**Uncovering the mechanisms of clinically-relevant altered antibiotic responses of**

***Staphylococcus aureus* under wound infection-mimetic conditions**

Colin D. Rieger[1], Ali Molaeitabari[1], Tanya E. S. Dahms[1] and Omar M. El-Halfawy[1*]

[1] Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry, Faculty of Science, University of Regina, Regina,

SK, S4S 0A2, Canada

[*] Correspondence: omar.el-halfawy@uregina.ca (O.M.E.)

**Running title:** Altered antibiotic responses of *S. aureus* under wound-like conditions

**Summary:**

Standard *in vitro* antimicrobial susceptibility testing (AST) using Mueller-Hinton broth (MHB)

does not reflect infection-site conditions, and its results often do not correlate with therapeutic

outcomes. Here, we compared the antibiotic susceptibility of methicillin-resistant

*Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA), a common chronic wound pathogen, in simulated wound fluid

(SWF) resembling wound exudate versus MHB, revealing discordant AST results across six of

nine tested antibiotic classes. The most significant were 128-fold increased resistance to

tetracyclines and 256-fold sensitization to β-lactams in SWF. Tetracycline resistance was

mediated by MntC, an extracellular manganese-binding protein, whereas β-lactam sensitization

was driven by cell envelope remodelling in SWF. *Galleria mellonella* wound infection results

matched the SWF susceptibility phenotypes, suggesting SWF better predicts *in vivo* wound

infection therapeutic outcomes. These comprehensive phenotypic and mechanistic insights into

MRSA antibiotic responses under wound-infection-mimetic conditions with direct *in vivo*

validation identify a potential new antibiotic adjuvant target and may guide improved antibiotic

therapy for MRSA wound infections.

## Introduction

Antibiotic resistance is rising at an alarming rate, and existing antibiotics are failing to treat infections [1]. This crisis further complicates chronic infections, which pose significant healthcare and socioeconomic challenges [2]. Chronic wounds are particularly troublesome because they have a prolonged inflammatory phase and delayed healing, leading to tissue fibrosis and non-healing ulcers [3,4]. Wound exudates produced during healing are serum-based fluid rich in protein and growth factors, providing a suitable environment for bacterial colonization [5]; such infections frequently fail to respond to treatment [3]. Chronic wound infections are estimated to affect 1-2% of the world population at some point in their lives [6]. Wound care poses a substantial economic burden on the healthcare system; wound care costs were estimated to be ~$300B worldwide in 2019 [7] – such expenditures in the 10 highest spending countries alone increased from ~$233B in 2019 to $301B in 2022 [8].

*Staphylococcus aureus,* a Gram-positive pathogen, is a leading cause of both hospital- and community-acquired infections worldwide, associated with bacteremia, endocarditis, skin and soft tissue infections (SSTIs), and other infections affecting almost all body sites [9-11]. Notably, *S. aureus* is the leading cause of SSTIs, including complicated SSTIs such as chronic wounds and burn infections [11-13]. If not treated, *S. aureus* wound infections can spread to bloodstream infections, which are often fatal [14]. *S. aureus* developed multi-drug resistance, including to last-resort antibiotics, placing it on the World Health Organization's list of 'priority pathogens' posing the greatest threat to human health [15]. Methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA, known for resistance to β-lactam antibiotics) is the leading cause of wound infections, posing severe clinical problems [13]. Currently, the most commonly circulating community-associated MRSA lineage in North America is USA300 [16]. The discovery of new antibiotics has lagged

behind the constant rise in AMR prevalence [10]. There is an urgent need for new antimicrobial

solutions, including antibiotic adjuvants that revive currently failing antibiotics.

