

Staphylococcus aureus Adapts to Oxidative Stress by Producing H₂O₂-Resistant Small-Colony Variants via the SOS Response

Kimberley L. Painter,^a Elizabeth Strange,^a  Julian Parkhill,^b Kathleen B. Bamford,^c Darius Armstrong-James,^{d*}  Andrew M. Edwards^a

MRC Centre for Molecular Bacteriology and Infection, Imperial College London, London, United Kingdom^a; Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute, Wellcome Trust Genome Campus, Hinxton, Cambridge, United Kingdom^b; Department of Microbiology, Hammersmith Campus, Imperial College Healthcare NHS Trust, London, United Kingdom^c; Department of Medicine, Imperial College London, London, United Kingdom^d

The development of chronic and recurrent *Staphylococcus aureus* infections is associated with the emergence of slow-growing mutants known as small-colony variants (SCVs), which are highly tolerant of antibiotics and can survive inside host cells. However, the host and bacterial factors which underpin SCV emergence during infection are poorly understood. Here, we demonstrate that exposure of *S. aureus* to sublethal concentrations of H₂O₂ leads to a specific, dose-dependent increase in the population frequency of gentamicin-resistant SCVs. Time course analyses revealed that H₂O₂ exposure caused bacteriostasis in wild-type cells during which time SCVs appeared spontaneously within the *S. aureus* population. This occurred via a mutagenic DNA repair pathway that included DNA double-strand break repair proteins RexAB, recombinase A, and polymerase V. In addition to triggering SCV emergence by increasing the mutation rate, H₂O₂ also selected for the SCV phenotype, leading to increased phenotypic stability and further enhancing the size of the SCV subpopulation by reducing the rate of SCV reversion to the wild type. Subsequent analyses revealed that SCVs were significantly more resistant to the toxic effects of H₂O₂ than wild-type bacteria. With the exception of heme auxotrophs, gentamicin-resistant SCVs displayed greater catalase activity than wild-type bacteria, which contributed to their resistance to H₂O₂. Taken together, these data reveal a mechanism by which *S. aureus* adapts to oxidative stress via the production of a subpopulation of H₂O₂-resistant SCVs with enhanced catalase production.

Staphylococcus aureus is a frequent cause of chronic and recurrent infections, which often involve the emergence of slow-growing mutants known as small-colony variants (SCVs) (1–14).

The majority of SCVs isolated from clinical samples are auxotrophic for heme, menadione, or thymidine due to mutations in the *hem* or *men* operons or in *thyA*, respectively (2, 4, 15–19). However, SCVs with mutations conferring resistance to fusidic acid or which arise via mutation in succinate dehydrogenase have also been identified, and there also appear to be isolates with a transient SCV phenotype, which are likely not mutants (12, 20, 21). SCVs with mutations in heme or menaquinone biosynthetic pathways have defective electron-transport chains, which confers resistance to aminoglycoside antibiotics such as gentamicin (1, 6, 8, 9).

Previous work has shown that gentamicin-resistant SCVs emerge in replicating populations in the absence of environmental stress via stochastic mutations but frequently revert to the wild type (WT) via the acquisition of suppressor mutations (15, 17, 22). However, while a few factors have been identified that select for the SCV phenotype, there is also evidence that environmental stimuli can trigger the emergence of SCVs in *S. aureus* populations, although the mechanism(s) by which this occurs is unknown (12, 23, 24).

In addition to aminoglycoside resistance, SCVs that arise via the loss of the electron transport chain are more tolerant than wild-type bacteria of other classes of bactericidal antibiotics (8, 9, 25–29). Furthermore, SCVs exhibit other phenotypic characteristics which may promote survival in host tissues, including elevated rates of host cell invasion and intracellular survival, enhanced capsule production, and robust biofilm formation (5, 12, 13, 30–32). Several of these phenotypes are ascribed to a combination of decreased Agr activity and enhanced SigB activity, which results in strong expression of surface proteins and an absence of cytolysin production (16, 33–35).

However, there is one aspect of the biology of electron-transport chain defective SCVs that appears to be at odds with a role in chronic infection: an apparently reduced level of defense against oxidative stress. This is important because the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) such as O₂⁻ and H₂O₂ by neutrophils is a crucial host defense mechanism against *S. aureus* (36, 37). To combat ROS, *S. aureus* uses a number of defensive molecules, including catalase (KatA), superoxide dismutases (SodA/M), and the golden pigment staphyloxanthin (36–44). Despite the importance of these defenses for wild-type *S. aureus* survival in the host, SCVs have been reported to produce significantly reduced levels of staphyloxanthin and heme auxotrophs are deficient in catalase, which would be expected to make them more susceptible to ROS generated by neutrophils and thus clearance from host tissues (9, 19, 28, 36, 45). Therefore, the aim of this work was to determine the effect of ROS on the emergence and persistence of electron-

Received 3 December 2014 Returned for modification 23 December 2014

Accepted 10 February 2015

Accepted manuscript posted online 17 February 2015

Citation Painter KL, Strange E, Parkhill J, Bamford KB, Armstrong-James D, Edwards AM. 2015. *Staphylococcus aureus* adapts to oxidative stress by producing H₂O₂-resistant small-colony variants via the SOS response. *Infect Immun* 83:1830–1844. doi:10.1128/IAI.03016-14.

Editor: F. C. Fang

Address correspondence to Andrew M. Edwards, a.edwards@imperial.ac.uk.

* Present address: Darius Armstrong-James, National Heart and Lung Institute, Imperial College London, London, United Kingdom.

Copyright © 2015 Painter et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 3.0 Unported license.

doi:10.1128/IAI.03016-14

transport chain defective SCVs within *S. aureus* populations and establish the degree to which SCVs are sensitive to oxidative stress.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains and culture conditions. Strains used in the present study are listed in Table 1. *S. aureus* was cultured in tryptic soy broth at 37°C with shaking as described previously (22). Broth cultures were inoculated with bacteria from stationary phase (10^5 CFU ml⁻¹), followed immediately by oxidants or ciprofloxacin and incubated for 16 h at 37°C with shaking at 180 rpm. Bacteria were used in stationary phase since this is when pigmentation of the wild type is greatest (36). Transposon mutants were cultured in the presence of erythromycin (10 µg ml⁻¹), but subsequent assays were performed in the absence of the antibiotic to reduce off-target effects. CFU counts were determined by serial dilution and plating of aliquots onto tryptic soy agar (TSA) or Columbia blood agar (CBA) with or without gentamicin (2 µg ml⁻¹). SCVs were defined as gentamicin-resistant (MIC > 2 µg ml⁻¹) bacteria that produced small, slow-growing, nonhemolytic or weakly hemolytic, and nonpigmented or weakly pigmented colonies on blood agar. We did not study other types of SCVs, such as those resistant to sulfonamides or fusidic acid. DNA from transposon mutants was transduced into wild-type SH1000 by transduction with ϕ11 as described previously, and transductants bearing the inserted transposon were selected for on TSA containing erythromycin (10 µg ml⁻¹) (46).

USA300-derived *hemB* and *menD* mutants (35) were complemented by cloning the appropriate gene, under the control of the native promoter of the relevant operon, into integrative plasmid pCL55 (47). For *hemB*, the promoter region (48) was amplified by using the primer pair Hem Prom For (CC~~TTTCGCTTC~~AACGTATATTCATTGACCCG) and Hem Prom Rev (GTCTATCAAATTT~~TCATGTTCA~~ATTCCTCCTAGG). For *menD*, the 331 bases upstream of *menF*, the first gene in the *men* operon, were amplified by using the primer pair Men Prom For (CC~~TTTCGCTTC~~CAATGAATACAAAACCTCTTTAAATC) and Men Prom Rev (CTT~~TATGATTTCC~~CATATAAAAAGCGATCTCCTGCC). Amplicons containing promoter regions were fused with coding sequences by using the Gibson assembly protocol (NEB). DNA overhangs were built into primers (indicated in boldface) to facilitate recombination. The *hemB* gene was amplified by using the primer pair Hem For (GGAGGAATGAACATGAAATTTGATAGACATAG) and Hem Rev (TACCGAGCTCGAATTCACCTTAATTATCTAAATAGC), while *menD* was amplified by using the primer pair Men For (GGAGATCGCTTTTATATGGGAAATCATAAAGCAG) and Men Rev (ACCGAGCTCGAATTCCTATAATGTGCATGATCATTTTC). The vector, pCL55, was amplified by using primers with overhangs to facilitate Gibson assembly. For *hemB* constructs, pCL55 was amplified by using the primer pair pCL55 Hem For (AGATAATTAAGGTGAATTCGAGCTCGGTACC) and pCL55 Hem Rev (AATGAATATACGTTGAAGACGAAAGGGCCTC), and for *menD* constructs, the primer pair pCL55 Men For (CATGACACATTATAAGAATTCGAGCTCGGTAC) and pCL55 Men Rev (AGAGGTTTTGTATTCATTGAAGACGAAAGGG) was used.

The SH1000 *umuC*::Tn mutant was complemented with the *umuC* coding sequence (including the promoter region) using pCN34 (49). The *umuC* gene and the promoter region was amplified by using the primer pair *umuC* For (AAAGGATCCCGGCGTCAGTTACTTCGC) and *umuC* Rev (AAAAGGATCCCGTATCGCGACGCACTAC), which included BamHI restriction sites (underlined) to enable ligation into BamHI-digested pCN34. Vector without the *umuC* coding sequence served as a control. The successful generation of constructs was confirmed by DNA sequencing. Vectors were constructed in *Escherichia coli* strain DC10B and transformed directly into *S. aureus* strains (50). In the case of pCL55, plasmid integration was confirmed by PCR. DC10B was cultured in LB broth containing ampicillin (100 µg ml⁻¹) where necessary to select for plasmid maintenance (50). *S. aureus* strains containing plasmids were cultured in the presence of 10 µg of chloramphenicol ml⁻¹ (pCL55) or 90 µg of kanamycin ml⁻¹ (pCN34) and washed in phosphate-buffered saline

(PBS) to remove antibiotics, and experiments were performed in the absence of antibiotics to avoid off-target effects.

Hydrogen peroxide quantification. The concentration of H₂O₂ in culture medium was determined by using a Pierce quantitative peroxide assay kit according to the manufacturer's instructions.

SCV stability assays. The stability of SCV isolates was determined as described previously (22). SCV colonies ($n = 30$ to 50) on TSA plates containing 2 µg of gentamicin ml⁻¹ were subcultured by streaking them onto antibiotic-free TSA using a sterile pipette tip, followed by incubation at 37°C for 48 h. Subsequently, subcultured bacteria were scored for reversion. If all colonies in the subcultured streak retained the SCV phenotype, then that SCV was scored as stable. If all of the colonies had the WT phenotype, the streak was scored as unstable. SCVs that generated a mixture of SCV and WT phenotype were categorized as partially stable (22).

Phenotype-switching assay. To understand the relative contributions of phenotype-switching and replication to determining the size of the SCV population, we used a previously described assay (22). Briefly, inocula of 10^5 CFU tetracycline-sensitive wild-type SH1000 *S. aureus* and 10 CFU SH1000t tetracycline-resistant SCVs were cultured in the absence or presence of oxidants. The total CFU were quantified by plating serial dilutions on TSA plates. SCVs were isolated on TSA plates containing gentamicin, as described above. Subsequently, 100 SCV colonies were picked and patched onto TSA plates containing tetracycline to determine the percentage of SCVs that were resistant to the antibiotic. This assay determines the percentage of the final SCV population that arose from wild-type or SCV bacteria in the inoculum. Previous work has shown that the tetracycline-resistant strain does not suffer a fitness cost under the conditions used (22).

SCV reversion assay. Individual SCV colonies were picked from TSA plates containing gentamicin (2 µg ml⁻¹) and resuspended in 150 µl of PBS. Aliquots (50 µl) of each bacterial suspension were then spread over TSA plates containing paraquat (0.1 mM), ciprofloxacin (0.05 µg ml⁻¹), or neither before incubation for 24 h at 37°C. Subsequently, plates were examined for the presence of colonies of wild-type bacteria (large, pigmented colonies).

Mutation rate analyses. *S. aureus* strains were cultured in 3 ml of TSB after inoculation from agar plates. Cultures were diluted to 10^5 CFU ml⁻¹ in 30 parallel 1-ml cultures (this was the smallest inoculum that allowed bacterial growth in the presence of H₂O₂) and grown to stationary phase at 37°C with shaking. Total CFU counts were determined in 10 randomly selected cultures by plating of serial dilutions onto TSA without antibiotics. Each culture was then plated onto TSA containing rifampin (100 µg ml⁻¹), followed by incubation for 24 h at 37°C. The number of resistant colonies was counted, and mutation rates with confidence intervals were calculated by using the maximum-likelihood setting of the FALCOR mutation rate calculator (51, 52). The statistical significances of differences between the mutation rate in the absence and presence of H₂O₂ were determined by using a Student *t* test as described in equation 5 of FALCOR (51, 52).

