RexAB is essential for the mutagenic repair of *Staphylococcus aureus* DNA damage caused

by co-trimoxazole

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Abstract

Background

Co-trimoxazole (SXT) is increasingly used to treat skin and soft-tissue infections caused by methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. However, the spontaneous emergence of resistance to this antibiotic is a frequent complication. Previous work has implicated DNA damage as an important contributor to the bactericidal activity of SXT, although the mechanism responsible was unclear.

Objectives

The aim of this work was to identify the mechanisms by which SXT damages *S. aureus* DNA, the repair systems used to withstand the damage and the consequences of repair for the emergence of resistance.

Methods

The susceptibility of *S. aureus* wild-type and mutants defective for DNA repair to SXT were determined through MIC and bactericidal activity assays. A *gfp-recA* reporter system enabled the detection of induction of the SOS response when exposed to SXT under various environmental conditions.

Results

Exposure of *S. aureus* to SXT caused DNA damage in *S. aureus* via both thymidine limitation and the generation of reactive oxygen species. Repair of this damage required the RexAB nuclease/helicase complex, indicating that SXT causes DNA double-strand breaks. Furthermore, RexAB-mediated DNA repair led to induction of the SOS response, which resulted in an increased mutation rate and may explain the frequent emergence of spontaneously-resistant strains during SXT therapy.

Conclusions

This work identified two distinct mechanisms by which SXT causes DNA damage in *S. aureus*, which is processed by the RexAB complex, leading to mutagenesis. Small molecule inhibitors of RexAB could have therapeutic value by increasing the efficacy of SXT and decreasing the emergence of drug-resistance.

Introduction

Staphylococcus aureus is responsible for a wide spectrum of diseases ranging from superficial skin infections to life-threatening bacteraemia, endocarditis and toxic shock syndrome (1). Whilst β-lactam antibiotics are first choice therapeutics for *S. aureus* infections, the prevalence of skin and soft tissue infections (SSTIs) caused by methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA) strains has necessitated the use of second line therapeutics including co-trimoxazole (SXT), which is comprised of trimethoprim (TMP) and sulfamethoxazole (SMX) (2). However, SXT therapy is ineffective against deep-seated infections and long-term use often leads to the emergence of resistance.

SXT has been proposed to cause DNA damage by limiting the production of thymine, leading to stalled replication forks (3, 4). Whilst the bacterium attempts to repair this damage by inducing the mutagenic SOS response, it is not clear whether this contributes to staphylococcal survival during antibiotic exposure. This is important because a greater understanding of the mechanisms by which *S. aureus* survives SXT exposure may identify targets for new therapeutics that enhance treatment efficacy. Therefore, the aims of this work were to identify the mechanisms by which SXT damages *S. aureus* DNA, the repair systems that this pathogen uses to withstand this damage and the consequences of repair for the emergence of resistance.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial strains and culture conditions

The bacterial strains used in this study are listed in Table 1. *S. aureus* was cultured in Tryptic Soy Broth (TSB) or Mueller Hinton Broth (MHB) supplemented with calcium (25 mg L^{-1}) and magnesium (12.5 mg L^{-1}), to stationary phase (18 h) at 37 °C, with shaking (180 RPM). Media were supplemented with antibiotics as required.

Mutants lacking functional *rexB* were complemented using p*itet* (5) containing the wild-type *rexBA* operon. Primers (Table 2) were used to amplify the *rexBA* operon from USA300 JE2 genomic

DNA. The PCR product and p*itet* vector were digested and ligated using T4 ligase and transformed into

CaCl$_2$-competent *E. coli* DH5α cells. Plasmid DNA was passaged through *E. coli* DC10B before

electroporation into S*. aureus rexB* mutants. Empty vector that did not contain the *rexBA* operon was

used as a control.

Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) Assay

The MIC was determined using the broth microdilution protocol described previously (6). The

concentration of SXT was calculated based on the concentration of TMP. MICs were determined by

incubation in air or in anaerobic jars containing Anaerogen gas packs at 37 °C for 18 h.