Bacterial antibiotic responses are often studied under standard *in vitro* conditions [e.g.,

Mueller-Hinton broth (MHB), composed of beef extract, casein hydrolysate, and starch[17]] that do

not adequately reflect the infection site. These assays, standardized by agencies such as CLSI[18],

are routinely used in clinical labs worldwide to determine whether a clinical isolate is sensitive

or resistant to an antibiotic, guiding antibiotic therapy. Nonetheless, the clinical outcome often

does not correlate with standard antibiotic susceptibility test (AST) results, with reports of

unexpected antibiotic therapeutic failure [19-21]. In contrast, unexpected potency in patients despite

AST-predicted resistance is far less frequently reported, as such antibiotics would typically be

contraindicated. However, anecdotal reports describe instances in which an antibiotic empirically

prescribed while waiting (up to 72 h) for AST results shows efficacy in patients before AST

identifies the causative isolate as resistant to the same antibiotic. Together, standard AST

erroneous predictions can lead to therapeutic failure or sideline much-needed *in vivo*-effective

antibiotics.

Culture conditions and media composition dictate gene expression and dispensability

profiles in bacteria to meet their survival requirements [22,23], thereby potentially altering bacterial

antibiotic responses. Infection-mimetic media, such as simulated wound fluid (SWF) [24], have

been developed, providing test conditions that are more clinically relevant than MHB for

assessing bacterial responses. SWF is composed of 50% v/v fetal bovine serum in maximal

recovery diluent, which is an isotonic peptone saline solution [24]. Such a formulation of SWF

mimics chronic wound exudates, as the latter are derived from serum and contain electrolytes at

concentrations equivalent to those in serum, approximately half the total protein content of

serum, and higher levels of growth factors for tissue regeneration [25-29]. The inclusion of fetal

bovine serum in this recipe provides additional components not present in MHB, such as growth

factors, transport proteins, enzymes, hormones, fatty acids, and lipids, at biologically relevant

levels [30,31].

Here, we used SWF to evaluate the antimicrobial susceptibility profile of MRSA under

wound infection-mimetic conditions. We observed discordance in AST results for representative

antibiotics across six of nine antibiotic classes tested in SWF compared to MHB against the

MRSA USA300. The antibiotic classes showing the most significant discordant AST results

included tetracyclines, to which USA300 was more resistant (up to a 128-fold shift), and β-

lactams, to which the MRSA was unexpectedly more sensitive (up to a 256-fold shift), when

tested in SWF. Interestingly, these antibiotic susceptibility shifts crossed the CLSI clinical

breakpoint for representatives of both classes, suggesting they may result in altered therapeutic

outcomes. Genome-wide assays and subsequent mechanistic characterizations revealed that the

increased resistance to tetracyclines is mediated by MntC, an extracellular binding protein of a

manganese ABC transporter system, whereas the drastic sensitization to β-lactams was driven by

cell envelope remodelling in SWF. Further, we used a *Galleria mellonella* incision wound

infection model, which shows wound healing events similar to those in animals [32] and

recapitulates the hallmarks of trauma and infection observed in mammalian models [33], to

characterize the observed *in vitro* phenotypes. Doxycycline, a tetracycline antibiotic, could not

rescue wild-type USA300-infected Galleria larvae but significantly increased the survival of

those infected with the *mntC*::Tn mutant, whereas the β-lactam cefuroxime was effective at

rescuing a significant number of USA300-infected larvae. These *in vivo* results matched the *in*

*vitro* phenotypes in SWF but not MHB, suggesting that this host-mimetic medium is a better

predictor of *in vivo* MRSA wound infection therapeutic outcomes.

Together, this work addresses the relatively long-recognized shortcomings of the MHB-

based standard AST by uncovering alterations in MRSA antibiotic susceptibility in wound

exudate-like fluid relative to MHB. Further, this study not only describes the phenotypic

differences between SWF and MHB but, more importantly, also systematically reveals the

specific molecular mechanisms underlying the most significant discordant AST results between

standard and infection-mimetic conditions at the whole-genome level, and directly links the

uncovered *in vitro* phenotypes and mechanisms to *in vivo* efficacy. Therefore, our results provide

a solid theoretical basis for improved antibiotic selection in the clinic and a potential new target

for adjuvant therapy against drug-resistant MRSA wound infections.