Hydrogen peroxide killing assays. *S. aureus* cells in late exponential phase (when pigmentation is strongest) were washed by sequential rounds of centrifugation and resuspension in PBS before subsequent adjustment to a final concentration of $\sim 10^6$ CFU ml⁻¹ in PBS. Bacterial suspensions (10 µl) were added to the wells of a microtiter plate, and H₂O₂ was added to 30 mM for SH1000-derived isolates or 25 mM for USA300-derived strains (this concentration was chosen because preliminary assays indicated that they were the lowest required to achieve >1-log killing of the wild-type over 1 h [data not shown]). The microtiter plate was incubated at 37°C in the dark for 15 to 60 min. Surviving bacteria were enumerated by serial dilution in PBS and plating onto CBA (which naturally contains catalase to neutralize residual H₂O₂).

Catalase activity assay. *S. aureus* was grown and washed as described above for hydrogen peroxide killing assays before 10^7 CFU were added to 1 ml of PBS containing 100 µM H₂O₂. The concentration of H₂O₂ was measured over time by using a Pierce quantitative peroxide assay kit in

TABLE 1 Bacterial strains used in this study

Bacterial strain	Relevant characteristics ^a	Source or reference
<i>E. coli</i>		
DC10B	DNA cytosine methyltransferase deficient	50
DC10B/pCN34	DC10B transformed with pCN34	49; this study
DC10B/pCL55	DC10B transformed with pCL55	47
DC10B/ <i>phemB</i>	DC10B transformed with pCL55 containing the promoter of the <i>hem</i> operon fused to the coding sequence of <i>hemB</i>	
DC10B/ <i>pmenD</i>	DC10B transformed with pCL55 containing the promoter of the <i>men</i> operon fused to the coding sequence of <i>menD</i>	
DC10B/ <i>pumuC</i>	DC10B transformed with pCN34 containing the promoter and coding region of <i>umuC</i>	
<i>S. aureus</i>		
SH1000	Functional <i>rsbU</i> ⁺ derivative of NCTC 8325-4	66
SCV2	SH1000-derived Gm ^r SCV without auxotrophy for Men, Hem, Thy, CO ₂ , or fatty acids; isolated in the absence of oxidants	This study
SCV4	SH1000-derived Gm ^r SCV without auxotrophy for Men, Hem, Thy, CO ₂ , or fatty acids; isolated in the absence of oxidants	
SCV9	SH1000-derived Gm ^r SCV with auxotrophy for Hem; isolated in the absence of oxidants	
SCV13	SH1000-derived Gm ^r SCV with auxotrophy for CO ₂ ; isolated in the absence of oxidants	
SCV14	SH1000-derived Gm ^r SCV with auxotrophy for Men; isolated in the absence of oxidants; single nucleotide deletion in <i>menB</i> , leading to premature stop codon after 28 amino acids	
SCV15	SH1000-derived Gm ^r SCV with auxotrophy for fatty acids; isolated in the absence of oxidants	
SCV17	SH1000-derived Gm ^r SCV with auxotrophy for Men; isolated in the absence of oxidants	
SCV20	SH1000-derived Gm ^r SCV with auxotrophy for CO ₂ ; isolated in the absence of oxidants	
SCV21	SH1000-derived Gm ^r SCV without auxotrophy for Men, Hem, Thy, CO ₂ , or fatty acids; isolated in the absence of oxidants	
SCV1036	SH1000-derived Gm ^r SCV with auxotrophy for Men; isolated in the absence of oxidants	
SCV1045	Single nucleotide deletion in <i>menA</i> , leading to a premature stop codon after 184 amino acids	
SCV1047	SH1000-derived Gm ^r SCV with auxotrophy for Men; isolated in the absence of oxidants; single nucleotide polymorphism in <i>menF</i> , resulting in A367D substitution of a highly conserved alanine	
SCV1057	SH1000-derived Gm ^r SCV with auxotrophy for Men; isolated in the presence of H ₂ O ₂ ; single nucleotide deletion in <i>menE</i> , leading to a premature stop codon after 205 amino acids	
SCV1058	SH1000-derived Gm ^r SCV with auxotrophy for Men; isolated in the presence of H ₂ O ₂ ; single nucleotide deletion in <i>menB</i> , leading to a premature stop codon after 113 amino acids	
SCV1060	SH1000-derived Gm ^r SCV with auxotrophy for Men; isolated in the presence of H ₂ O ₂ ; single nucleotide polymorphism in <i>menE</i> , leading to a premature stop codon after 165 amino acids	
SCV1072	SH1000-derived Gm ^r SCV with auxotrophy for Men; isolated in the presence of paraquat; single nucleotide polymorphism in <i>menE</i> , leading to a premature stop codon after 373 amino acids	
SCV1072 <i>kata</i> ::Tn	SCV1072 transduced with DNA from NE1366, resulting in inactivation of catalase; Ery ^r	
SCV1077	SH1000-derived Gm ^r SCV with auxotrophy for Men; isolated in the presence of paraquat; single nucleotide polymorphism in <i>menF</i> , resulting in T79K substitution	
SCV1080	SH1000-derived Gm ^r SCV with auxotrophy for Men; isolated in the presence of paraquat; single nucleotide polymorphism in <i>aroB</i> , resulting in H241Q substitution of a highly conserved histidine likely involved in metal binding	
SH1000t	SH1000-derived Tc ^r strain <i>geh</i> ::pTM304	22
MJH502	SH1000 <i>sigB</i> ::Tc	66
SH331	SH1000 <i>rexA</i> ::Tn	This study
SH445	SH1000 <i>umuC</i> ::Tn	
SH805	SH1000 <i>recA</i> ::Tn	
SH1012	SH1000 <i>rexB</i> ::Tn	
SH1366	SH1000 transduced with DNA from NE1366, resulting in inactivation of catalase; Ery ^r	This study
SH1866	SH1000 <i>dinB</i> ::Tn	
SH445/pCN34	SH1000 <i>umuC</i> ::Tn transformed with pCN34	
SH445/ <i>pumuC</i>	SH1000 <i>umuC</i> ::Tn transformed with <i>pumuC</i>	
USA300 LAC	LAC strain of the USA300 CA-MRSA lineage	85
USA300 <i>hemB</i>	USA300 in which <i>hemB</i> has been deleted	35
USA300 <i>hemB geh</i> ::pCL55	USA300 <i>hemB</i> mutant with pCL55 integrated into the <i>geh</i> locus	This study
USA300 <i>hemB geh</i> :: <i>phemB</i>	USA300 <i>hemB</i> mutant with <i>phemB</i> integrated into the <i>geh</i> locus, restoring wild-type phenotype	
USA300 <i>menD</i>	USA300 in which <i>menD</i> has been deleted	35
USA300 <i>menD geh</i> ::pCL55	USA300 <i>menD</i> mutant with pCL55 integrated into the <i>geh</i> locus	This study
USA300 <i>menD geh</i> :: <i>pmenD</i>	USA300 <i>menD</i> mutant with <i>pmenD</i> integrated into the <i>geh</i> locus, restoring wild-type phenotype	
USA300 JE2	USA300 cured of plasmids	61

(Continued on following page)

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Bacterial strain	Relevant characteristics ^a	Source or reference	
NE331	USA300 JE2 <i>rexA</i> ::Tn		
NE445	USA300 JE2 <i>umuC</i> ::Tn		
NE805	USA300 JE2 <i>recA</i> ::Tn		
NE1012	USA300 JE2 <i>rexB</i> ::Tn		
NE1366	USA300 JE2 <i>katA</i> ::Tn		
NE1866	USA300 JE2 <i>dinB</i> ::Tn		
CX003SCV	Clinical Men-auxotroph SCV	This study	
CX003WT	Revertant of CX003SCV with wild-type phenotype		
CX004SCV	Clinical Men auxotroph SCV		
CX004WT	Revertant of CX004SCV with wild-type phenotype		
CX005SCV	Clinical Men auxotroph SCV		
CX005WT	Revertant of CX005SCV with wild-type phenotype		
CX006SCVM	Clinical Men auxotroph SCV		
CX006SCVH	Clinical Hem auxotroph SCV		
CX006WT	Revertant of CX005SCVM with wild-type phenotype		
CX009SCV	Clinical Hem auxotroph SCV		
CX009WT	Revertant of CX009SCV with wild-type phenotype		
Wood	Wild-type		NCTC 7121 86
MRSA252	Wild-type		

^a Gm^r, gentamicin resistance; Tc^r, tetracycline resistance; Ery^r, erythromycin resistance; Hem, hemin; Men, menadione; Thy, thymidine.

accordance with the manufacturer's instructions and the use of a standard plot.

Whole-genome sequencing. DNA was extracted from wild-type SH1000 and derived SCVs using lysostaphin and phenol-chloroform extraction (46). Purified DNA was sheared into fragments of ~150 bp and sequenced using an Illumina MiSeq DNA sequencer. The sequences obtained yielded >100-fold coverage.

RESULTS

Culture of *S. aureus* in the presence of hydrogen peroxide leads to a specific and dose-dependent increase in the size of the SCV subpopulation. To determine the effect of oxidative stress on the size of the gentamicin-resistant SCV subpopulation, *S. aureus* was cultured in the presence of increasing concentrations of H₂O₂, paraquat, or diamide, which have previously been shown to trigger distinct changes in the staphylococcal proteome (53).

We used an inoculum size (<10⁵ ml⁻¹) that was predicted to not contain SCVs due to their low frequency in the population. Therefore, SCVs that appeared in the cultures were generated by the acquisition of mutations in wild-type cells (22).

Increasing concentrations of H₂O₂ or paraquat, but not diamide, led to dose-dependent increases in the size of the gentamicin-resistant SCV subpopulation, which was up to 50-fold greater than in the absence of oxidative stress (Fig. 1A, B, and C). Similar effects of H₂O₂ (1 mM) and paraquat (5 mM) on the gentamicin-resistant SCV subpopulation were also observed for genetically diverse *S. aureus* strains USA300 LAC, Wood, and MRSA252 (Fig. 1D).

Paraquat generates superoxide radicals, which *S. aureus* can convert to H₂O₂ via superoxide dismutases (43). To determine whether the effect of paraquat on SCV numbers was due to H₂O₂ or superoxide production, *S. aureus* was cultured with paraquat in the presence or absence of purified bovine catalase (10 μg ml⁻¹). The presence of exogenous catalase abrogated the effect of paraquat on SCV subpopulation expansion, indicating that H₂O₂ production, rather than superoxide, was responsible for the increased SCV frequency (Fig. 1E). However, it is possible that superoxide

enhances H₂O₂-mediated damage by increasing free iron levels in the cell (54).

To investigate the nature of the recovered SCVs, representative colonies from independent cultures containing H₂O₂ or paraquat (*n* = 6) were examined, and each was found to have a typical SCV phenotype, with reduced pigmentation, and were classified as menadione auxotrophs (Fig. 1F). Whole-genome sequencing of a selection of each of the independently isolated menadione-auxotrophs (two from TSB only, three from TSB plus H₂O₂, and three from TSB plus paraquat) revealed mutations in genes in the menaquinone biosynthetic pathway (*aroB* and *menABDEF*) (Table 1) (55). These mutations were similar to those reported previously in clinical isolates and confirm that the SCV phenotype was due to genetic changes rather than to epigenetic effects or the physiological response of the bacterium to oxidative stress (15, 17).

SCVs emerge during H₂O₂-induced bacteriostasis. To understand how H₂O₂ modulates the size of the SCV subpopulation, we monitored the population dynamics of *S. aureus* during growth in the absence or presence of H₂O₂. As reported previously, wild-type *S. aureus* grew rapidly in the absence of H₂O₂ and produced a small SCV subpopulation during the early exponential phase (Fig. 2A) (22). In contrast, there was no change in total CFU counts in the presence of 1 mM H₂O₂, resulting in an extended lag phase that lasted until the H₂O₂ concentration was reduced to <400 μM (presumably due to the action of catalase and/or alkyl hydroperoxidase [40]). Once the H₂O₂ concentration was reduced, *S. aureus* replication began at a similar rate to that seen in the absence of H₂O₂ (Fig. 2A).