SXT killing kinetics

Washed stationary-phase *S. aureus* cells were inoculated into fresh MHB or TSB (3 ml) to a density of

2 x 10^8 CFU ml^{-1} containing 4 µg ml^{-1} SXT and incubated at 37°C with shaking (180 RPM). Bacterial

survival was determined over time by quantification of colony-forming units using the Miles and Misra

method (7). Percentage survival was calculated by comparing CFU counts at specific time points with

the starting inoculum. Similar studies were performed anaerobically in pre-reduced broth in bijoux

tubes, supplemented with 4 µg ml^{-1} SXT, and incubated statically at 37 °C with the vessel caps loosened

in an anaerobic jar containing an Anaerogen gas pack.

Disc-diffusion Assay

Stationary phase *S. aureus* cultures were adjusted to an OD$_{600}$ of 0.063 (0.5 McFarland) in TSB and used

to inoculate TSA plates using a cotton swab. Antibiotic discs containing 2.5 µg of either SXT or TMP

(Oxoid) were placed onto the inoculated agar and incubated at 37 °C under aerobic or anaerobic

conditions for 17 h. The zone of inhibition was measured as the total diameter of the cleared bacterial

lawn, minus the diameter of the antibiotic disc.

Mutation rate analyses

Mutation rates were determined as described previously (8, 9). Briefly, thirty parallel cultures of *S.*

aureus adjusted to ~5 x 10^5 CFU ml^{-1} for each condition or strain were inoculated into TSB with or

without 0.05 µg ml^{-1} or 0.1 µg ml^{-1} SXT and incubated at 37 °C, with shaking, for 24 h. After incubation,

10 cultures were selected at random, and total CFU counts determined. Subsequently, 100 µl of each

of the 30 cultures were spread on TSA plates containing rifampicin (100 µg ml^{-1}) before incubation at

37 °C for 24 h. The number of rifampicin-resistant colonies on each plate were counted, and the

mutation rate with 95% confidence intervals calculated using the maximum-likelihood setting of the

FALCOR mutation rate calculator (8).

recA-**reporter assay**

Induction of the SOS response in *S. aureus* was determined using strains containing a *recA-gfp* reporter

construct. This was constructed by transforming *S. aureus* with pCN34 containing *gfp* under the control

of the *recA* promoter. Primers (Table 2) were used to amplify the *recA* promoter region (3) from JE2

wild-type genomic DNA, and the *gfp* gene from the pCL55 P3 GFP plasmid (10). These products were

combined by overlapping extension PCR, digested and ligated into phosphatase-treated and digested

pCN34. Empty vector without the *recA-gfp* construct served as a control. Vectors were constructed in

E. coli DC10B and transformed directly with into *S. aureus* WT JE2 or *rexB*::Tn mutant.

Stationary phase cultures of *recA-gfp* reporter strains washed twice and resuspended in TSB

supplemented with kanamycin (90 µg ml^{-1}) to maintain the plasmid. Cultures at ~3.33 x 10^8 CFU ml^{-1}

were exposed to a range of SXT concentrations (0.01 µg ml^{-1} to 8 µg ml^{-1}) in black-walled microtiter

plates with shaking at 37 °C for 17 h in a TECAN Infinite® 200 PRO microplate reader, where OD$_{600}$ and

GFP relative fluorescent units (RFU) (Excitation: 475 nm; Emission: 525 nm) was measured every 1000

seconds. Measurements were blanked against uninoculated wells and GFP fluorescence normalised to

OD$_{600}$ readings to determine *recA* expression levels.

Endogenous Reactive oxygen species (ROS) production

Production of ROS was detected using the cell permanent 2',7'-dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate dye (H_2DCFDA), which is converted to fluorescent DCF by oxidative cleavage of acetate groups (11). A 96 well microtitre plate assay was prepared in a similar format to the *recA-gfp* reporter assay, with the addition of 25 µM H_2DCFDA and various concentrations of SXT. Bacterial strains were washed and inoculated to ~3.33×10^8 CFU ml^{-1}. Plates were incubated with shaking at 37 °C as described previously, and OD_{600} and RFU (Excitation: 495 nm; Emission: 525nm) was measured every 1000 s. OD_{600} values were blanked against uninoculated wells and RFU values blanked to untreated wells. Fluorescence values were normalised to OD_{600} readings to determine production of ROS relative to cell number.