**Results:**

**Alterations in MRSA sensitivity to antibiotics in SWF.**

We first compared AST results of representative antibiotics from nine classes against

USA300 cultured in MHB and SWF (Table 1). Six of the nine classes showed discordance in

minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) determined in the two media (MIC ≥ 4-fold difference

between SWF and MHB, Table 1). These MIC discordances included a 128-, 16-, and 4-fold

sensitization in SWF to azithromycin (a macrolide), colistin (a polymyxin antimicrobial peptide),

and daptomycin (a lipopeptide), respectively, and an 8-fold increase in rifampicin MIC in SWF

against USA300 (Table 1). These MIC shifts did not cross the CLSI breakpoints for the four

antibiotic classes in USA300 (Table 1). Yet, similar MIC fold shifts in other *S. aureus*

backgrounds that are less susceptible to these antibiotics may alter the predicted antibiotic

susceptibility, warranting future testing in other *S. aureus* lineages. The remaining two antibiotic

classes showing the most significant fold shift in MIC in SWF relative to MHB are tetracyclines

that showed an increase in MIC when tested in SWF (e.g., a 128-fold shift for tetracycline from

0.25 µg/mL in MHB to 32 µg/mL in SWF) and β-lactams that showed a decrease in MIC in SWF

(e.g., a 256-fold shift for cefuroxime from 1024 µg/mL in MHB to 4 µg/mL in SWF, Table 1).

Importantly, the MIC fold shifts crossed the CLSI clinical breakpoint for representatives of these

two classes (Table 1). Together, we chose to focus on these two classes to uncover the

mechanism underlying the observed altered antibiotic susceptibility under the wound-mimetic

condition.

Tetracycline antibiotics inhibit protein synthesis by binding to the 30S ribosome subunit

[34]. Doxycycline is a second-generation tetracycline that showed a 32-fold increase in MIC

against USA300 from 0.125 µg/mL in MHB to 4 µg/mL in SWF (Table 1). In addition, we

assessed the third-generation tetracycline, omadacycline, and found that its MIC against USA300

doubled in SWF relative to MHB (Table 1). These results demonstrate that the increased

resistance in SWF is conserved across the three generations of tetracyclines. Doxycycline is

more clinically relevant than tetracycline for treating MRSA skin and soft tissue infections

(SSTIs) [35]; therefore, we used it as a representative of this class in the remainder of this study. On

the other hand, cefuroxime is a β-lactam antibiotic that binds to penicillin-binding protein 2,

inhibiting bacterial cell wall synthesis [36]. Oxacillin, another β-lactam, is used by CLSI to

distinguish MRSA from methicillin-sensitive *S. aureus* (MSSA) [18]; it showed a 64-fold decrease

in MIC against USA300 in SWF (from 64 µg/mL in MHB to 1 µg/mL in SWF), bringing the

MIC below the CLSI MRSA breakpoint (Table 1). We initially tested both β-lactams and then

focused on cefuroxime for subsequent mechanistic testing.

To determine how conserved the doxycycline and β-lactam susceptibility alterations in

SWF are across multiple MRSA strains, we determined the MICs of antibiotics against a panel of

isolates representing the most commonly circulating lineages of MRSA in Canada [CMRSA

strains [37]] in both MHB and SWF. All CMRSA strains showed increased resistance ($\geq$ 8-fold

shift in MIC) to doxycycline when tested in SWF relative to MHB (Table 2). All CMRSA strains

exhibited increased sensitivity to both β-lactams in SWF, except for CMRSA 1 and CMRSA 4,

with MIC shifts in CMRSA 5, 7, 8, and 10 crossing the CLSI breakpoint for one or both

antibiotics (Table 2). Given the magnitude of antibiotic susceptibility alterations conserved

across strains from multiple MRSA lineages, we next sought to determine the mechanisms of

doxycycline and cefuroxime susceptibility alterations in the wound-mimetic medium in MRSA

using USA300 as a representative being one of the most common community-associated MRSA

strains.