We hypothesized that the elevated rate of SCV emergence in the presence of H₂O₂ was either due to switching of wild-type bacteria into SCVs or, despite the small inoculum size, the replication of a very few SCVs present in the inoculum. To test whether SCVs could replicate in the presence of H₂O₂, we inoculated broth containing 1 mM H₂O₂ with a mixed population of phenotypically stable SCVs (including those auxotrophic for menadione, hemin, fatty acids, and those without identified auxotrophy) that

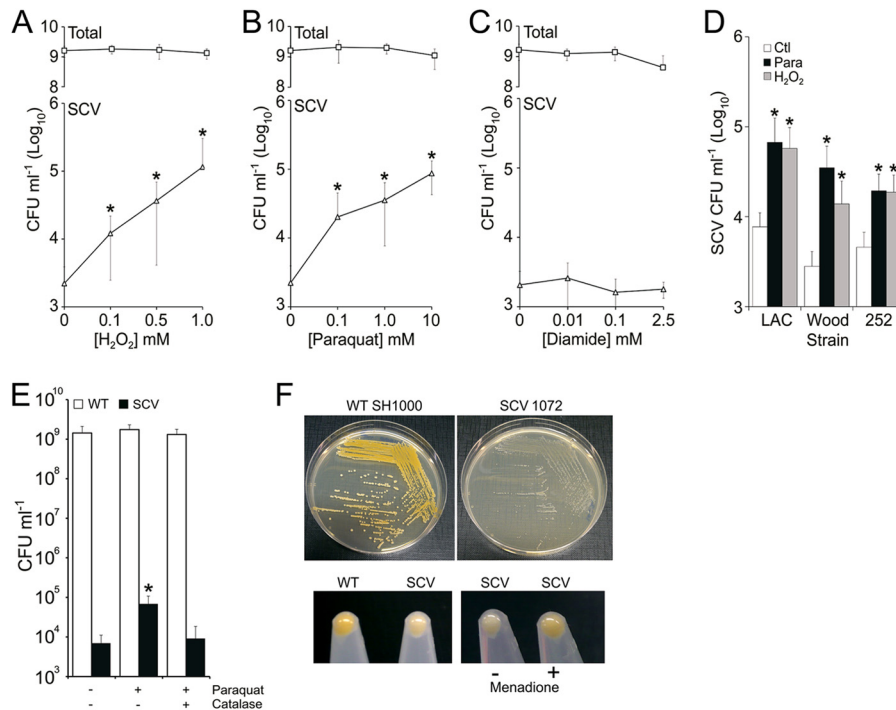


FIG 1 Hydrogen peroxide exposure leads to a specific, dose-dependent increase in the size of the SCV subpopulation. (A to C) *S. aureus* SH1000 was cultured in increasing concentrations of H₂O₂ (A), paraquat (B), or diamide (C) for 16 h, and the sizes of the total and SCV populations were determined. (D) The effect of H₂O₂ (1 mM) or paraquat (5 mM) on the size of the SCV subpopulations of strains USA300 LAC (LAC), Wood, and MRSA252 (252) were also determined. None of the oxidants used affected the size of the total population at the concentrations used (data not shown). (E) Wild-type *S. aureus* SH1000 was incubated in the absence (–) or presence (+) of paraquat and/or catalase, and the sizes of the total (open bars) and SCV populations (closed bars) were determined. (F) Colony morphology of wild-type *S. aureus* SH1000 (top left panel) and a representative menadione-auxotrophic SH1000-derived SCV (SCV1072) isolated from a culture containing paraquat (top right panel). The lack of pigment in the SCV seen on agar plates (top right panel) was also seen after liquid culture (bottom left panel). Culture of this SCV isolate in the presence of menadione restored pigmentation, indicating deficiencies in menaquinone production (bottom right panel) (2). Values which are significantly different ($P < 0.05$ [Student *t* test]) from oxidant-free conditions are indicated (*). These data represent the mean averages of 12 independent cultures. Error bars represent the standard deviations of the mean.

represent the composition of SCVs found in cultures not exposed to oxidants and then monitored growth. Similar to wild-type bacteria, the growth of the SCV population was inhibited by 1 mM H₂O₂, leading to an extended lag phase relative to SCV growth in the absence of H₂O₂ (Fig. 2B). However, as seen for the wild-type population, once the concentration of H₂O₂ fell to ~400 μM, SCV replication began (Fig. 2B). Because menadione-auxotrophic SCVs were the predominant SCV type isolated from cultures exposed to H₂O₂, we undertook a similar experiment to that described in Fig. 2B using a stable menadione auxotroph isolated from a culture exposed to paraquat (SCV1072). As for the wild-type and the mixed SCV inoculum, SCV1072 did not initiate replication until the H₂O₂ concentration had fallen to ~400 μM (Fig. 2C). Therefore, SCV replication is not a viable explanation for the appearance of SCVs at early time points in cultures exposed to H₂O₂, when the oxidant is at concentrations inhibitory to staphylococcal growth.

SCV emergence in the presence of H₂O₂ is dependent upon mutagenic DNA repair. Because mutations have been shown to occur in stressed, nonreplicating *E. coli* cells via DNA double-strand break repair and the SOS response, which is strongly induced in *S. aureus* upon exposure to H₂O₂, we hypothesized that this may provide a mechanism for the emergence of SCVs under growth-inhibitory conditions (56–60). To test this, we utilized the NARSA transposon library to identify genes that were important

for mutagenic DNA repair in the USA300 background (61). Wild-type and transposon mutants deficient in genes associated with DNA repair and the SOS response, including recombinase A (*recA::Tn*), error-prone polymerases IV or V (*dinB::Tn*, *umuC::Tn*), and *rexAB* (functionally equivalent to *recBCD* in *E. coli*), were grown in the absence or presence of H₂O₂. Several mutants, including *recA* and *rexAB* mutants, displayed increased sensitivity to H₂O₂, confirming a role in repair of damage caused by oxidative stress (data not shown). However, this increased sensitivity required a lower concentration of H₂O₂ (0.05 mM) to be used in these experiments compared to that of Fig. 1 and 2. Nonetheless, even at these reduced concentrations, H₂O₂ resulted in an increase in SCV frequency of ~10-fold in wild-type *S. aureus* populations (Fig. 3A). In contrast, H₂O₂ exposure had no effect on the size of the SCV subpopulations of the *umuC::Tn*, *recA::Tn*, *rexA::Tn*, or *rexB::Tn* mutants relative to cultures without oxidant (Fig. 3A), indicating that double-strand break repair and the SOS response is required for SCV emergence during H₂O₂ exposure but not in its absence. In contrast, the mutant lacking functional *dinB* (which is not part of the *S. aureus* SOS regulon [62]) had only a slight defect in H₂O₂-induced SCV formation (Fig. 3A).

These findings were concordant with measurements of the mutation rate in *S. aureus* grown with or without H₂O₂, which showed that H₂O₂ exposure increased the mutation rate >5-fold in wild-type *S. aureus* but had no effect on the mutation rate of strains

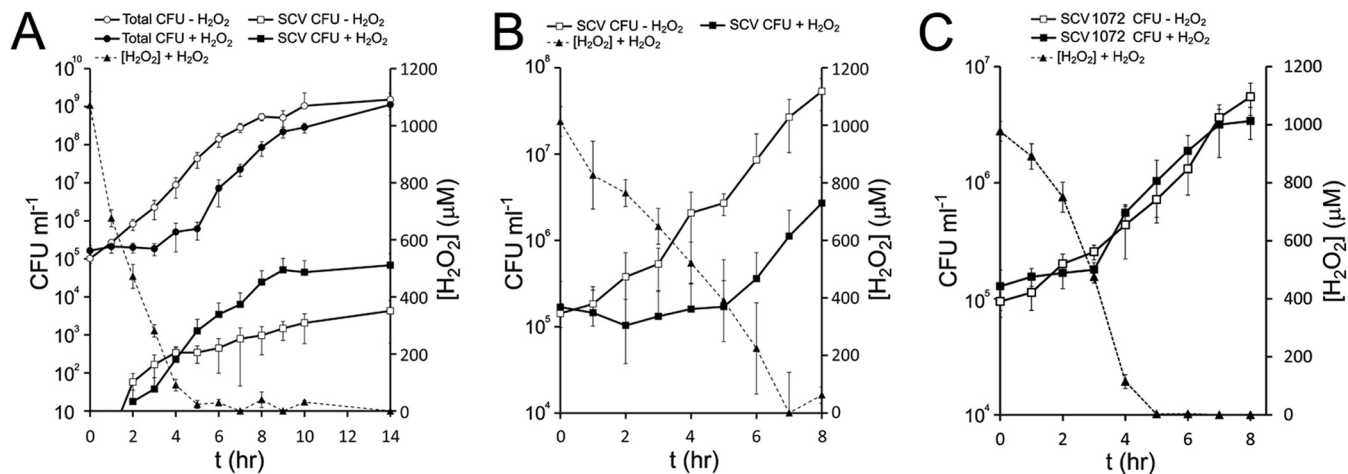


FIG 2 SCV emergence in *S. aureus* populations exposed to a bacteriostatic concentration of H_2O_2 . (A) The numbers of wild-type (circles) and SCV (squares) CFU ml^{-1} were measured over time in the absence (open symbols) or presence (closed symbols) of 1 mM H_2O_2 (left axis). The concentration of H_2O_2 was also measured over time (dashed line, right axis). (B) The growth of a mixed population of phenotypically stable SCVs in the absence (open symbols) or presence (closed symbols) of H_2O_2 was also measured over time, together with the concentration of H_2O_2 (dashed line, axes as for panel A). (C) Growth of a single menadione-auxotrophic SCV (SCV1072) over time in the absence (open symbols) or presence (closed symbols) of H_2O_2 . The concentration of H_2O_2 is indicated by the dashed line and the right-hand axis. The data points represent the mean average of 12 independent cultures. Error bars represent the standard deviations of the mean.

defective for *rexAB* or polymerase V (Fig. 3B). There was a modest (<3-fold) increase in the mutation rate of the *recA::Tn* mutant, but this was still significantly reduced compared to the wild-type (Fig. 3B). In contrast, there was no decrease in H_2O_2 -induced mutation in *S. aureus* lacking polymerase IV (*dinB*) (Fig. 3B).

To ensure that these findings also applied to the SH1000 genetic background, DNA from *recA::Tn*, *rexA::Tn*, *rexB::Tn*, *dinB::Tn*, and *umuC::Tn* was transduced into SH1000. Each of the DNA repair mutants behaved in a very similar manner to that described

above for the USA300 mutants. Specifically, the mutants were defective for H_2O_2 -induced SCV formation or mutation, with the exception of *dinB::Tn* (Fig. 3C and D). Complementation of the *umuC* coding sequence, under the control of the native promoter, to the *umuC::Tn* mutant restored H_2O_2 -induced mutation and SCV formation, while the *umuC::Tn* mutant transformed with vector alone was defective for H_2O_2 -induced mutation and SCV formation (Fig. 3C and D).

In *E. coli*, stress-induced mutation requires both the SOS re-

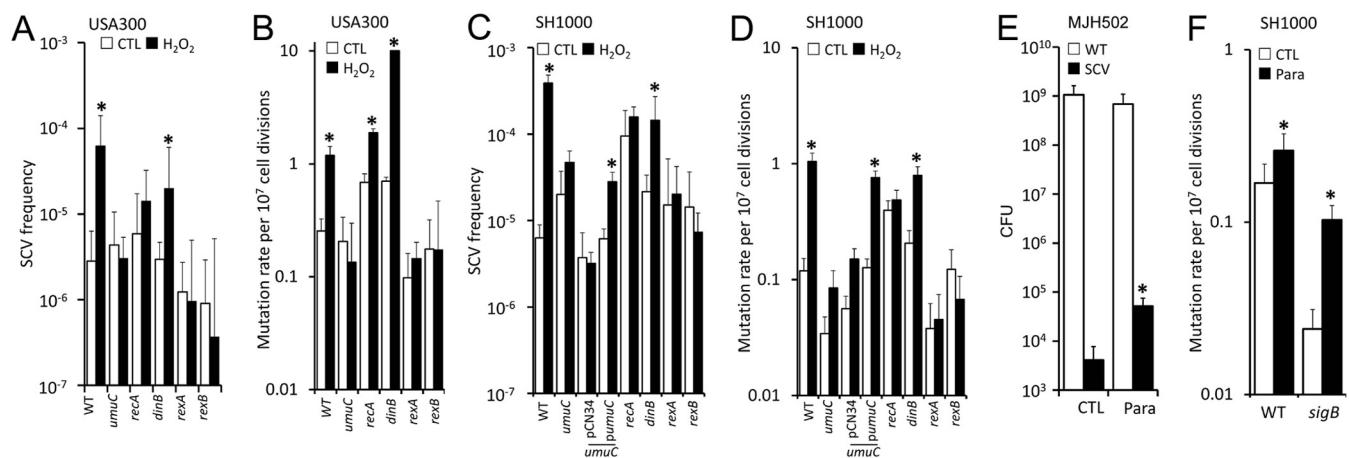


FIG 3 Expansion of the SCV subpopulation in response to H_2O_2 requires error-prone polymerase V under the control of the SOS regulon. (A) Frequency of SCVs in populations of WT *S. aureus* USA300 or transposon mutants lacking functional polymerase V (*umuC::Tn*), RecA (*recA::Tn*), polymerase IV (*dinB::Tn*), or RexAB (*rexA::Tn* and *rexB::Tn*) in the absence (open bars) or presence (filled bars) of H_2O_2 . (B) Mutation rate of strains detailed in panel A grown in the absence (open bars) or presence (closed bars) of H_2O_2 . (C and D) As for panels A and B but with strains constructed in the SH1000 background. In addition, panels C and D show data from the *umuC::Tn* mutant transformed with pCN34 only or pCN34 containing the *umuC* gene and promoter region (*pumuC*). (E) Total (WT) and SCV CFU counts from a SH1000-derived *sigB* mutant (MJH502) grown in the absence (CTL) or presence (paraquat) of H_2O_2 . (F) Mutation rate of wild-type SH1000 (WT) and an SH1000-derived *sigB* mutant (*sigB*) grown in the absence (open bars) or presence (closed bars) of H_2O_2 . The data in panels A, C, and E represent the mean averages of 12 independent cultures, and error bars represent the standard deviation of the mean. Values in panels B, D, and F represent the mutation rate as determined by fluctuation analysis, and error bars represent the 95% confidence intervals. Values which are significantly different ($P < 0.05$ [Student *t* test corrected for multiple comparisons via the Bonferroni method]) in the presence of H_2O_2 by comparison to those obtained in the absence of oxidants are indicated (*).