Statistical Analysis

Means or medians were calculated from at least three biologically independent replicates and analysed by Student's t test (two tailed, unpaired, assuming equal variances), One-way ANOVA or Two-way ANOVA corrected for multiple comparison using GraphPad Prism (V7.0) as described in the figure legends.

Results

Inactivation of *rexB* sensitises *S. aureus* to SXT

To investigate the role of bacterial DNA repair in the susceptibility of *S. aureus* to SXT, a panel of *S. aureus* transposon mutants previously used to study mutagenic DNA repair during exposure to H_2O_2 (*rexA, rexB, recF, umuC* and *dinB*) (9), were subjected to MIC and disc diffusion susceptibility assays. Strains from two distinct genetic backgrounds were used: SH1000, a methicillin-sensitive *S. aureus* (MSSA) strain, and JE2, a community-associated methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (CA-MRSA) strain of the USA300 lineage, responsible for severe skin infections that are often treated with SXT (12, 13).

The MIC values for both wild-type (WT) strains indicated susceptibility to SXT and TMP (< 2 µg ml^{-1}), but resistance to SMX (>512 µg ml^{-1}) (14) (Fig. 1A). Disruption of *rexB* in both JE2 and SH1000

155   strains lowered the MIC of SXT and TMP by 2-4-fold and 16-fold for SMX, whilst complementation of

156   the *rexB* mutant either fully or partially restored WT levels of susceptibility (Fig. 1A). The JE2 *recF*

157   mutant was also more susceptible than the WT to all three antibiotics, however, *dinB* or *umuC* mutants

158   only resulted in a slightly increased susceptibility to SXT.

159   Consistent with the MIC data, disc diffusion assays showed that inactivation of *rexB*

significantly increased the susceptibility of *S. aureus* to SXT and TMP, relative to the WT (Fig. 1B,C).

Complementation of the *rexB* mutant (p*rexBA*) reduced susceptibility close to WT levels, confirming

that changes in susceptibility were attributed to the function of RexAB complex (Fig. 1B,C). By contrast,

inactivation of *dinB or umuC* did not significantly increase zone sizes for either antibiotic (Fig. 1B,C).

However, the *recF*-deficient mutant showed an increase in susceptibility to TMP in the JE2 strain (Fig.

1C), indicating that both *rexB* and *recF* contribute to the repair of DNA damage caused by TMP.

166   Next, we investigated the role of DNA repair in the survival of *S. aureus* exposed to SXT at the

clinical breakpoint concentration (4 µg ml^{-1}) (14). There was a ~20-fold reduction in survival over 24 h

for the WT, *umuC* or *dinB* mutants in the JE2 background (Fig. 1D), indicative of relatively high tolerance

to SXT. By contrast, survival of the *recF* mutant was reduced by >20-fold, whilst the *rexB* mutant

showed >5000-fold reduction in CFU counts relative to the WT after 24 h. Complementation of the

rexB mutant increased survival 10-fold relative to a plasmid only control (Fig. 1E). Studies with SH1000

confirmed a role for *rexBA* in modulating susceptibility of *S. aureus* to SXT, with a 12-fold greater loss

of CFU counts of the *rexB* mutant relative to WT (Fig. 1F), whilst complementation of the *rexB* mutant

restored survival levels close to those of the WT (Fig. 1F). Combined, these findings indicate that SXT

causes DNA double-strand breaks in *S. aureus*, the repair of which by RexAB significantly promotes

staphylococcal survival during exposure to the antibiotic.

Thymidine limitation contributes to SXT-mediated DNA damage

Inhibition of folate biosynthesis by SXT results in abrogation of endogenous thymidine biosynthesis,

which could provide an explanation for the DNA damage phenotype described above (Fig. 1).

Experiments detailed thus far were performed in TSB, which contains a low concentration of thymidine

(0.25 μM, (15)). To investigate the influence of exogenous thymidine on SXT activity, the growth of WT

and *rexB* mutants were determined in TSB supplemented with doubling dilutions of SXT and thymidine

via chequerboard assays (Fig. 2A-D). As expected, the presence of high concentrations of thymidine

enabled growth of WT strains of both JE2 and SH1000 at normally growth inhibitory concentrations of

SXT (15) (Fig. 2A,C).