**A chemogenomic screen to uncover the mechanism of increased resistance to doxycycline in**

**SWF.**

To investigate the increased resistance of USA300 to doxycycline when cultured in SWF,

we screened the Nebraska Transposon Mutant Library (NTML), a sequence-defined transposon

insertion library comprising 1920 mutants that cover the non-essential genome of USA300 [38], at

supra-inhibitory (in MHB) and sub-inhibitory (in SWF) concentrations of doxycycline. The

NTML supra-inhibitory screen in MHB (at 1 µg/mL doxycycline, 8X the MIC in MHB), which

aimed to identify putative sensitivity determinants, and follow-up dose-response assays did not

reveal any mutants more resistant to doxycycline in MHB relative to the wild-type (Fig. S1A-C).

On the other hand, the NTML sub-inhibitory screen in SWF (at 0.125 µg/mL doxycycline, 1/32$^{nd}$

the MIC in SWF), which aimed to identify putative determinants of doxycycline resistance, and

follow-up MIC assays revealed that *mntB*::Tn and *mntC*::Tn were sensitive to doxycycline in

SWF relative to USA300 (Fig. 1A-C and Fig. S2). To verify the observed phenotypes, we

genetically complemented *mntB* and *mntC* in their transposon mutants. While *mntC*

complementation restored doxycycline resistance of *mntC*::Tn, *mntB* alone was not sufficient to

restore doxycycline resistance in *mntB*::Tn, but rather both *mntB* and *mntC* were required (Fig.

S3A-C). As such, the *mntB*::Tn phenotype may be due to polar effects from the transposon

insertion into *mntB,* disrupting the downstream *mntC* (Fig. S3C). Together, this work identifies

MntC as the determinant of increased doxycycline resistance in the wound-like medium.

**MntC increases doxycycline resistance in wound-like medium.**

176           Next, we set out to determine the mechanism by which MntC increases doxycycline

resistance in SWF. MntABC, an ABC transporter that imports manganese, is comprised of an

ATP-binding protein (MntA), a transmembrane protein (MntB), and an extracellular binding

protein (MntC) [39]; therefore, we initially hypothesized that manganese or other divalent cations

imported by MntC contributed to the increased resistance to doxycycline. However, exogenously

supplementing manganese, calcium, magnesium, cobalt, iron, copper, and zinc, in dose-

dependent checkerboard assays with doxycycline against wild-type USA300 and *mntC*::Tn in

MHB did not alter the susceptibility to doxycycline except for iron, which showed antagonism in

both strains suggesting the observed iron effect is MntC-independent (Fig. S4). Conversely,

higher concentrations of manganese antagonized doxycycline in SWF both in the wild-type and

the *mntC* mutant (FICI = 6.75 and 32.5, respectively; Fig. S5). Such effect might be due to

compensation of the sequestration of manganese in SWF due to chelators, such as calprotectin,

likely present in fetal bovine serum. Together, manganese and other divalent cations appear to

play no role in the MntC-mediated doxycycline resistance observed in SWF.

Next, we hypothesized that MntC sequesters doxycycline, lowering its intracellular

concentration, thereby increasing resistance to that antibiotic in bacteria cultured in SWF. To

address this hypothesis, we first determined the intracellular concentration of doxycycline in