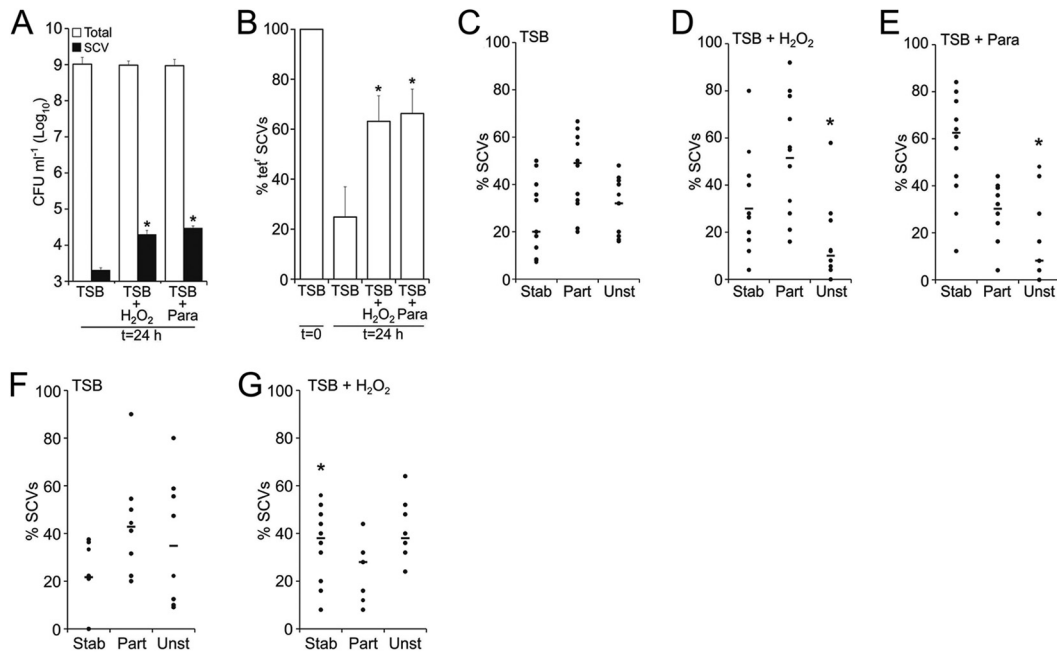


FIG 4 Hydrogen peroxide selects for the SCV phenotype. (A) Tryptic soy broth aliquots were inoculated with 10^5 CFU tetracycline-sensitive wild-type *S. aureus* SH1000 and 10 CFU tetracycline-resistant SCVs in the absence (TSB) or presence of either H_2O_2 or paraquat (para), and the sizes of the total (open bars) and SCV (filled bars) populations were determined after 16 h of culture. (B) After 16 h of culture, the percentage of SCVs that were resistant to tetracycline was determined. Values significantly ($P < 0.05$ [Student *t* test]) different from those obtained with bacteria cultured in the absence of oxidants (TSB) are indicated (*). Bars represent the mean averages of 12 independent cultures. Error bars represent the standard deviations of the mean. (C, D, and E) The relative stability of SCVs isolated from cultures without (TSB) (C) or with H_2O_2 (D) or paraquat (para) (E) were determined by using a previously described assay (22). Individual SCVs were classified as stable (stab), partially stable (part), or unstable (unst) as described in Materials and Methods. The data points represent a single independent culture. The percentage of SCVs classified as unstable was significantly lower in cultures containing oxidants than those without (an asterisk [*] indicates a significant difference relative to TSB without oxidants). (F and G) SCVs that were incubated either in the absence (F) or presence (G) of a subinhibitory concentration of H_2O_2 were assessed for phenotypic stability. Each data point represents a single independent culture. SCVs that were exposed to H_2O_2 or paraquat were significantly more stable than those incubated in TSB alone. Each data point represents a single culture (10 from each condition). Significant differences between each stability category ($P < 0.05$ [Student *t* test corrected for multiple comparisons via the Bonferroni method]) are indicated (*).

response and a second signal via the RpoS sigma factor, which is part of the general stress response (63). Therefore, we considered the possibility that this may also be the case in *S. aureus*, especially since previous work has indicated that the alternative sigma factor SigB is required for SCV emergence in the presence of antibiotics (64, 65). However, the absence of SigB did not prevent an SCV population increase in the presence of 0.1 mM paraquat (Fig. 3E), and the *sigB* mutant was not defective for a paraquat-induced increase in the mutation rate (Fig. 3F). Therefore, SigB does not appear to be required for oxidative-stress-induced mutation in *S. aureus*. It should be noted, however, that we were unable to test higher concentrations of paraquat or H_2O_2 at any concentration used in Fig. 1 due to the increased sensitivity of the *sigB* mutant to oxidative stress (66). Taken together, these data demonstrate that components of the SOS response trigger switching from the wild-type to SCV phenotype via mutagenic DNA repair, which explains the emergence of SCVs in the presence of H_2O_2 .

H_2O_2 selects for phenotypically stable SCVs, enhancing population expansion via replication. The data presented in Fig. 2A demonstrate that the SCV subpopulation emerged in the presence of H_2O_2 and continued to expand after the concentration of the oxidant fell below the growth-inhibitory concentration. However, it was not clear whether SCV population expansion at growth-permissive concentrations of H_2O_2 was predominantly due to the replication of a few SCVs generated by mutagenic DNA repair or

was due to a very high rate of phenotype-switching from the wild-type to the SCV phenotype.

To investigate this, culture medium with or without oxidants was inoculated with $\sim 10^5$ CFU tetracycline-sensitive (Tet^s) wild-type *S. aureus* ml⁻¹ and ~ 10 CFU SCVs from tetracycline-resistant SH1000 (Tet^r) ml⁻¹ and grown for 24 h. It should be noted that the mixed SCV subpopulation arose in cultures that had not been exposed to oxidants.

As expected, the size of the SCV subpopulation in cultures containing oxidants was greater than those without oxidants (Fig. 4A). In the absence of oxidative stress, the percentage of SCVs that were tetracycline resistant fell from 100% in the inoculum to ca. 20% in the mature culture, indicating that 80% of the final SCV subpopulation had arisen via phenotype switching from the tetracycline-sensitive wild-type population (Fig. 4B), i.e., SCVs revert at high frequency in the absence of oxidative stress. In contrast, in the presence of H_2O_2 or paraquat, the percentage of tetracycline-resistant SCVs at 24 h were ca. 60% each, indicating that these oxidative stresses select for maintenance of the SCV phenotype and that SCV reversion to the wild type does not occur at a high frequency in the presence of oxidants (Fig. 4B).

It has been shown previously that SCV replication is associated with an increase in phenotypic stability, since unstable SCVs revert to the wild-type (22). To test whether oxidants select for SCV stability, we used a previously described stability assay (22) and

found that SCVs that arose in cultures exposed to H₂O₂ or paraquat were significantly more stable than those that arose in broth only (Fig. 4C, D, and E). We then generated a pool of SCVs that had arisen spontaneously in cultures not exposed to oxidants and then grew them in the absence or presence of H₂O₂. Oxidative stress resulted in significantly increased SCV stability, demonstrating that H₂O₂ selects for SCV stability regardless of whether SCVs arose via the SOS response or spontaneously (Fig. 4F and G). Therefore, the exposure of SCVs to oxidants results in enhanced stability, which reduces reversion to the wild-type and thus enables SCV population expansion via replication.

Nonoxidative SOS induction promotes SCV reversion to the wild type. The data presented in Fig. 4 strongly suggest that H₂O₂ selects for phenotypically stable SCVs, which was surprising because activation of the SOS response would be expected to increase the frequency of suppressor mutations which promote SCV reversion to the wild-type phenotype. This suggests that the selective pressure exerted by oxidants on SCVs is great enough to overcome the increased mutation rate caused by induction of the SOS response.

However, we considered two alternative explanations for the enhanced stability of SCVs exposed to oxidative stress: that SCVs generated by the SOS response are inherently more stable than those that arise spontaneously or that the SOS response cannot trigger reversion of SCVs to wild-type bacteria.

To test these possibilities, we used the antibiotic ciprofloxacin, which induces a very similar DNA damage repair to that described upon H₂O₂ exposure (56, 62). Exposure of wild-type but not *umuC*::Tn mutant bacteria to a subinhibitory concentration of ciprofloxacin led to an increase in SCV frequency, confirming that induction of the SOS response promotes SCV emergence via mutagenic DNA repair (Fig. 5A). However, the SCVs triggered by ciprofloxacin were no more stable than those which emerged in the absence of the antibiotic (Fig. 4C and 5B). This demonstrates that SCVs generated via the SOS response are not inherently more stable than those that arise spontaneously during bacterial replication. We then tested whether the SOS response can promote SCV reversion to the wild type by exposing a panel of SCVs with various levels of stability to ciprofloxacin or paraquat. In five of the seven SCVs examined, ciprofloxacin exposure promoted the frequency of reversions, indicating that SOS induction can indeed promote SCV reversion to the wild type (Fig. 5C). In contrast, exposure of each of the SCVs to paraquat using the same assay either had no effect or reduced SCV reversion frequency (Fig. 5C). Therefore, while both ciprofloxacin and paraquat stress trigger the SOS mutagenic repair pathway, only the antibiotic promotes bidirectional switching between the wild type and SCVs. In contrast, oxidative stress triggers wild-type-to-SCV switching but selects against SCV reversion to the wild type.

Finally, we examined whether loss of mutagenic DNA repair affected SCV stability in the absence of SOS-inducing stresses. This revealed that SCVs generated by the *umuC*::Tn mutant in the SH1000 background were as stable as those that arise in the wild type, demonstrating that the SOS response does not play a role in SCV emergence or reversion in the absence of genotoxic stresses (Fig. 4C and 5D).

SCVs are less susceptible to H₂O₂ than parental strains. Previous work has suggested that SCVs should be more susceptible to H₂O₂ than wild-type bacteria due to the lack of staphyloxanthin pigment and reduced catalase activity in heme auxotrophs (19, 36,

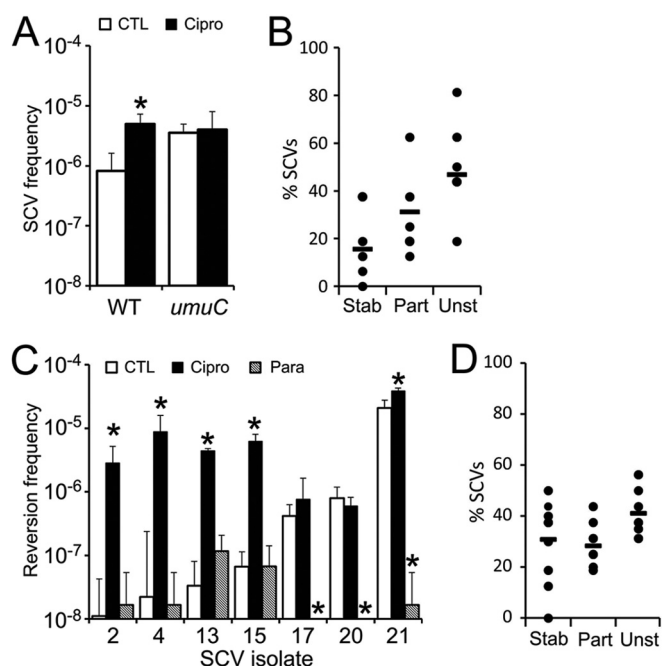


FIG 5 Ciprofloxacin promotes bidirectional phenotype-switching. (A) Wild-type SH1000 and a *umuC* mutant were grown in the absence (□) or presence (■) of a subinhibitory concentration of ciprofloxacin for 16 h, and the frequency of gentamicin-resistant SCVs was determined. The data represent the mean average of 10 independent cultures, and error bars represent the standard deviations. Values which differ from those seen in media lacking ciprofloxacin are highlighted (*). (B) Stability of SCV isolates that arose in wild-type SH1000 populations in the presence of ciprofloxacin ($n = 6$). The data are presented and analyzed as described in the legend to Fig. 4. (C) The frequency of SCV reversion to the wild type was determined in the absence (CTL) or presence of ciprofloxacin (Cipro) or paraquat (Para). Reversion rates that differ from those found on media without supplements are highlighted (*). (D) Stability of SCVs that arose in the *umuC* background in the absence of oxidants or ciprofloxacin ($n = 8$).

