34,43].

264 To understand whether antibiotics cause ROS-mediated damage in *S. aureus*, we focussed on the
265 degree to which antibiotic exposure resulted in bacterial DNA damage, since nucleic acids are
266 frequently attacked by endogenous ROS, and the consequences of that damage for bacterial survival
267 [24,25,26,30,34].

268 Using a *PrecA-gfp* reporter assay we observed that the SOS response in *S. aureus* was triggered by
269 several different classes of antibiotics, indicative of DNA damage. Whilst this was expected for DNA-
270 targeting antibiotics such as the fluoroquinolone ciprofloxacin [40], SOS induction also occurred with
271 antibiotics that do not directly target bacterial DNA such as oxacillin, daptomycin and linezolid. It has
272 been shown that certain β -lactam antibiotics induce the SOS response in *E. coli* via the DpiBA two-
273 component system rather than via DNA damage [44]. Although this mechanism has been
274 hypothesised for *S. aureus*, our data show that *S. aureus* *rexBA* mutants were more susceptible to
275 killing by oxacillin, demonstrating that DNA damage does occur during exposure to this β -lactam
276 antibiotic and that this is at least partially responsible for triggering the SOS response. Our
277 findings are in keeping with work showing that β -lactam antibiotics trigger endogenous ROS
278 production via elevated TCA cycle activity in response to cell wall damage, leading to increased
279 mutation rate [45].

280 Whilst still a controversial topic, there is increasing evidence that many classes of antibiotics trigger
281 the endogenous production of ROS. However, the degree to which these ROS contribute to
282 bactericidal activity is less clear. Our data provide evidence that many antibiotics cause DNA
283 damage, presumably via ROS since *rexB::Tn* mutants were as susceptible to most antibiotics under
284 anaerobic conditions. However, this DNA damage appears to be largely tolerated by wild type
285 bacteria via RexAB-mediated processing of DSBs, which triggers the SOS response to facilitate repair
286 via homologous recombination.

287 The production of ROS by bactericidal but not bacteriostatic antibiotics has been proposed to explain
288 their differences in lethality. However, we observed SOS induction during exposure of *S. aureus* to
289 the bacteriostatic antibiotics linezolid and chloramphenicol, but not the bactericidal antibiotic
290 gentamicin. Surprisingly however, despite DNA damage, the absence of RexAB did not sensitise *S.*
291 *aureus* *rexB::Tn* mutants to linezolid or chloramphenicol but did increase susceptibility to

292 gentamicin. This may be explained by differences in the type of DNA damage caused by each of the
293 antibiotics. Whilst several different types of DNA damage trigger SOS, only those leading to DSBs
294 would be expected to promote susceptibility of the *rexBA* mutant [37,45,46,47]. As such, it is
295 possible that bactericidal antibiotics trigger the potentially lethal DNA DSBs, whilst bacteriostatic
296 antibiotics trigger non-lethal types of DNA damage. In keeping with this hypothesis, the absence of
297 RexAB had only a small effect on SOS induction in *S. aureus* caused by linezolid or chloramphenicol.
298 It is unclear why gentamicin did not trigger SOS during antibiotic exposure since it appeared to cause
299 DNA DSBs in the antibiotic tolerance assays, but it may be the case that high concentrations of the
300 antibiotic are needed for DNA damage. Combined, our data indicates differences between
301 antibiotics in the degree of DNA damage caused, as well as the time required to cause damage and
302 these differences may explain some of the debate around the contribution of ROS to antibiotic-
303 mediated killing. However, the data clearly demonstrate that DNA DSBs are a common consequence
304 of the exposure of *S. aureus* to several different classes of antibiotics and that an inability to repair
305 those DSBs increase bacterial susceptibility to the antibacterial drugs. These findings are similar to
306 those reported for *E. coli*, where mutants defective for DNA DSB repair (defective for *recB* or *recC*)
307 were more susceptible than the wild type to at least 8 different antibiotics [48]. Crucially, we found
308 that disruption of DNA DSB repair restored quinolone susceptibility in an otherwise resistant strain
309 of *S. aureus*, which is also similar to what has been seen in *E. coli* and *Klebsiella pneumoniae* [49]. We
310 also found that an inability to repair DSBs restored oxacillin susceptibility in the JE2 MRSA strain,
311 although it remains to be seen if this finding is applicable to other MRSA strains.

312 The identification of RexAB as important for staphylococcal survival during exposure to several
313 different antibiotics, including the re-sensitisation of resistant strains to some antibiotics, makes this
314 complex a potential target for novel therapeutics, particularly as the lack of RexAB homologues in
315 eukaryotes reduces the likelihood of host toxicity [37,43,50,51]. Inhibitors of RexAB would be
316 expected to enhance the bactericidal activity of several different classes of antibiotic, as well as
317 reduce the induction of the mutagenic SOS response, which is associated with the emergence of
318 antibiotic resistance and mutants that can resist host immune defences [52,53]. We have also
319 recently shown that DNA DSB repair is important for staphylococcal resistance to host immune
320 defences, in keeping with similar findings with several other bacterial pathogens, providing an
321 additional potential benefit of targeting this complex [34,54,55,56,57].