187   The thymidine-dependent activity of SXT means that culture media compositions greatly affect

188   antibiotic susceptibility (15, 16). For example, Mueller-Hinton Broth (MHB) contains >16-fold more

189   thymidine than TSB (15). Consistent with the chequerboard data, the efficacy of SXT in MHB was

190   reduced relative to TSB, with detectable bacterial growth of both WT strains observed even at high

191   concentrations of SXT, likely attributable to the elevated thymidine concentration (Fig. 2E,F).

192   To explore the effect of exogenous thymidine on the bactericidal activity of SXT, killing assays

were undertaken in MHB. In contrast to TSB (Fig. 1D) there was almost no killing of the *S. aureus* JE2

WT and *dinB*, *umuC* and *recF* mutants by SXT (4 μg ml^{-1}) in MHB over 24 h (Fig. 2G). However, despite

the presence of exogenous thymidine, survival of the *rexB* mutant was >2000-fold lower than that of

the WT, (Fig. 2G), whilst complementation of the mutant (p*rexBA*) significantly promoted survival

relative to a plasmid only control (Fig. 2H). Similar results were seen for the SH1000 strain, with the

WT surviving, whilst viability of the *rexB* mutant was reduced >6000-fold relative to the inoculum (Fig.

2I), with complementation significantly promoting survival (> 10-fold) (Fig. 2I).

200   Combined, these data demonstrate that the RexAB DNA repair complex is required for the

201   survival of *S. aureus* exposed to SXT, even when thymidine is available, suggesting that thymidine

202   limitation is not the only mechanism by which this antibiotic damages bacterial DNA.

204   **Inactivation of *rexBA* sensitises *S. aureus* to SXT-mediated growth inhibition but not killing under**

205   **anaerobic conditions**

To determine whether the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) contributes to SXT activity against *S. aureus*, the susceptibility of WT and DNA repair mutants to the antibiotic was determined under both aerobic and anaerobic conditions in low-thymidine TSB. In the absence of oxygen, the MIC of WT *S. aureus* was increased 4-fold for both strains (Fig. 3A). By contrast, the SXT MIC of the JE2 *rexB* mutant only doubled under anaerobic conditions, whilst the MIC of the SH1000 *rexB* mutant was unaffected by the presence of oxygen (Fig. 3A). However, zones of inhibition from SXT antibiotic discs were significantly reduced in the absence of oxygen for all strains and mutants, implying reduced susceptibility (Fig. 3B). Despite the reduced antibiotic activity of SXT under anaerobic conditions, the *rexB* mutants were still more susceptible than the corresponding WT, with >10 and 2.5-fold greater zone sizes for JE2 and SH1000 strains respectively (Fig. 3B).

Next, we assessed the contribution of ROS to the bactericidal activity of SXT. In contrast to assays performed in air, the WT strains were able to grow slightly under these conditions, however, SXT prevented growth of the *rexB* mutants >2-fold by 24 h post inoculation (Fig. 3C,D). Complementation of the *rexB* mutant restored the WT phenotype (Fig. 3C,D). Therefore, SXT exposure causes bacteriostasis in the *rexBA* mutant but not the WT under anaerobic conditions.

The reduced activity of SXT under anaerobic conditions suggested that ROS contribute to the bactericidal activity of SXT. Therefore, H_2DCFDA dye was added to growth inhibition assays (Fig. 3E,F) to quantify and study the kinetics of ROS production during incubation under aerobic conditions. SXT induced a dose-dependent fluorescent peak 4 h post inoculation for both WT and *rexB* mutant strains in the JE2 background (Fig. 3G,H), indicative of the generation of ROS in response to the antibiotic. A second peak in ROS production after 13 h is apparent at lower concentrations of SXT as cells reach stationary phase, which is likely a result of the bacterial starvation response associated with increased endogenous oxidative stress (17).

Combined, these data provide strong evidence that SXT induces ROS that contribute to the growth inhibitory activity and are essential for the bactericidal activity of the drug. Furthermore, these findings demonstrate that SXT triggers similar levels of oxidative stress in both WT and *rexB* mutant,

indicating that the increased susceptibility of the mutant to the antibiotic is due to an inability to repair

damage, rather than increased generation of ROS.