37, 45). However, since H₂O₂ selected for the SCV phenotype we considered the possibility that SCVs are in fact less sensitive to oxidative stress than wild-type bacteria. To test this, the survival of wild-type SH1000 in the presence of 30 mM H₂O₂ was compared to a phenotypically stable SCV isolate that arose in the presence of paraquat (SCV1072). This revealed that survival of the SCV was significantly greater than that of the wild type (Fig. 6A). Further analyses of three stable menadione-auxotrophic SCVs from independent cultures containing either H₂O₂ or paraquat revealed that each SCV isolate was significantly more resistant to H₂O₂ killing than the WT strain (Fig. 6B). Because culture in the presence of H₂O₂ or paraquat may have selected for mutations that confer elevated resistance to oxidative stress, three additional, independently isolated menadione-auxotrophic SCVs, which arose in broth without oxidants, were assessed. These showed similarly high levels of resistance to H₂O₂ killing (Fig. 6B), suggesting that H₂O₂ resistance is an intrinsic property of menadione-auxotrophic SCVs.

To determine whether resistance to H₂O₂ killing was related to the auxotrophic phenotype a panel of SCVs, isolated from gentamicin-containing media, with various or unknown auxotrophies was assessed for resistance to H₂O₂ killing. All of these isolates were significantly more resistant to H₂O₂ killing than the wild-type strain (Fig. 6C).

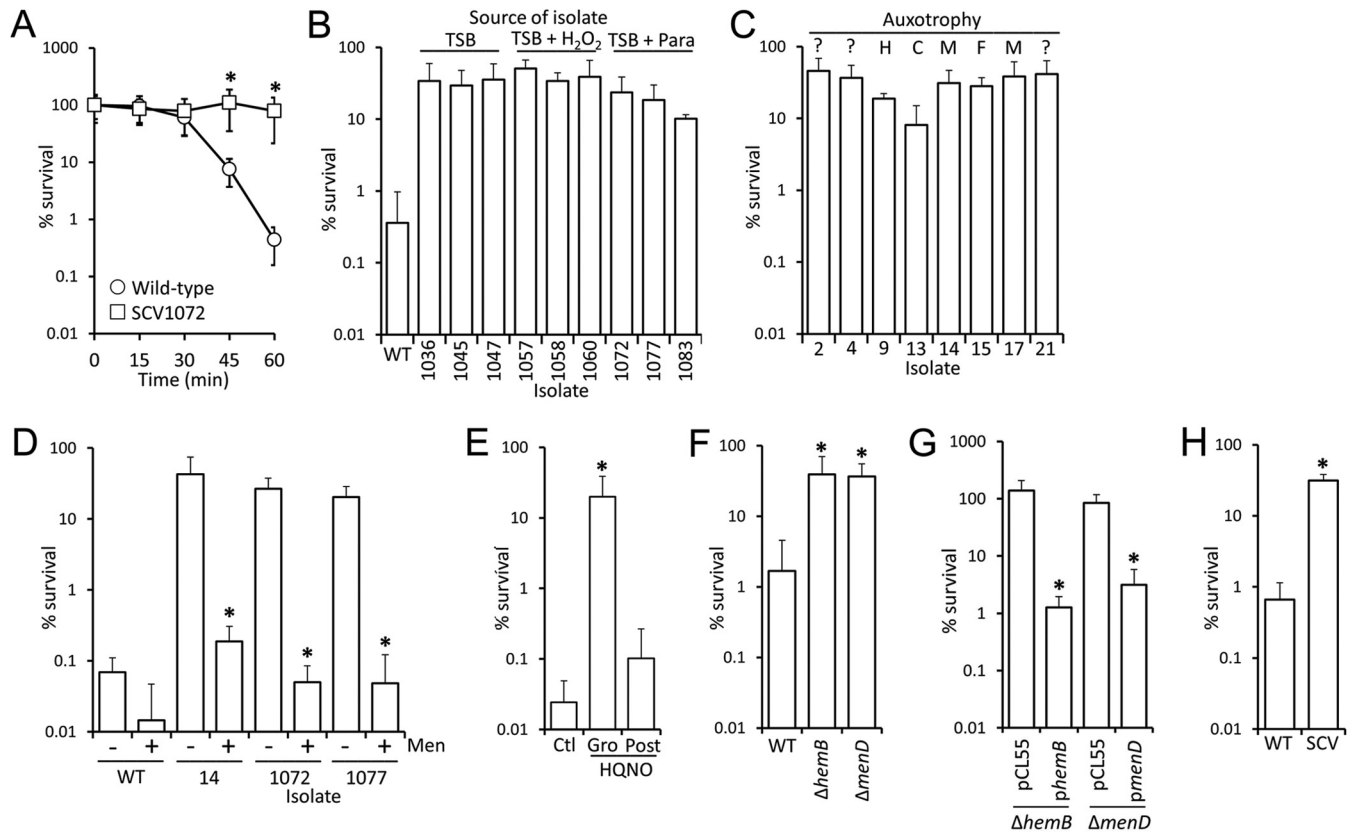


FIG 6 SCVs are more resistant to H_2O_2 than wild-type bacteria. (A) The survival of wild-type SH1000 *S. aureus* (○) or a derived SCV isolate (□) during exposure to 30 mM H_2O_2 was determined by quantifying CFU. Survival of the SCV was significantly greater ($P < 0.05$) than that of the wild type at the 45- and 60-min time points. (B) Survival of three independently isolated, menadione-auxotrophic SCVs from cultures without (TSB) or with H_2O_2 or paraquat (para) was determined after 60 min of exposure to 30 mM H_2O_2 . The survival of the wild type after 60 min is shown for comparison. The survival of all SCV isolates was significantly greater than that of the wild type. (C) Survival of independently isolated SCVs with auxotrophy for hemin (H), CO_2 (C), menadione (M), fatty acids (F), or where auxotrophy has not been established (?) after 60 min in 30 mM H_2O_2 . (D) Survival of wild-type or various, independently isolated menadione-auxotrophic SCVs from cultures without oxidants, grown in the absence (–) or presence (+) of menadione. Supplementation of SCV but not wild-type cultures with menadione significantly reduced survival in the presence of H_2O_2 . (E) Growth of *S. aureus* SH1000 in the presence of the electron-transport chain inhibitor HQNO (Gro) promotes resistance to H_2O_2 relative to growth in TSB only (Ctl) or growth in TSB, followed by addition of HQNO to bacteria 5 min prior to H_2O_2 exposure (Post). (F) Survival of the USA300 wild-type strain and derived deletion mutants lacking *hemB* or *menD* after incubation in 25 mM H_2O_2 . Survival of the SCVs was significantly greater than WT. (G) Survival after incubation in 25 mM H_2O_2 of USA300 *hemB* and *menD* mutant strains transformed either with pCL55 or PCL55 containing the *hemB* (*phemB*) or *menD* (*pmenD*) coding sequences. Survival of complemented strains was significantly lower than that of mutants transformed with vector alone (pCL55). (H) Survival of a clinical menadione-auxotrophic SCV (CX003SCV) and derived revertant (CX003WT) with the wild-type phenotype after incubation in 30 mM H_2O_2 . Survival of the SCV was significantly greater than wild-type after 60 min. Significance was determined by using a Student *t* test corrected for multiple comparisons via the Bonferroni method and declared significant when $P < 0.05$.

We also considered the possibility that gentamicin-resistant SCVs may consistently accumulate mutations which decrease susceptibility to H_2O_2 . To test this, menadione-auxotrophic SCV isolates were cultured in the absence or presence of menadione, and their susceptibility to H_2O_2 killing was determined. Culture of menadione-auxotrophic SCVs in the presence of menadione produced bacteria that were as sensitive as the wild-type parental strain to H_2O_2 , indicating that secondary mutations are not responsible for the elevated H_2O_2 resistance (Fig. 6D). It should be noted that menadione has been used as a redox cycling agent to generate superoxide within bacteria. However, the concentrations typically used in such studies are ~1,000-fold greater than those used here, and there was no significant effect on the viability of the wild-type bacteria in the presence of H_2O_2 (2, 67). To further test whether reduced susceptibility to H_2O_2 was solely due to defects in the electron transport chain, *S. aureus* wild type was cultured in the presence of the *Pseudomonas* exoproduct HQNO, which

blocks the electron transport chain of Gram-positive bacteria and confers an SCV phenotype upon *S. aureus* (68). Culture of *S. aureus* in the presence of HQNO produced bacteria that were resistant to H_2O_2 killing (Fig. 6E). However, the presence of HQNO alone did not alter H_2O_2 resistance of *S. aureus* which had been cultured in the absence of the exoproduct (Fig. 6E). Therefore, simply blocking the electron transport chain is not protective against H_2O_2 . Rather, resistance is most likely due to the physiological adaptation of *S. aureus* to loss of the electron transport chain.

To ensure that these findings were of clinical relevance, we assessed the survival of *hemB* and *menD* deletion mutants constructed in the USA300 community-associated MRSA strain. In keeping with the data for SH1000, the survival of wild-type USA300 in the presence of H_2O_2 was significantly lower than that of isogenic *hemB* or *menD* mutants (Fig. 6F). Complementation of either mutant with the relevant coding sequence restored the wild-

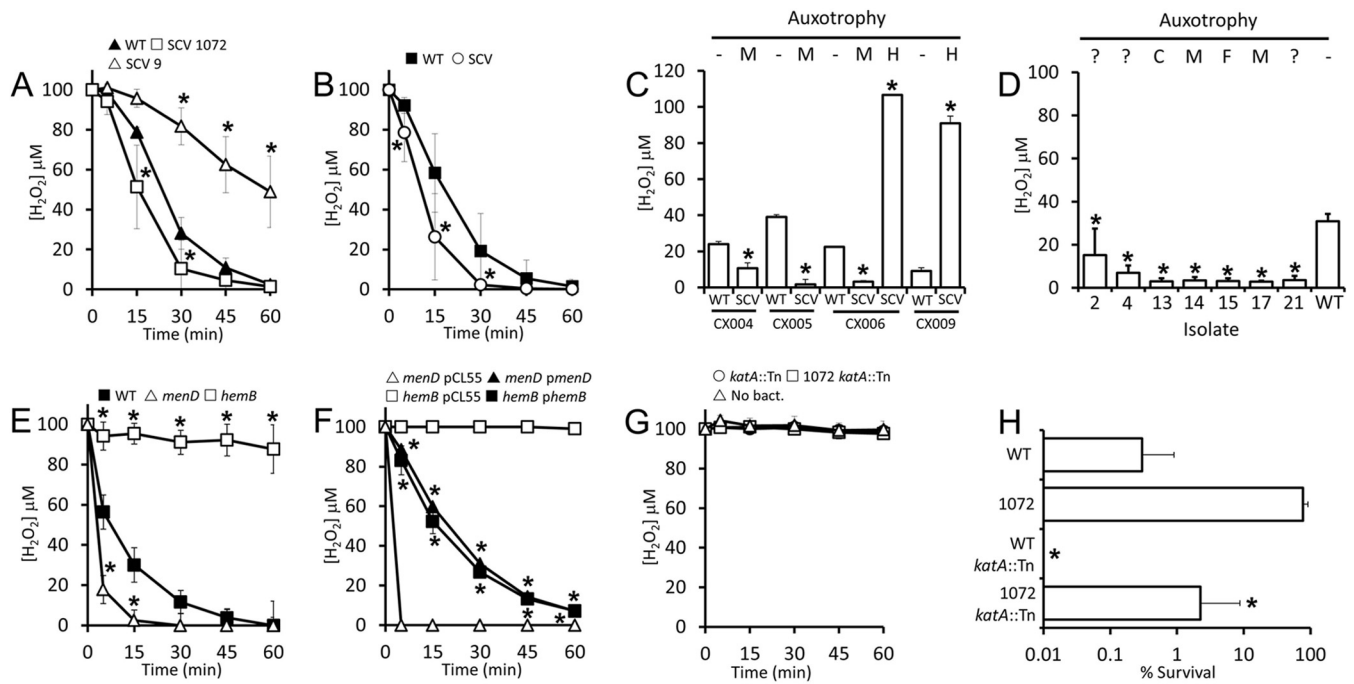


FIG 7 Most SCVs display elevated catalase production, which partially explains their decreased susceptibility to H₂O₂. (A) The H₂O₂ concentration was measured over time during incubation with SH1000 wild type, menadione-auxotrophic SCV1072 (1072) or heme-auxotrophic SCV9 (9). (B) H₂O₂ degradation by a clinical menadione-auxotrophic SCV isolate (SCV) and a revertant with wild-type (WT) phenotype. (C) H₂O₂ degradation after 30 min of incubation by clinical SCV isolates auxotrophic for menadione (M) or hemin (H) and paired revertant isolates. (D) H₂O₂ degradation after 30 min of incubation by SH1000-derived SCV isolates with diverse or unidentified auxotrophies, including CO₂ (C), menadione (M), fatty acids (F), or where auxotrophy has not been established (?) or does not exist. Wild-type (WT) *S. aureus* SH1000 is included as a control. (E) H₂O₂ degradation by wild-type USA300 and *menD* (*menD*) and *hemB* (*hemB*) mutants. (F) H₂O₂ degradation by *menD* (*menD*) and *hemB* (*hemB*) mutants transformed with plasmids containing the deleted genes (*pmenD* or *pphemB*) or vector only (pCL55). (G) H₂O₂ levels after incubation with SH1000 *kataA::Tn* (*kataA::Tn*) or SCV1072 *kataA::Tn* (1072 *kataA::Tn*) or in the absence of bacteria (No bact.). (H) Survival of wild-type (WT) SH1000, menadione-auxotrophic SCV1072 (1072), SH1000 *kataA::Tn* (*kataA::Tn*), or SCV1072 *kataA::Tn* (1072 *kataA::Tn*) after incubation in 30 mM H₂O₂ for 1 h. All data points represent the means of four independent experiments performed in duplicate. Error bars represent the standard deviations of the mean. Values that are significantly different from the wild type are denoted (*), with the exception of panel F, in which a significant difference from strains expressing catalase is denoted. Significance was determined by using a Student *t* test corrected for multiple comparisons via the Bonferroni method and declared significant when *P* < 0.05.

type growth phenotype (data not shown) and resulted in decreased survival in H₂O₂, whereas vector alone did not affect growth or survival (Fig. 6G). Finally, increased H₂O₂ resistance was demonstrated in a clinical menadione-auxotrophic SCV isolate (CX003SCV), relative to a wild-type revertant (CX003WT) (Fig. 6H). Therefore, resistance to H₂O₂ is an inherent property of electron-transport chain-deficient SCVs that very likely contributes to their ability to persist within host tissues during chronic infections.