*mntC*::Tn relative to the wild-type cultured in MHB and SWF. In SWF, *mntC*::Tn had a greater

intracellular concentration of doxycycline relative to USA300, whereas both the wild-type and

mutant strains showed similar intracellular doxycycline content in MHB (Fig. 1D), aligning with

our previous results showing a SWF-specific role of MntC in doxycycline resistance and

supporting our hypothesis of a potential sequestration of doxycycline by MntC. Next, we

assessed the ability of purified recombinant MntC to bind doxycycline using a fluorescent

binding assay conducted in HEPES buffer in which doxycycline fluorescence increased upon

binding to a ligand. Using bovine serum albumin and lysozyme as positive [40] and negative

controls, respectively, in this assay, we revealed that MntC binds doxycycline (Fig. 1E), which

likely reduces its intracellular concentration (Fig. 1D). Given that such a binding interaction does

not require any component of SWF, as it occurred in HEPES buffer, we posited that MntC-

mediated increased doxycycline resistance occurs in SWF only due to an upregulation of *mntC*

under wound-like conditions. Hence, we assessed the transcriptional differences in *mntC* using

qRT-PCR. We revealed that *mntC* was upregulated by ~20-fold in wild-type USA300 cultured in

SWF relative to MHB, irrespective of doxycycline treatment (Fig. 1F), demonstrating that the

*mntC* upregulation is induced by the wound-like culture condition rather than a specific response

to doxycycline. In fact, doxycycline exposure downregulated *mntC* in USA300 in both SWF and

MHB to a similar extent (~4-fold; Fig. S6). In summary, the increase in doxycycline resistance in

the wound-like medium is due to an upregulation of *mntC*, whereby the overexpressed MntC can

sequester doxycycline, decreasing its effective intracellular concentration.

**MntC contributes to doxycycline resistance *in vivo* in a *Galleria mellonella* wound infection**

**model.**

Next, we sought to assess whether MntC contributed to doxycycline resistance *in vivo* in

a wound infection model. To that end, we tested the *mntC*::Tn mutant in a *Galleria mellonella*

incision wound infection model. Galleria mounts both cellular and humoral innate immune

responses closely resembling those of vertebrates and thrives at mammalian body temperature

[41,42]. Incision wounds have been histologically characterized in Galleria larvae, showing wound

healing events similar to those in animals [32], and their wound model recapitulates the hallmarks

of trauma and infection observed in mammalian models [33]. Infection with either the wild-type

USA300 or the *mntC*::Tn mutant, both treated with the vehicle control (Glaxal™ Base non-

medicated cream), led to 100% larval fatality by the end of the experiment (at 6 days); however,

we observed a significant increase in survival of larvae infected with *mntC*::Tn relative to

USA300 at day 1 (Fig. 1G), suggesting a role of MntC in virulence. Further, a single dose of

doxycycline treatment (4 µL of 10% w/w cream, i.e., 0.4 mg/incision) increased survival of

*mntC*::Tn-infected larvae to 45% compared to only 7.5% survival in wild-type-infected ones

(Fig. 1G). Together, knocking out *mntC* increased the sensitivity of USA300 to doxycycline *in*

*vivo,* consistent with the *in vitro* SWF phenotype, demonstrating that MntC is a potential target

for doxycycline adjuvant therapy for MRSA wound infections.

**A chemogenomic screen to uncover the mechanism of MRSA susceptibility to β-lactams in SWF.**

To investigate the increased sensitivity of USA300 to cefuroxime in SWF, we screened the NTML in SWF at 16 µg/mL of cefuroxime (4X the wild-type MIC in SWF) to identify susceptibility determinants. However, none of the mutants with greater than 25% relative growth at this supra-inhibitory concentration in SWF showed increased cefuroxime MIC in follow-up MIC assays (Fig. S7A-C). We also screened the NTML in MHB at 128 µg/mL of cefuroxime (1/8th the wild-type MIC in MHB) to identify putative determinants of cefuroxime resistance, revealing 101 mutants with <8% growth at this sub-inhibitory concentration relative to their untreated controls (Fig. 2A-B). We hypothesized that mutants of determinants underlying cefuroxime sensitivity in SWF would be susceptible to cefuroxime in MHB, with no further sensitization in SWF relative to the parent strain. To that end, we tested the 101 mutants in dose-response and MIC assays. Nine mutants showed ~128 to 256-fold sensitization to cefuroxime relative to the parent strain in MHB (i.e., showing MICs similar to or within 2-fold of that of USA300 in SWF) with relatively minimal MIC reduction relative to USA300 (≤4-fold) in SWF, revealing putative primary determinants of this phenotype (Fig. 2C). An additional 12 mutants showed a relatively more modest shift in cefuroxime MIC in MHB, potentially identifying secondary determinants of the phenotype (Fig. S8).