RexAB is required for SXT-triggered induction of the SOS response

Given the importance of RexAB for the repair of DNA damage caused by SXT, we wanted to determine

how it affected the induction of the mutagenic SOS response associated with spontaneous antibiotic

resistance emergence.

Using a range of concentrations of SXT that induced a dose-dependent inhibition of growth for

both the JE2 WT and *rexB* mutant (Fig. 4A-D), the induction of *recA* expression was determined using

a *recA-gfp* reporter construct (Fig. 4E-H). In low-thymidine TSB, SXT exposure resulted in a dose-

dependent increase in GFP signal (Fig. 4E) similar to that observed for ROS production (Fig. 3G), which

peaked at ~4 h, and then subsided before a second peak as the bacteria entered stationary phase (17,

18). However, whilst SXT triggered ROS production in the *rexB* mutant (Fig. 3H), the antibiotic did not

induce *recA* expression in this strain (Fig. 4F), revealing that RexAB is required for activation of the SOS

response.

In contrast to experiments done in TSB, *recA* was only weakly expressed during exposure to SXT in

high-thymidine MHB (Fig. 4D), which is in keeping with the reduced activity of the antibiotic in this

medium (Fig. 2E,F). Consistent with the data from studies in TSB, there was a lack of *recA* expression

in the JE2 *rexB* mutant in response to SXT in MHB (Fig. 4E).

RexAB is required for SXT-induced mutagenic DNA repair

De-repression of the SOS regulon leads to expression of the error-prone translesion DNA polymerase

UmuC, which catalyses mutagenic DNA repair that contributes to the acquisition of antibiotic

resistance (9, 19).

To assess whether SXT promoted SOS-dependent mutagenesis in *S. aureus*, JE2 WT and DNA-

damage repair mutants were exposed to sub-inhibitory concentrations of SXT in low-thymidine TSB.

Since the *rexB* mutant was much more susceptible to SXT treatment than the WT, only a low

concentration of the antibiotic (0.05 µg ml^{-1}, 0.2 x MIC of the mutant) could be used in this analyses.

SXT treatment resulted in an increase in the mutation rate of WT *S. aureus* (Fig. 5A)*.* By contrast to the

WT, SXT exposure did not increase the mutation rate of the *rexB* mutant, consistent with the inability

of the antibiotic to trigger induction of the SOS response in this strain (Fig. 4B, 5A).

To determine whether the SXT-mediated increase in the mutation rate was due to induction

of the SOS response, we exposed the WT and mutants lacking *umuC* or *dinB* (an error prone

polymerase that is not part of the SOS response in *S. aureus* (19)) to SXT at 0.2 x MIC of the mutants

(0.1 µg ml^{-1}). Consistent with the *recA* reporter data, the higher concentration of SXT used in these

experiments promoted the mutation rate of the WT strain to a greater extent than the lower dose (Fig.

4A, 5A,B). SXT caused a similar increase in the mutation rate of the *dinB* mutant but had no effect on

the mutation rate of the *umuC* mutant (Fig. 5B).

Taken together, these data demonstrate that SXT exposure results in RexAB-dependent

induction of the SOS response in *S. aureus*, which triggers UmuC-dependent mutagenic DNA repair

that promotes the rate at which antibiotic resistance arises.

Discussion

SXT is effective in the treatment of skin and soft tissue infections caused by MRSA (20). However, its

efficacy is limited by the pathogens' ability to by-pass SXT-mediated inhibition of folate biosynthesis,

either via the uptake of extracellular metabolites or via resistance-conferring mutations (21).

The bactericidal effect of SXT has been ascribed to DNA damage, which leads to the induction

of the SOS response (3, 4). Our data support DNA damage as a key contributor to SXT bactericidal

activity against *S. aureus* and highlight the key role of RexAB in combatting this genotoxicity. Since

RexAB is proposed to be a member of the AddAB family of DNA repair enzymes (9, 22, 23), this finding

indicates that SXT causes DNA DSBs in *S. aureus*, which are lethal if not repaired. The protective role

of RexAB for *S. aureus* contrasts with recent findings for *E. coli*, where DNA repair contributes to the

lethality of trimethoprim (24).