Elevated catalase activity in SCVs partially explains enhanced H₂O₂ resistance. In addition to staphyloxanthin, catalase is a major staphylococcal defense against H₂O₂ and has been reported to be expressed at higher levels in clinical SCVs than wild-type *S. aureus* (33, 40–42). However, heme-auxotrophic SCVs cannot generate functional catalase and SCVs isolated from the lungs of patients with cystic fibrosis have been reported to have reduced catalase activity (5, 45).

To resolve the question of catalase activity in electron-transport chain-deficient SCVs, we measured the ability of wild-type *S. aureus* SH1000, menadione-auxotrophic SCV isolate SCV1072 and heme-auxotrophic SCV9 to degrade H₂O₂. This revealed significantly elevated catalase activity in the menadione-auxotrophic SCV relative to the wild type, while the catalase activity of the

heme-auxotrophic SCV was significantly impaired relative to wild type (Fig. 7A). Similarly, a clinical menadione-auxotrophic SCV isolate had significantly higher catalase activity than a revertant isolate with the wild-type phenotype (Fig. 7B). In keeping with these data, analyses of an additional four clinical SCV isolates and matching revertants revealed that menadione-auxotrophic SCVs degraded significantly more H₂O₂ than revertants, whereas heme auxotrophs exhibited defective catalase activity (Fig. 7C).

Next, we examined catalase activity in a panel of gentamicin-resistant SCVs with diverse auxotrophies or no identified auxotrophy isolated from broth cultures in the absence of oxidants. In every case, the catalase activity of the SCV was greater than that of the wild type, although significant variation was observed between isolates (Fig. 7D). Finally, to demonstrate that selection for SCVs does not itself select for elevated catalase activity, we measured catalase in isogenic *menD* and *hemB* mutants and the wild-type USA300 parent strain. Consistent with the previous data, this revealed that the *menD* deletion mutant had significantly higher levels of catalase activity than wild-type USA300, while the *hemB* deletion mutant was unable to degrade H₂O₂ (Fig. 7E) (45). Complementation of the *hemB* and *menD* mutants with the relevant wild-type coding sequence restored catalase activity to wild-type levels (Fig. 7F).

To confirm that the degradation of H₂O₂ was due to catalase, rather than alkyl-hydroperoxidase or other peroxidases, we transduced SH1000 WT and SCV1072 with DNA from a USA300 *kataA::Tn* mutant (40). Both strains were completely devoid of catalase activity, confirming the role of catalase (KatA) in the H₂O₂ breakdown (Fig. 7G).

Next, we sought to determine whether catalase activity explained the enhanced resistance of menadione-auxotrophic SCVs to H₂O₂ (Fig. 6A and B). Wild-type SH1000, SCV1072, SH1000 *kataA::Tn*, and SCV1072 *kataA::Tn* were each exposed to 30 mM H₂O₂ for 1 h, and the survival was determined. Strains deficient in catalase showed increased sensitivity to H₂O₂ (Fig. 7H). However, SCV1072 *kataA::Tn* was not as sensitive to H₂O₂ as SH1000 *kataA::Tn*, indicating that elevated catalase activity only partially explains the resistance of menadione-auxotrophic SCVs to H₂O₂ (Fig. 7H).

Taken together, these data indicate that enhanced catalase activity is common to most electron transport chain-deficient SCVs, with the exception of those that cannot synthesize heme. However, additional factors beyond catalase contribute to the resistance of SCVs to H₂O₂, particularly in heme auxotrophs.

DISCUSSION

S. aureus is responsible for a raft of chronic and recurrent infections despite triggering a potent immune response and antibiotic therapy (69, 70). During the course of infection, *S. aureus* frequently acquires mutations which promote survival in host tissues, including those that confer a small-colony variant phenotype. The data presented in this report reveal that these mutations increase in frequency in response to one of the major ROS produced by neutrophils, H₂O₂, via the SOS response. These data support previous work showing that increases in the mutation rate following DNA damage are due to the action of specific repair machinery, rather than the DNA damage itself (57–60).

The ability of bacteria to transiently increase mutation rates in response to environmental stress increases the probability of beneficial (adaptive) mutations that enhance survival (58, 71). Certainly, the emergence of electron transport chain-deficient SCVs in response to oxidative stress appears to be beneficial to *S. aureus* due to their resistance to oxidative stress and enhanced catalase production, which may enhance survival and/or replication of wild-type bacteria via detoxification of H₂O₂ (Fig. 6 and 7). In addition, SCVs have a number of other phenotypic properties which might promote persistence in host tissues, including intracellular survival, strong biofilm formation, and a high degree of antibiotic tolerance (5, 12, 13, 30–32). Therefore, a single inactivating mutation in the menaquinone biosynthetic pathway has a profound effect on the phenotype of *S. aureus*, changing it from a fast-growing, toxin-producing pathogen to a much less pathogenic and slow-growing variant that is able to persist within host tissues for extended periods. However, the close correlation between mutation rate (as determined by mutations at the *rpoB* locus) and SCV emergence indicates that the *men* operon is probably not a mutation hot spot, at least with respect to H₂O₂-associated mutations.

In *E. coli*, stress-induced mutation involves the low-fidelity polymerases IV and V. Although the ability of a bacterium to increase the mutation rate is a beneficial tool, the principal function of these polymerases is the replication of damaged DNA in a process known as “trans-lesion synthesis,” the low-fidelity nature of the polymerase enabling it to bypass DNA lesions at the cost of

a high-frequency of base pair mismatches (72). However, it is not clear whether the increased mutation rate associated with polymerases IV and V is simply a consequence of DNA repair or part of a coevolved mechanism to promote the mutation rate during times of DNA-damaging stress and thus increase the likelihood of beneficial mutations arising.

In *S. aureus*, trans-lesion synthesis appears to make a small contribution to *S. aureus* resistance to oxidative stress since the *umuC::Tn* mutant lacking polymerase V (but not *dinB*/polymerase IV) was slightly more sensitive to H₂O₂ than the wild type (data not shown). These data fit with previous work which shows that the expression of *umuC*, but not *dinB*, is increased in response to H₂O₂ (56). Therefore, in *S. aureus*, the expression of polymerase V appears to facilitate efficient repair of H₂O₂-mediated DNA damage. However, this does not rule out the possibility that polymerase V is part of a coevolved mechanism to increase the mutation rate in response to environmental stress. For example, *umuC* is one of the most strongly expressed genes in response to various genotoxic stresses, and this may result in greater polymerase V production than is strictly necessary to repair the damaged DNA (56, 62, 73).

Although H₂O₂ exposure led to large increases in SCV frequency, this was not solely due to an elevated mutation rate but also to the subsequent replication of emergent SCVs. H₂O₂ selected for the SCV phenotype, which may reflect the enhanced resistance of SCVs to H₂O₂, coupled with enhanced catalase production. Therefore, with the possible exception of heme auxotrophs, which lack catalase activity, gentamicin-resistant SCVs appear to be well equipped to persist in environments with a high burden of ROS. This correlates with the clinical evidence that SCVs are able to persist in host tissues, resisting clearance by immune cells that expose the pathogen to the oxidative burst (1–14, 36, 37).

The discovery of enhanced catalase activity in non-heme-auxotrophic SCVs is in keeping with a transcriptomic study of clinical SCV isolates, which reported enhanced *kataA* expression (33). Also in keeping with previous work, proteomics analysis of clinical and *in vitro* selected heme-auxotrophic SCVs revealed reduced catalase than in corresponding wild-type bacteria (74). Therefore, it appears that loss of the electron transport chain results in enhanced expression of *kataA*, leading to elevated catalase activity, except where heme biosynthesis is defective (33, 74). The reason why catalase activity is elevated in menadione auxotrophic SCVs is under investigation but may reflect the significantly altered metabolic profile of these mutants, which results in altered production of virulence factors and defense molecules such as staphyloxanthin (discussed below) (8, 9, 14, 19, 28, 30, 36, 45). It could, therefore, be hypothesized that enhanced catalase activity is a compensatory mechanism for the loss of staphyloxanthin, but this remains to be tested.

Although there appear to be a number of different pathways by which electron transport chain-deficient SCVs can arise (resulting in diverse auxotrophies), cultures exposed to H₂O₂ consistently generated menadione auxotrophs. Since menadione auxotrophs were no more resistant to H₂O₂ and produced similar levels of catalase to other SCVs (with the exception of heme auxotrophs), this is most likely explained by the increased likelihood of this variant arising relative to others. Specifically, menadione-auxotrophic SCVs can arise via inactivating mutations anywhere in the menaquinone biosynthetic pathway, whereas other types of SCV

might only arise via mutations in much smaller loci. In support of this hypothesis, in cultures not exposed to H₂O₂, menadione-auxotrophic SCVs were the most abundant (40%), followed by heme auxotrophs (35%). Therefore, it appears that H₂O₂ selects for catalase producing SCVs, of which menadione auxotrophs are the most abundant, over the catalase-deficient heme auxotroph.

While SCVs are resistant to oxidative stress and have many phenotypic properties which promote survival in host tissues, these come at the cost of slow growth and loss of exotoxin production (2, 4, 6, 9, 13, 35). Therefore, *S. aureus* populations must provide a balance between fast-growing, toxin-producing wild-type bacteria which are essential for the establishment of infection and slow-growing non-toxin-producing SCVs, which are able to resist threats such as oxidative stress or antibiotics. Indeed, such a strategy parallels the formation of antibiotic tolerant persister cells (75, 76). Balaban et al. showed that persister cells arise stochastically during growth (type I) and that the frequency increases in response to specific environmental stresses such as subinhibitory concentrations of antibiotics (type II) (75, 77). The production of persister cells prior to antibiotic exposure is hypothesized to be a bet-hedging strategy to ensure the population against exposure to lethal concentrations of antimicrobials that would otherwise eradicate the entire population (75–79).

Although SCVs arise via mutation and persister cells via changes in the physiological state of cells, both events are stochastic in nature and the frequency of these events is influenced by genetic factors and there are, therefore, clear parallels in their emergence within populations (77). We have previously shown that SCVs emerge constitutively in replicating *S. aureus* cultures (type I) and in this report demonstrate that a specific environmental stress enhances SCV emergence and population size via the action of specific gene products (type II) (22). Therefore, we hypothesize that SCVs comprise a bet-hedging strategy against lethal oxidative and antibiotic stress in a similar way to persisters ensuring populations against bactericidal antibiotics. A key part of such an insurance policy is the ability to restore the population of wild-type bacteria, which SCVs can do via the repair of mutations or acquisition of suppressor mutations that restore the function of mutated gene products (15, 17). In addition, activation of the SOS mutagenic repair pathway via subinhibitory ciprofloxacin (but not oxidative stress) can promote SCV reversion to the wild type.

The very high resistance of SCVs to concentrations of H₂O₂ that are lethal to the wild type was a surprising finding given the reduced pigmentation (and catalase levels in the heme auxotroph). The SCVs that arose under oxidative stress were gentamicin resistant and consistently auxotrophic for menadione, indicating loss of menaquinone biosynthesis and thus interruption of the electron transport chain (2, 9).