Six of the primary determinants (Fig. 2C) are localized to or involved in cell envelope homeostasis; their gene products are related to peptidoglycan synthesis [*pbp2a* and *pbp4*, encoding penicillin binding proteins (PBPs)], wall teichoic acid [WTA; *tcaA* and *fmtA*], and cell envelope stress response [*graR* and *vraF,* encoding members of the GraXSR-VraFG five-component response system] [43-47]. Interestingly, some of the secondary determinants (Fig. S8)

are involved in similar processes [MurA2, predicted to be involved in biosynthesis and

degradation of peptidoglycan; RsbU and RsbV, involved in the regulatory cascade of the master

transcriptional regulator $\sigma^B$ that provides protection from stress and influences cell envelope

composition [48]] or localize at the membrane [SAUSA300_2297, SAUSA300_0073,

SAUSA300_1785, SAUSA300_1484, SAUSA300_2315, and SpsA; predictions from [49]]. The

genes encoding the remaining three primary determinants are SAUSA300_0794 (encodes a

TOPRIM domain-containing protein previously shown to be hypersensitive to the β-lactam

amoxicillin [50]), *aapA* (encodes a D-serine/D-alanine/glycine transporter), and *yabJ* (encodes a

putative endo-RNase L-PSP). Importantly, most of the primary cell envelope-related

determinants (Fig. 2C) are genetically interconnected as shown in synthetic lethal interaction

analyses [51]. Given that most mutants identified above harbour disruptions related to the cell

envelope, which also comprises the β-lactam target (peptidoglycan), we then set out to

characterize the primary cell envelope-related determinants and assess their implications for the

unexpected β-lactam hypersensitivity of the MRSA USA300 in the wound-like medium.

**Decreased abundance of penicillin-binding proteins (PBPs) contributes to cefuroxime**

**susceptibility in SWF.**

First, we investigated the potential role of alterations in PBPs in the SWF-specific

cefuroxime susceptibility phenotype, especially given that PBPs are the main targets of β-

lactams and that the primary resistance mechanism of MRSA is the low-affinity alternative

PBP2a encoded by *pbp2a* or *mecA* [52]. Based on *pbp2a*::Tn and *pbp4*::Tn cefuroxime

susceptibility phenotypes (Fig. 2C), we hypothesized that USA300 cultured in SWF would have

decreased abundance of these PBPs. To directly assess the abundance of PBPs in USA300, we

isolated membrane fractions from cultures grown in MHB and SWF and then used a fluorescent

penicillin (BOCILLIN™ FL) to bind and detect PBPs resolved on SDS-PAGE. Quantification of

band density identified a ~25, ~21, and ~55 percent reduction in the relative abundance of PBP1,

2, and 4, respectively, in SWF compared to MHB (Fig. 3A, Fig. S9A, B). Notably, PBP1 and

PBP2 are essential genes and therefore are not in the NTML [46]. Also, BOCILLIN™ FL labels all

PBPs except PBP2a due to its decreased affinity for penicillin. Therefore, we assessed PBP2a

abundance by Western blot using an anti-PBP2a-specific antibody [53], revealing a ~20 percent

decrease in the relative abundance of PBP2a in USA300 cultured in SWF relative to MHB (Fig.

3B, Fig. S9C, D). Together, the decreased abundance of the four PBPs (1, 2, 2a, and 4) in SWF is

likely a major contributor to the decreased β-lactam susceptibility of USA300 under the wound-

like condition.