The discovery that *S. aureus* is more susceptible to SXT in thymidine-poor medium is in keeping

with previous reports, which suggest that thymidine depletion contributes to the lethality of SXT via

the collapse of replication forks during DNA synthesis, which lead to DNA DSBs (4, 15, 25). However,

there was still a very large reduction in CFU counts of the *rexB* mutant exposed to SXT in the presence

of thymidine, indicating that thymidine limitation is not the only element responsible for DNA damage

in *S. aureus*.

In agreement with several reports that bactericidal antibiotics, including TMP, exert part of

their antibacterial effect via the generation of ROS (24, 26), we determined that the bactericidal effect

of SXT against *S. aureus* is dependent upon the availability of oxygen. Indeed, our data indicate that

ROS-mediated DNA damage makes a greater contribution to the bactericidal activity of SXT than the

inhibition of DNA-synthesis caused by thymidine depletion in aerobic conditions. However, whilst ROS

clearly make an important contribution to the bactericidal activity of SXT, the increased susceptibility

of the *rexB* mutant to this antibiotic under anaerobic conditions confirms that DNA damage can occur

independently of ROS. This may explain why there are phenotypic differences in the effects of SXT

exposure and thymineless death observed in *thyA* mutants deprived of thymine (24).

One drawback of SXT is the frequent emergence of resistance during long-term therapy (27).

In keeping with the induction of the SOS response, exposure of *S. aureus* to sub-inhibitory

concentrations of SXT was found to increase the mutation rate via UmuC, a low-fidelity DNA

polymerase, previously shown to mediate mutagenic DNA repair of bacteria exposed to ciprofloxacin

or H_2O_2 (9). Similar to what has been reported for ciprofloxacin and H_2O_2, SXT-induced increases in the

mutation rate was dependent upon RexAB (9).

In summary, the identification of RexAB as central to both SXT susceptibility and SOS

induction suggests that this protein complex is a promising target for novel therapeutic approaches

that could improve the efficacy of SXT and reduce the emergence of resistance. Such an approach may

also increase the range of MRSA infections that could be treated with SXT.

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

Bacterial strain	Relevant characteristics	Source/ reference
Methicillin-resistant _S. aureus_		
USA300 LAC JE2	LAC strain of the USA300 CA-MRSA lineage cured of plasmids	(28)
USA300 LAC JE2 _rexB_::Tn	USA300 LAC JE2 with a _bursa aurealis_ transposon insertion in _rexB_, Ery^r	
USA300 LAC JE2 _umuC_::Tn	USA300 LAC JE2 with a _bursa aurealis_ transposon insertion in _umuC_, Ery^r	
USA300 LAC JE2 _recF_::Tn	USA300 LAC JE2 with a _bursa aurealis_ transposon insertion in _recF_, Ery^r	
USA300 LAC JE2 _dinB_::Tn	USA300 LAC JE2 with a _bursa aurealis_ transposon insertion in _dinB_, Ery^r	
USA300 LAC JE2 _rexB_::Tn p_itet_ empty	USA300 LAC JE2 with a _bursa aurealis_ transposon insertion in _rexB_ with integrated p_itet_ empty plasmid, Ery^r	This study
USA300 LAC JE2 _rexB_::Tn p_itet_ _rexB_	USA300 LAC JE2 with a _bursa aurealis_ transposon insertion in _rexB_ with integrated p_itet_ with AHT-inducible _rexB_, Ery^r	This study
USA300 LAC JE2 +pCN34 recA-gfp	USA300 LAC JE2 containing pCN34 with gfp under the control of the _recA_ promotor, Kan^r	This study
USA300 LAC JE2 _rexB_::Tn +pCN34 recA-gfp	USA300 LAC JE2 with a _bursa aurealis_ transposon insertion in _rexB_ containing pCN34 with gfp under the control of the _recA_ promotor, Kan^r	This study
USA300 LAC JE2 +pCN34 Empty	USA300 LAC JE2 containing pCN34 empty vector, Kan^r	This study
USA300 LAC JE2 _rexB_::Tn +pCN34 Empty	USA300 LAC JE2 with a _bursa aurealis_ transposon insertion in _rexB_ containing pCN34 empty vector, Kan^r	This study
Methicillin-sensitive _S. aureus_		
SH1000	Methicillin sensitive _S. aureus_ strain	(29)
SH1000 _rexB_::Tn	SH1000 with a _bursa aurealis_ transposon insertion in _rexB_, Ery^r	(9)
SH1000 _rexB_::Tn p_itet_ empty	SH1000 with a _bursa aurealis_ transposon insertion in _rexB_ with integrated p_itet_	This study