The ability of electron transport chain-deficient bacteria to resist H₂O₂ is in apparent contrast to previous work which showed that blockage of the electron transport chain of *E. coli* using KCN, or disruption of the *menA* gene, resulted in increased susceptibility to H₂O₂ (80). Loss of the electron transport chain in *E. coli* led to a significant increase in reducing power inside the cell, which propagates the highly damaging Fenton reaction by reducing iron (80). Our experiments with HQNO demonstrate that SCV resistance to H₂O₂ is not simply a function of a defective electron transport chain. Rather, it is only when *S. aureus* has been cultured in the absence of a functional electron transport chain that it is able to survive subsequent H₂O₂ challenge. Although this is par-

tially due to catalase activity, additional factors promote the resistance of electron transport chain-deficient *S. aureus* to H₂O₂. For example, *S. aureus* can avoid redox stress during loss of the electron transport chain by switching to fermentative metabolism via the redox-regulatory element Rex (81–83). Metabolic and transcriptomic analyses of SCVs reveal a huge increase in lactate and alcohol dehydrogenase activity, and this maintains redox balance in the cell, preventing an accumulation of reducing power (14, 30, 83). Furthermore, it is possible that fermentative metabolism renders SCVs more resistant to H₂O₂ killing by reducing the need for iron-containing metabolic enzymes in the cytoplasm, as well as cytochromes. In support of this hypothesis, wild-type *S. aureus* exposed to H₂O₂ increase expression of genes associated with fermentation and a *Staphylococcus epidermidis* mutant lacking a functional TCA cycle displayed elevated resistance to H₂O₂ killing (54, 55, 84).

Taken together, the data presented here reveal an additional strategy by which *S. aureus* can promote its survival under conditions of oxidative stress via the production of small-colony variants in response to H₂O₂ exposure. In addition to ensuring the population against potentially lethal oxidative stress, elevated SCV production is likely to promote persistent infection via reduced susceptibility to antibiotic therapy, increased biofilm formation, and enhanced intracellular persistence.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

A.M.E. gratefully acknowledges funding from the Royal Society and the Department of Medicine, Imperial College. K.L.P. is supported by a Ph.D. Scholarship from the Department of Medicine, Imperial College. D.A.-J. is supported by a Clinician Scientist Fellowship from the Medical Research Council UK.

James Imlay (University of Illinois) and Angela Nobbs (University of Bristol) are acknowledged for helpful discussions. Simon Foster (University of Sheffield), Tim Foster (Trinity College Dublin), Angelika Grunding (Imperial College), Malcolm Horsburgh (University of Liverpool), Ruth Massey (University of Bath), and Terry Roemer (Merck) are acknowledged for kindly providing strains or phage. Transposon mutants were supplied through the Network on Antimicrobial Resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus* (NARSA) Program under NIAID/NIH contract HHSN272200700055C. Genome sequencing was supported at the Sanger Institute by WT grant 098051.

REFERENCES

1. Abele-Horn M, Schupfner B, Emmerling P, Waldner H, Göring H. 2000. Persistent wound infection after herniotomy associated with small-colony variants of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Infection* 2:53–54. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s150100050014>.
2. Acar JF, Goldstein FW, Lagrange P. 1978. Human infections caused by thiamine- or menadione-requiring *Staphylococcus aureus*. *J Clin Microbiol* 8:142–147.
3. Agarwal H, Verrall R, Singh SP, Tang YW, Wilson G. 2007. Small colony variant *Staphylococcus aureus* multiorgan infection. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* 26:269–271. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/01.inf.0000256749.29244.67>.
4. Besier S, Ludwig A, Ohlsen K, Brade V, Wichelhaus TA. 2007. Molecular analysis of the thymidine-auxotrophic small colony variant phenotype of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Int J Med Microbiol* 297:217–225. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijmm.2007.02.003>.
5. Kahl B, Herrmann M, Everding AS, Koch HG, Becker K, Harms E, Proctor RA, Peters G. 1998. Persistent infection with small colony variant strains of *Staphylococcus aureus* in patients with cystic fibrosis. *J Infect Dis* 177:1023–1029. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/515238>.
6. Kahl BC. 2014. Small colony variants (SCVs) of *Staphylococcus aureus*: a bacterial survival strategy. *Infect Genet Evol* 21:515–522. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.meegid.2013.05.016>.

7. Kipp F, Ziebuhr W, Becker K, Krimmer V, Höbeta N, Peters G, Von Eiff C. 2003. Detection of *Staphylococcus aureus* by 16S rRNA directed in situ hybridization in a patient with a brain abscess caused by small colony variants. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 74:1000–1002. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/jnnp.74.7.1000>.
8. Proctor RA, van Langevelde P, Kristjansson M, Maslow JN, Arbeit RD. 1995. Persistent and relapsing infections associated with small-colony variants of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Clin Infect Dis* 20:95–102. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/clinids/20.1.95>.
9. Proctor RA, von Eiff C, Kahl BC, Becker K, McNamara P, Herrmann M, Peters G. 2006. Small colony variants: a pathogenic form of bacteria that facilitates persistent and recurrent infections. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 4:295–305. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nrmicro1384>.
10. Sendi P, Rohrbach M, Graber P, Frei R, Ochsner PE, Zimmerli W. 2006. *Staphylococcus aureus* small colony variants in prosthetic joint infection. *Clin Infect Dis* 43:961–967. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/507633>.
11. Seifert H, von Eiff C, Fätkenheuer G. 1999. Fatal case due to methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* small colony variants in an AIDS patient. *Emerg Infect Dis* 5:450–453. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3201/eid0503.990319>.
12. Tuchscher L, Medina E, Hussain M, Völker W, Heitmann V, Niemann S, Holzinger D, Roth J, Proctor RA, Becker K, Peters G, Löffler B. 2011. *Staphylococcus aureus* phenotype switching: an effective bacterial strategy to escape host immune response and establish a chronic infection. *EMBO Mol Med* 3:129–141. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/emmm.201000115>.
13. von Eiff C, Becker K, Metzke D, Lubritz G, Hockmann J, Schwarz T, Peters G. 2001. Intracellular persistence of *Staphylococcus aureus* small-colony variants within keratinocytes: a cause for antibiotic treatment failure in a patient with Darier's disease. *Clin Infect Dis* 32:1643–1647. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/320519>.
14. von Eiff C, Peters G, Becker K. 2006. The small colony variant (SCV) concept: the role of staphylococcal SCVs in persistent infections. *Injury* 37:S26–S33. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.injury.2006.04.006>.
15. Dean MA, Olsen RJ, Long SW, Rosato AE, Musser JM. 2014. Identification of point mutations in clinical *Staphylococcus aureus* strains that produce small colony variants auxotrophic for menadiene. *Infect Immun* 82:1600–1605. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/IAI.01487-13>.
16. Kriegeskorte A, Block D, Drescher M, Windmüller N, Mellmann A, Baum C, Neumann C, Loré NI, Bragonzi A, Liebau E, Hertel P, Seggewiss J, Becker K, Proctor RA, Peters G, Kahl BC. 2014. Inactivation of *thyA* in *Staphylococcus aureus* attenuates virulence and has a strong impact on metabolism and virulence gene expression. *mBio* 5:e01447-14. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/mBio.01447-14>.
17. Lannergård J, von Eiff C, Sander G, Cordes T, Seggewiss J, Peters G, Proctor RA, Becker K, Hughes D. 2008. Identification of the genetic basis for clinical menadiene-auxotrophic small-colony variant isolates of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 52:4017–4022. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00668-08>.
18. Schaaff F, Bierbaum G, Baumert N, Bartmann P, Sahl HG. 2003. Mutations are involved in emergence of aminoglycoside-induced small colony variants of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Int J Med Microbiol* 293:427–435. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1078/1438-4221-00282>.
19. von Eiff C, Heilmann C, Proctor RA, Woltz C, Peters G, Götz F. 1997. A site-directed *Staphylococcus aureus hemB* mutant is a small-colony variant which persists intracellularly. *J Bacteriol* 179:4706–4012.
20. Gaupp R, Schlag S, Liebecke M, Lalk M, Götz F. 2010. Advantage of upregulation of succinate dehydrogenase in *Staphylococcus aureus* biofilms. *J Bacteriol* 192:2385–2394. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JB.01472-09>.
21. Norstrom T, Lannergård J, Hughes D. 2007. Genetic and phenotypic identification of fusidic acid-resistant mutants with the small-colony-variant phenotype in *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 51:4438–4446. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00328-07>.
22. Edwards AM. 2012. Phenotype switching is a natural consequence of *Staphylococcus aureus* replication. *J Bacteriol* 194:5404–5412. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JB.00948-12>.
23. Massey RC, Buckling A, Peacock SJ. 2001. Phenotypic switching of antibiotic resistance circumvents permanent costs in *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Curr Biol* 11:1810–1814. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0960-9822\(01\)00507-3](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0960-9822(01)00507-3).
24. Vesga O, Groeschel MC, Otten MF, Brar DW, Vann JM, Proctor RA. 1996. *Staphylococcus aureus* small colony variants are induced by the endothelial cell intracellular milieu. *J Infect Dis* 173:739–742. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/infdis/173.3.739>.
25. Baumert N, von Eiff C, Schaaff F, Peters G, Proctor RA, Sahl HG. 2002. Physiology and antibiotic susceptibility of *Staphylococcus aureus* small colony variants. *Microb Drug Resist* 8:253–260. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1089/10766290260469507>.
26. Bates DM, von Eiff C, McNamara PJ, Peters G, Yeaman MR, Bayer AS, Proctor RA. 2003. *Staphylococcus aureus menD* and *hemB* mutants are as infective as the parent strains, but the menadiene biosynthetic mutant persists within the kidney. *J Infect Dis* 187:1654–1661. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/374642>.
27. Brouillette E, Grondin G, Lefebvre C, Talbot BG, Malouin F. 2004. Mouse mastitis model of infection for antimicrobial compound efficacy studies against intracellular and extracellular forms of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Vet Microbiol* 101:253–262. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.vetmic.2004.04.008>.
28. Garcia LG, Lemaire S, Kahl BC, Becker K, Proctor RA, Denis O, Tulkens PM, Van Bambeke F. 2013. Antibiotic activity against small-colony variants of *Staphylococcus aureus*: review of *in vitro*, animal and clinical data. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 68:1455–1464. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkt072>.
29. Tsuji BT, von Eiff C, Kelchlin PA, Forrest A, Smith PF. 2008. Attenuated vancomycin bactericidal activity against *Staphylococcus aureus hemB* mutants expressing the small-colony-variant phenotype. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 52:1533–1537. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/AAC.01254-07>.
30. Seggewiss J, Becker K, Kotte O, Eisenacher M, Yazdi MR, Fischer A, McNamara P, Al Laham N, Proctor R, Peters G, Heinemann M, von Eiff C. 2006. Reporter metabolite analysis of transcriptional profiles of a *Staphylococcus aureus* strain with normal phenotype and its isogenic *hemB* mutant displaying the small-colony-variant phenotype. *J Bacteriol* 188:7765–7777. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JB.00774-06>.
31. Singh R, Ray P, Das A, Sharma M. 2010. Enhanced production of exopolysaccharide matrix and biofilm by a menadiene-auxotrophic *Staphylococcus aureus* small-colony variant. *J Med Microbiol* 59:521–527. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/jmm.0.017046-0>.
32. Tuchscher L, Heitmann V, Hussain M, Viemann D, Roth J, von Eiff C, Peters G, Becker K, Löffler B. 2010. *Staphylococcus aureus* small-colony variants are adapted phenotypes for intracellular persistence. *J Infect Dis* 202:1031–1040. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/656047>.
33. Moisan H, Brouillette E, Jacob CL, Langlois-Bégin P, Michaud S, Malouin F. 2006. Transcription of virulence factors in *Staphylococcus aureus* small-colony variants isolated from cystic fibrosis patients is influenced by SigB. *J Bacteriol* 188:64–76. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JB.188.1.64-76.2006>.
34. Mitchell F, Fugère A, Pépin Gaudreau K, Brouillette E, Frost EH, Cantin AM, Malouin F. 2013. SigB is a dominant regulator of virulence in *Staphylococcus aureus* small-colony variants. *PLoS One* 8:e65018. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0065018>.
35. Pader V, James EH, Painter KL, Wigneshwararaj S, Edwards AM. 2014. The *agr* quorum-sensing system regulates fibronectin binding but not hemolysis in the absence of a functional electron transport chain. *Infect Immun* 82:4337–4347. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/IAI.02254-14>.
36. Liu GY, Essex A, Buchanan JT, Datta V, Hoffman HM, Bastian JF, Fierer J, Nizet V. 2005. *Staphylococcus aureus* golden pigment impairs neutrophil killing and promotes virulence through its antioxidant activity. *J Exp Med* 202:209–215. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1084/jem.20050846>.
37. Liu CI, Liu GY, Song Y, Yin F, Hensler ME, Jeng WY, Nizet V, Wang AH, Oldfield E. 2008. A cholesterol biosynthesis inhibitor blocks *Staphylococcus aureus* virulence. *Science* 319:1391–1394. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1126/science.1153018>.
38. Clauditz A, Resch A, Wieland KP, Peschel A, Götz F. 2006. Staphyloxanthin plays a role in the fitness of *Staphylococcus aureus* and its ability to cope with oxidative stress. *Infect Immun* 74:4950–4953. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/IAI.00204-06>.
39. Clements MO, Watson SP, Foster SJ. 1999. Characterization of the major superoxide dismutase of *Staphylococcus aureus* and its role in starvation survival, stress resistance, and pathogenicity. *J Bacteriol* 181:3898–3903.
40. Cosgrove K, Coutts G, Jonsson IM, Tarkowski A, Kokai-Kun JF, Mond JJ, Foster SJ. 2007. Catalase (KatA) and alkyl hydroperoxide reductase (AhpC) have compensatory roles in peroxide stress resistance and are required for survival, persistence, and nasal colonization in *Staphylococcus aureus*. *J Bacteriol* 189:1025–1035. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JB.01524-06>.
41. Gaupp R, Ledala N, Somerville GA. 2012. Staphylococcal response to oxidative stress. *Front Cell Infect Microbiol* 2:33. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fcimb.2012.00033>.