**Wall teichoic acid alterations contribute to USA300 sensitivity to cefuroxime in SWF.**

Next, we sought to evaluate changes in WTA, which plays a role in the coordination of

peptidoglycan synthesis and β-lactam resistance [54,55]. First, we sought to test *tarO,* which

encodes a *N*-acetylglucosamine-1-phosphate transferase, the first committed step in WTA

production [56]. A *tarO* knockout is not within the NTML, and thus was not tested in our screen. A

CMRSA10Δ*tarO* was ≥256-fold more susceptible to cefuroxime in MHB but only ~4-fold more

susceptible to the β-lactam in SWF relative to the wildtype (Fig. 3C), mirroring the phenotype of

the primary determinants identified above (Fig. 2C). We then used targocil, an inhibitor of the

WTA flippase TarG [57], to determine if culturing in SWF disrupts TarO or WTA biosynthesis.

While targocil is lethal, knocking out genes encoding early steps in the WTA synthesis pathway

(*tarO* and *tarA*) or inhibiting their products, which completely block WTA biosynthesis,

antagonizes targocil [58]. We observed an ~8-fold increase in targocil MIC against wildtype

USA300 when tested in SWF relative to MHB, raising the MIC up to 32 µg/mL (Fig. 3C). In

comparison, the targocil MIC against the Δ*tarO* mutant was >64 µg/mL in both media (Fig. 3C),

which together suggests that WTA biosynthesis is at least partially disrupted in SWF.

TarO inhibition has been associated with the delocalization of PBP2, leading to increased

β-lactam sensitivity [59]. Epicatechin gallate (ECg) induces partial delocalization of PBP2 from the

division septum, mimicking the effects of TarO inhibition [59]. As expected, ECg synergized with

cefuroxime against the wild-type USA300 in MHB (FICI = 0.023 ± 0.005; Fig. 3D). However,

such synergy was lost when we tested the same combination in SWF (FICI = 2.2 ± 0.2; Fig. 3D),

suggesting PBP2 was already delocalized, potentially due to WTA biosynthesis disruption, under

the wound-like condition.

Next, we directly evaluated the abundance of WTA in SWF and MHB (Fig. 3E-G, Fig.

S10A). We tested both the wild-type USA300 strain and the *tcaA*::Tn mutant identified from the

screen (Fig. 2), as *tcaA* encodes a teicoplanin resistance-associated protein involved in WTA

retention and robustness of *S. aureus* peptidoglycan crosslinking [43]. USA300 cultured in SWF

showed a significant decrease in WTA abundance relative to MHB (Fig. 3E, F). The WTA

abundance of the wild-type grown in SWF was comparable to that observed in the *tcaA*::Tn

mutant cultured in MHB or SWF (Fig. 3E; no significant difference across these three

conditions). Notably, the WTA bands from the wild-type cultured in SWF migrated slightly

further on the PAGE relative to those from an MHB culture (Fig. 3F, G), suggesting a shorter

WTA polymer. However, the shorter polymer length was not associated with TcaA, as the same

occurred in the *tcaA*::Tn mutant (Fig. 3F, G).

WTA, its influence on PBP localization, and gene products associated with that polymer,

such as FmtA (a teichoic acid D-Ala esterase) and TcaA, are involved in the structural integrity

of the cell envelope, which can alter the bacterial autolysis [43,44,60]. Therefore, we assessed the

0.02% Triton X-100-induced lysis of USA300, relative to knockouts of *fmtA* and *tcaA,* in MHB

and SWF. Wild-type USA300 cells harvested from SWF cultures showed significantly faster

Triton-induced lysis rates relative to those from MHB cultures (Fig. 3H, I, Fig. S10B-D). There

was no further increase in lysis rates in SWF due to disrupting *tcaA* and *fmtA,* where both

mutants showed no statistical difference in lysis rate compared to the wild-type cultured in SWF

(Fig. 3H, I, Fig. S10B-D), suggesting WTA-associated gene products may have already been

disrupted in SWF. In all cases, these observations are consistent with the alterations in WTA and

PBP localization observed in SWF.