	empty plasmid, Ery[r]	
SH1000 *rexB*::Tn p*itet rexB*	SH1000 with a *bursa aurealis* transposon insertion in *rexB* with integrated p*itet* with AHT-inducible *rexB*, Ery[r]	This study
SH1000 +pCN34 recA-gfp	SH1000 containing pCN34 with gfp under the control of the *recA* promotor, Kan[r]	This study
SH1000 +pCN34 Empty	SH1000 containing pCN34 empty vector, Kan[r]	This study

Table 2. Primers used for construction of complemented *rexB* mutants and *recA-gfp* reporter

Oligonucleotide	Sequence 5'-3'	
		429
Primers used for construction *rexB*::Tn p*rexBA* complemented mutant (restriction sites underlined)		430
		431
rexB-F AvrII	GGCCCTAGGATGACATTACATGCTTATTTAG	
		432
rexA-R PmeI	GCCGTTTAAACCTATAGTTGCAATGTACCAAATTTG	
		433
pCL55 Fwd seq	GGATCCCCTCGAGTTCATG	
		434
pCL55 Rev seq	CTCGTAGTATCTATACTTCG	
		435
Lipase *geh* F	GTTGTTTTTGTACATGGATTTTTAG	
		436
Lipase *geh* R	CTTGCTTTCAATTGTGTTCC	
		437
		438
pCL55 R	GCGCATAGGTGAGTTATTAGC	
		439
Primers used for construction of the *recA-gfp* reporter (restriction sites underlined)		440
		441
P*recA*-F BamHI	GAGGATCCTATGGTTCAGATGACACAT	
		442
P*recA*-R 7xT-GFP	CATTTTTTTTCCTCCTAATTGAAATTGC	
		443
GFP-F 7xA-P*recA*	AGGAAAAAAAATGAGTAAAGGAGAAGAACT	
		444
GFP-R KpnI	GCGGGTACCTTATTTGTATAGTTCATCCATG	
		445
pCN34 seq F	GTTATCCCCTGATTCTGTGGATAAC	
		446
pCN34 seq R	CCAGAATTATATTCAGAACAGGAAC	
		447
		448

Figure 1. Mutants defective for DNA repair have increased susceptibility to SXT and its constituent

antibiotics TMP and SMX. (A) MIC values for SXT, TMP and SMX for WT *S. aureus* JE2 (MRSA) and

SH1000 (MSSA) and mutants defective for DNA damage repair in TSB. Data represent median values

from n=3. (B,C) Zones of growth inhibition of WT MRSA and MSSA WT *S. aureus* strains or damage-

repair mutants from paper discs impregnated with 2.5 µg SXT (B) or TMP (C) after 16 h of incubation

on TSA plates. Graphs represents mean±SD from n=4. Values that are significantly different from the

WT within each antibiotic-exposure were identified by one-way ANOVA). (D,E,F) Time-course survival

assays of *S. aureus* JE2 MRSA (D,E) and SH1000 MSSA (F) and their derived DNA damage-repair mutants

during incubation in TSB supplemented with 4 µg ml^{-1} SXT. Data are split between D and E for clarity.

Percentage survival at each time point was calculated relative to the starting inoculum. Graphs

represent mean±SD from n=3. Values that are significantly different from the WT were identified by

two-way ANOVA corrected for multiple comparison using the Dunnett method. $P \leq 0.05(*)$, $P \leq$

$0.01(**)$, $P \leq 0.001(***)$, $P \leq 0.0001(****)$.