42. Horsburgh MJ, Ingham E, Foster SJ. 2001. In *Staphylococcus aureus*, fur is an interactive regulator with PerR, contributes to virulence, and is necessary for oxidative stress resistance through positive regulation of catalase and iron homeostasis. *J Bacteriol* 183:468–475. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JB.183.2.468-475.2001>.
43. Karavolos MH, Horsburgh MJ, Ingham E, Foster SJ. 2003. Role and regulation of the superoxide dismutases of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Microbiology* 149:2749–2758. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/mic.0.26353-0>.
44. Valderas MW, Hart ME. 2001. Identification and characterization of a second superoxide dismutase gene (*sodM*) from *Staphylococcus aureus*. *J Bacteriol* 183:3399–3407. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JB.183.11.3399-3407.2001>.
45. Mayfield JA, Hammer ND, Kurker RC, Chen TK, Ojha S, Skaar EP, DuBois JL. 2013. The chlorite dismutase (HemQ) from *Staphylococcus aureus* has a redox-sensitive heme and is associated with the small colony variant phenotype. *J Biol Chem* 288:23488–23504. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M112.442335>.
46. Novick RP. 1991. Genetic systems in staphylococci. *Methods Enzymol* 204:587–636. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0076-6879\(91\)04029-N](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0076-6879(91)04029-N).
47. Lee CY, Buranen SL, Ye ZH. 1991. Construction of single-copy integration vectors for *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Gene* 103:101–105. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0378-1119\(91\)90399-V](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0378-1119(91)90399-V).
48. Kafala B, Sasarman A. 1997. Isolation of the *Staphylococcus aureus* hem-CDBL gene cluster coding for early steps in heme biosynthesis. *Gene* 199:231–239. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0378-1119\(97\)00372-7](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0378-1119(97)00372-7).
49. Charpentier E, Anton AI, Barry P, Alfonso B, Fang Y, Novick RP. 2004. Novel cassette-based shuttle vector system for gram-positive bacteria. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 70:6076–6085. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/AEM.70.10.6076-6085.2004>.
50. Monk IR, Shah IM, Xu M, Tan MW, Foster TJ. 2012. Transforming the untransformable: application of direct transformation to manipulate genetically *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Staphylococcus epidermidis*. *mBio* 3:e00277-11. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/mBio.00277-11>.
51. Sarkar S, Ma WT, Sandri GH. 1992. On fluctuation analysis: a new, simple and efficient method for computing the expected number of mutants. *Genetica* 85:173–179. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/BF00120324>.
52. Hall BM, Ma C, Liang KK, Singh P. 2009. Fluctuation Analysis Calculator (FALCOR): a web tool for the determination of mutation rate using Luria-Delbruck fluctuation analysis. *Bioinformatics* 25:1564–1565. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btp253>.
53. Wolf C, Hochgräfe F, Kusch H, Albrecht D, Hecker M, Engelmann S. 2008. Proteomic analysis of antioxidant strategies of *Staphylococcus aureus*: diverse responses to different oxidants. *Proteomics* 8:3139–3153. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/pmic.200701062>.
54. Keyer K, Imlay JA. 1996. Superoxide accelerates DNA damage by elevating free-iron levels. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 93:13635–13640. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.93.24.13635>.
55. Wakeman CA, Hammer ND, Staff DL, Attia AS, Anzaldi LL, Dikalov SI, Calcutt MW, Skaar EP. 2012. Menaquinone biosynthesis potentiates haem toxicity in *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Mol Microbiol* 86:1376–1392. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/mmi.12063>.
56. Chang W, Small DA, Toghrol F, Bentley WE. 2006. Global transcriptome analysis of *Staphylococcus aureus* response to hydrogen peroxide. *J Bacteriol* 188:1648–1659. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JB.188.4.1648-1659.2006>.
57. Al Mamun AA, Lombardo MJ, Shee C, Lisewski AM, Gonzalez C, Lin D, Nehring RB, Saint-Ruf C, Gibson JL, Frisch RL, Lichtarge O, Hastings PJ, Rosenberg SM. 2012. Identity and function of a large gene network underlying mutagenic repair of DNA breaks. *Science* 338:1344–1348. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1126/science.1226683>.
58. Galhardo RS, Hastings PJ, Rosenberg SM. 2007. Mutation as a stress response and the regulation of evolvability. *Crit Rev Biochem Mol Biol* 42:399–435. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10409230701648502>.
59. McKenzie GJ, Harris RS, Lee PL, Rosenberg SM. 2000. The SOS response regulates adaptive mutation. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 97:6646–6651. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.120161797>.
60. Shee C, Gibson JL, Rosenberg SM. 2012. Two mechanisms produce mutation hot spots at DNA breaks in *Escherichia coli*. *Cell Rep* 2:714–721. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.celrep.2012.08.033>.
61. Fey PD, Endres JL, Yajjala VK, Widhelm TJ, Boissy RJ, Bose JL, Bayles KW. 2013. A genetic resource for rapid and comprehensive phenotype screening of nonessential *Staphylococcus aureus* genes. *mBio* 4:e00537-12. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/mBio.00537-12>.
62. Cirz RT, Jones MB, Gingles NA, Minogue TD, Jarrahi B, Peterson SN, Romesberg FE. 2007. Complete and SOS-mediated response of *Staphylococcus aureus* to the antibiotic ciprofloxacin. *J Bacteriol* 189:531–539. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JB.01464-06>.
63. Lombardo MJ, Aponyi I, Rosenberg SM. 2004. General stress response regulator RpoS in adaptive mutation and amplification in *Escherichia coli*. *Genetics* 166:669–680. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1534/genetics.166.2.669>.
64. Mitchell G, Séguin DL, Asselin AE, Déziel E, Cantin AM, Frost EH, Michaud S, Malouin F. 2010. *Staphylococcus aureus* sigma B-dependent emergence of small-colony variants and biofilm production following exposure to *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* 4-hydroxy-2-heptylquinoline-N-oxide. *BMC Microbiol* 10:33. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1471-2180-10-33>.
65. Mitchell G, Brouillette E, Séguin DL, Asselin AE, Jacob CL, Malouin F. 2010. A role for sigma factor B in the emergence of *Staphylococcus aureus* small-colony variants and elevated biofilm production resulting from an exposure to aminoglycosides. *Microb Pathog* 48:18–27. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.micpath.2009.10.003>.
66. Horsburgh MJ, Aish JL, White IJ, Shaw L, Lithgow JK, Foster SJ. 2002. sigmaB modulates virulence determinant expression and stress resistance: characterization of a functional *rsbU* strain derived from *Staphylococcus aureus* 8325-4. *J Bacteriol* 184:5457–5467. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JB.184.19.5457-5467.2002>.
67. Uziel O, Borovok I, Schreiber R, Cohen G, Aharonowitz Y. 2004. Transcriptional regulation of the *Staphylococcus aureus* thioredoxin and thioredoxin reductase genes in response to oxygen and disulfide stress. *J Bacteriol* 186:326–334. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JB.186.2.326-334.2004>.
68. Hoffman LR, Déziel E, D'Argenio DA, Lépine F, Emerson J, McNamara S, Gibson RL, Ramsey BW, Miller SI. 2006. Selection for *Staphylococcus aureus* small-colony variants due to growth in the presence of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 103:19890–19895. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0606756104>.
69. Chen CJ, Su LH, Lin TY, Huang YC. 2010. Molecular analysis of repeated methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* infections in children. *PLoS One* 5:e14431. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0014431>.
70. Peyrani P, Allen M, Seligson D, Roberts C, Chen A, Haque N, Zervos M, Wiemken T, Harting J, Christensen D, Ramirez R. 2012. Clinical outcomes of osteomyelitis patients infected with methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* U S A-300 strains. *Am J Orthop* 41:117–122.
71. Rosenberg SM, Shee C, Frisch RL, Hastings PJ. 2012. Stress-induced mutation via DNA breaks in *Escherichia coli*: a molecular mechanism with implications for evolution and medicine. *Bioessays* 34:885–892. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/bies.201200050>.
72. Sale JE, Lehmann AR, Woodgate R. 2012. Y-family DNA polymerases and their role in tolerance of cellular DNA damage. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* 13:141–152. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nrm3289>.
73. Anderson KL, Roberts C, Disz T, Vonstein V, Hwang K, Overbeek R, Olson PD, Projan SJ, Dunman PM. 2006. Characterization of the *Staphylococcus aureus* heat shock, cold shock, stringent, and SOS responses and their effects on log-phase mRNA turnover. *J Bacteriol* 188:6739–6756. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JB.00609-06>.
74. Kriegeskorte A, König S, Sander G, Pirkel A, Mahabir E, Proctor RA, von Eiff C, Peters G, Becker K. 2011. Small colony variants of *Staphylococcus aureus* reveal distinct protein profiles. *Proteomics* 11:2476–2490. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/pmic.201000796>.
75. Balaban NQ. 2011. Persistence: mechanisms for triggering and enhancing phenotypic variability. *Curr Opin Genet Dev* 21:768–775. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.gde.2011.10.001>.
76. Lewis K. 2012. Persister cells: molecular mechanisms related to antibiotic tolerance. *Handb Exp Pharmacol* 211:121–133. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-28951-4_8.
77. Balaban NQ, Merrin J, Chait R, Kowalik L, Leibler S. 2004. Bacterial persistence as a phenotypic switch. *Science* 305:1622–1625. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1126/science.1099390>.
78. Johnson PJ, Levin BR. 2013. Pharmacodynamics, population dynamics, and the evolution of persistence in *Staphylococcus aureus*. *PLoS Genet* 9:e1003123. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1003123>.
79. Kussell E, Kishony R, Balaban NQ, Leibler S. 2005. Bacterial persistence: a model of survival in changing environments. *Genetics* 169:1807–1814. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1534/genetics.104.035352>.
80. Woodmansee AN, Imlay JA. 2002. Reduced flavins promote oxidative DNA damage in non-respiring *Escherichia coli* by delivering electrons to intracellular free iron. *J Biol Chem* 277:34055–34066. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M203977200>.

81. Brekasis D, Paget MS. 2003. A novel sensor of NADH/NAD⁺ redox poise in *Streptomyces coelicolor* A3(2). *EMBO J* 22:4856–4865. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/emboj/cdg453>.
82. Hecker M, Reder A, Fuchs S, Pagels M, Engelmann S. 2009. Physiological proteomics and stress/starvation responses in *Bacillus subtilis* and *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Res Microbiol* 160:245–258. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.resmic.2009.03.008>.
83. Richardson AR, Libby SJ, Fang FC. 2008. A nitric oxide-inducible lactate dehydrogenase enables *Staphylococcus aureus* to resist innate immunity. *Science* 319:1672–1676. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1126/science.1155207>.
84. Chittezhham TV, Kinkead LC, Janssen A, Schaeffer CR, Woods KM, Lindgren JK, Peaster JM, Chaudhari SS, Sadykov M, Jones J, Abdel-Ghani SM, Zimmerman MC, Bayles KW, Somerville GA, Fey PD. 2013. A dysfunctional tricarboxylic acid cycle enhances fitness of *Staphylococcus epidermidis* during β -lactam stress. *mBio* 4:e00437-13. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/mBio.00437-13>.
85. Diep BA, Gill SR, Chang RF, Phan TH, Chen JH, Davidson MG, Lin F, Lin J, Carleton HA, Mongodin EF, Sensabaugh GF, Perdreau-Remington F. 2006. Complete genome sequence of USA300, an epidemic clone of community-acquired methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Lancet* 367:731–739. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(06\)68231-7](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(06)68231-7).
86. Holden MT, Feil EJ, Lindsay JA, Peacock SJ, Day NP, Enright MC, Foster TJ, Moore CE, Hurst L, Atkin R, Barron A, Bason N, Bentley SD, Chillingworth C, Chillingworth T, Churcher C, Clark L, Corton C, Cronin A, Doggett J, Dowd L, Feltwell T, Hance Z, Harris B, Hauser H, Holroyd S, Jagels K, James KD, Lennard N, Line A, Mayes R, Moule S, Mungall K, Ormond D, Quail MA, Rabinowitsch E, Rutherford K, Sanders M, Sharp S, Simmonds M, Stevens K, Whitehead S, Barrell BG, Spratt BG, Parkhill J. 2004. Complete genomes of two clinical *Staphylococcus aureus* strains: evidence for the rapid evolution of virulence and drug resistance. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 101:9786–9791. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0402521101>.