322 In summary, staphylococcal DNA is damaged by several classes of bactericidal antibiotics resulting in
323 DSBs that are processed by RexAB and trigger the SOS response for repair. Therefore, RexAB is a
324 potential target for novel therapeutics that sensitise *S. aureus* to antibiotics.

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326

327 **Materials and Methods**

328 **Bacterial strains and culture conditions**

329 The bacterial strains used in this study are listed in

330 Table 1. *S. aureus* was cultured in Tryptic Soy Broth (TSB) or Muller Hinton Broth (MHB) to stationary
331 phase (18 h) at 37 °C, with shaking (180 rpm). Media were supplemented with antibiotics as
332 required.

333

334 **Table 1. Bacterial strains used in this study.**

Strain	Description	Source
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>		
SH1000	<i>rsbU+</i> derivative of the laboratory strain 8325-4	39
SH1000 <i>rexB</i> ::Tn	SH1000 with a <i>bursa aurealis</i> transposon insertion in <i>rexB</i> , Ery ^r	30
SH1000 <i>rexB</i> ::Tn <i>pitet</i> empty	SH1000 with a <i>bursa aurealis</i> transposon insertion in <i>rexB</i> with integrated <i>pitet</i> empty plasmid, Ery ^r	30
SH1000 <i>rexB</i> ::Tn <i>pitet rexAB</i>	SH1000 with a <i>bursa aurealis</i> transposon insertion in <i>rexB</i> with integrated <i>pitet</i> with AHT-inducible <i>rexB</i> , Ery ^r	30
JE2	A derivative of CA-MRSA USA300 LAC, cured of plasmids	38
JE2 <i>rexB</i> ::Tn	JE2 with a <i>bursa aurealis</i> transposon insertion in <i>rexB</i> , Ery ^r	38
JE2 <i>rexB</i> ::Tn <i>pitet</i> empty	JE2 with a <i>bursa aurealis</i> transposon insertion in <i>rexB</i> with integrated <i>pitet</i> empty plasmid, Ery ^r	30
JE2 <i>rexB</i> ::Tn <i>pitet rexAB</i>	JE2 with a <i>bursa aurealis</i> transposon insertion in <i>rexB</i> with integrated <i>pitet</i> with AHT-inducible <i>rexB</i> , Ery ^r	30
JE2 pCN34 <i>PrecA-gfp</i>	JE2 containing pCN34 with <i>gfp</i> under the control of the <i>recA</i> promoter, Kan ^r	30
JE2 <i>rexB</i> ::Tn pCN34 <i>PrecA-gfp</i>	JE2 <i>rexB</i> ::Tn containing pCN34 with <i>gfp</i> under the control of the <i>recA</i> promoter, Kan ^r	30

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337 ***recA-gfp* fluorescent reporter assay**

338 As described previously [30,34], promoter-reporter gene constructs in JE2 and SH1000 backgrounds
339 were used to quantify expression of *recA*. Antibiotic two-fold dilutions were made in flat-bottomed
340 black-walled 96-well plates containing TSB and inoculated with 1/10 dilution of a stationary phase
341 culture of the reporter strains. Plates were placed into an Infinite M200-PRO microplate reader
342 (Tecan) where cultures were grown for 17 h at 37 °C (700 rpm), and both absorbance at 600 nm

343 (OD₆₀₀) and GFP relative fluorescence units (RFU) were measured every 30 min. To account for
344 differences in cell-density, RFU values were normalised by OD₆₀₀ data at each time point.

345

346 **Determination of minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC)**

347 Minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) were determined using a serial broth dilution protocol as
348 described previously [30, 58]. Bacteria were diluted to 1×10^5 CFU ml⁻¹ and incubated in flat-
349 bottomed 96-well plates with a range of antibiotic concentrations for 17 h at 37 °C under static
350 conditions (aerobic, anaerobic or 5% CO₂). Media containing daptomycin was supplemented with
351 1.25 mM CaCl₂. The MIC was defined as the lowest concentration at which no growth was observed.

352

353 **Antibiotic survival assay**

354 Bacteria were adjusted to 10^8 CFU ml⁻¹ in TSB (*S. aureus*) supplemented with antibiotics at 10X MIC.
355 For aerobic incubation, 3 ml of media were inoculated in 30 ml universal tubes and incubated with
356 shaking at 180 rpm. For anaerobic conditions 6 ml of pre-reduced media in 7 ml bijoux tubes was
357 inoculated and incubated statically in an anaerobic cabinet. Cultures were incubated at 37 °C and
358 bacterial viability determined by CFU counts. Culture media containing daptomycin was
359 supplemented with 1.25 mM CaCl₂. Survival was calculated as a percentage of the number of
360 bacteria in the starting inoculum.

361

362 **Statistical analyses**

363 Data are represented as the mean or median from three or more independent experiments and
364 analysed by one-way ANOVA corrected for multiple comparison, as described in the figure legends.
365 For each experiment, “n” refers to the number of independent biological replicates. P < 0.05 was
366 considered significant between data points (GraphPad Prism 7 for Windows).

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