Figure 2. Mutants defective for *rexB* have increased susceptibility to SXT under thymidine-rich conditions. (A-D) Growth (OD$_{600}$) of *S. aureus* JE2 WT (A) a JE2-derived *rexB* mutant (B), WT SH1000 (C) and SH1000-derived *rexB* mutant (D) in the presence of doubling concentrations of SXT in TSB supplemented with 0 - 3.13 μM thymidine as indicated. Graphs represent mean±SD from n=3. (E-F) Growth (OD$_{595}$) of *S. aureus* JE2 WT (E) and WT SH1000 (F) in TSB and MHB supplemented with doubling dilution concentrations of SXT. Graphs represent mean±SD from n=3. (G-I) Time-course survival assays of *S. aureus* JE2 WT or mutants defective for DNA damage repair (G), *S. aureus* JE2 WT, *rexB* mutant only, or transformed with empty vector (pEmpty) or complemented mutant (p*rexBA*) (H) and SH1000 WT, *rexB* mutant only and *rexB* mutant transformed with pEmpty or p*rexBA* (I). For (G-I) all strains were incubated in MHB containing 4 μg ml^{-1} SXT. Graphs represent mean±SD from n=3. Values that are significantly different from the WT were determined by two-way ANOVA corrected for multiple comparison using the Dunnett method. P ≤ 0.05(*), P ≤ 0.01(**), P ≤ 0.001(***), P ≤ 0.0001(****).

Figure 3. Reactive oxygen species are essential for SXT-mediated killing of *S. aureus*. (A) MIC of SXT

for WT *S. aureus* JE2 and SH1000 and their derived mutants defective for DNA repair determined in

TSB under aerobic or anaerobic conditions. Graphs represent median values from n=3. (B) Zones of

inhibition around paper discs containing SXT (2.5 μg) on agar plates inoculated with *S. aureus* JE2 WT

(MRSA) and SH1000 WT (MSSA) and associated DNA repair mutants on TSA after 16 h of incubation

under aerobic (black) or anaerobic (grey) conditions. The graph represents mean±SD from n=4. Zones

which are significantly different in size between aerobic and anaerobic conditions were determined by a two-tailed Student's t-test. (C,D) Time-course survival assays of *S. aureus* JE2 (MRSA) (C) and SH1000 (MSSA) (D), *rexB* mutants without or with empty vector (pEmpty) or complemented (p*rexBA*) in TSB with (+SXT) or without 4 μg ml^{-1} SXT, under anaerobic conditions. Graphs represent mean±SD from n=3. Values that are statistically different from the WT were determined by two-way ANOVA corrected for multiple comparison using the Sidak method. $P \leq 0.05$(*), $P \leq 0.01$(**), $P \leq 0.001$(***), $P \leq 0.0001$(****). (E-F) Detection of growth inhibition (OD_{600}) of WT JE2 (E) and *rexB* mutant (F) in TSB in the presence of SXT. (G-H) Detection of ROS production by bacteria using the DCF fluorophore for *S. aureus* JE2 WT (G) or *rexB* mutant (H) in the presence of SXT. RFU generated by ROS were normalised to OD_{600} data (E,F) to determine ROS production relative to cell density. (E-H) Error bars were omitted for clarity.

Figure 4. RexAB is essential for the initiation of the SOS response in response to SXT. (A-D) Growth

(OD$_{600}$) of WT JE2 (A,C) and *rexB* mutant (B, D) in low thymidine TSB (A,B) and high thymidine MHB

(C,D) in the presence of a range of SXT concentrations. (E-H) Expression of *recA-gfp* in response to SXT

concentrations in *S. aureus* JE2 WT (E,G), *rexB* mutant (F,H) in TSB (E, F), or MHB (G-H). Fluorescence

generated by GFP was measured and normalized to OD$_{600}$ readings to relate *recA* expression relative

to cell number. (A-H) Graphs represent mean values from n=3. Error bars were omitted for clarity.

Figure 5. RexAB and UmuC are required for the increased mutation rate mediated by SXT. (A,B) The mutation rate of *S. aureus* JE2 or mutants lacking components of DNA repair in TSB in the absence or presence of 0.25 μg ml^{-1} (A) or 0.5 μg ml^{-1} (B) SXT. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.