Next, we indirectly assessed cell surface charge, which is partly influenced by WTA

retention, by quantifying binding to cytochrome c, a highly positively charged protein. A

decreased abundance of WTA, a polyribitol phosphate polymer that generally imparts a strong

negative charge to the surface [61], should reduce the overall net negative charge of the cell

surface. USA300 cultured in SWF showed a significant decrease in binding to cytochrome c

compared with MHB (Fig. 3J). We observed a decrease in relative cytochrome c binding to

*tcaA*::Tn compared to that of USA300, but no difference in cytochrome c binding between

*tcaA*::Tn cultured in MHB and SWF (Fig. 3J). These results align with the respective relative

WTA abundance (Fig. 3E). Of note, other factors can also influence surface charge, such as

MprF, a phosphatidylglycerol lysyltransferase, which decreases the net negative charge of the

cell surface through lysyl modification of the cytoplasmic membrane, conferring resistance to

cationic antimicrobials [62]. While the cytochrome c binding of *mprF::Tn* in SWF relative to MHB

followed the same trend observed for the wild-type strain, the lack of such modification in

*mprF*::Tn increased the binding to cytochrome c relative to wild-type USA300 in each of the

tested media, as expected (Fig. 3J). Taken together, the results in this section demonstrate WTA-

related alterations that may contribute to the increased β-lactam susceptibility of the MRSA

USA300 in the wound-mimetic medium.

**A lack of antibiotic-mediated induction of the GraXSR VraFG system in SWF.**

GraXSR VraFG is a five-component system that regulates the bacterial response to cell

envelope stress, such as exposure to cationic antimicrobial peptides, through processes that

include the DltABCD-mediated D-alanylation of teichoic acids and the MprF-dependent

lysylination of phosphatidylglycerol [63]. Notably, disruptions of GraR sensitize MRSA to β-

lactams [58]. *mprF* is positively regulated by GraXSR, and the system is strongly induced by

colistin, a cationic antimicrobial peptide [58].  Hence, we assessed the colistin-mediated induction

of the GraXSR VraFG system in SWF compared to tryptic soy broth (TSB), a standard culture

medium, by monitoring luciferase reporter expression under the control of the *mprF* promoter.

As previously reported [58], we observed a colistin-mediated *graR*-dependent induction of the

*mprF* promoter in TSB, where there was a significant increase in luciferase signal in the presence

of colistin in the wild-type (Fig. 4A) but not in the Δ*graR* mutant (Fig. S11A-C). Such colistin-

mediated *mprF* promoter induction was not observed in SWF (Fig. 4A); instead, a significant

*graR*-independent repression of the *mprF* promoter at 3 hours by colistin was observed in both

the wild-type (Fig. 4A) and the Δ*graR* mutant (Fig. S11D-F). To further assess the role of the

GraXSR VraFG system in antibiotic response in SWF, we used MAC-545496, a GraR inhibitor

previously shown to synergize with β-lactams in MHB [58]. As expected, we observed a *graR*-

dependent synergy between MAC-545496 and cefuroxime against USA300 in MHB (FICI =

$0.036 \pm 0.014$; Fig. 4B; not observed against *graR*::Tn, FICI = $1.04 \pm 0.47$; Fig. S12). Such

synergy was lost in SWF (FICI = $2.0 \pm 0.0$; Fig. 4B). Together, the lack of *mprF* promoter

induction by colistin and loss of MAC-545496-cefuroxime synergy in SWF illustrate the lack of

stress-mediated induction of GraR and its regulon, and hence the disruption of the GraXSR

VraFG cell envelope stress response system, in the simulated wound fluid. Notably, such

alteration in cell envelope stress response (Fig. 4) along with changes in cell envelope structures

(the decreased abundance of several penicillin-binding proteins and wall teichoic acid; Fig. 3) of

the MRSA USA300 under wound-like conditions can collectively result in the β-lactam

sensitivity of MRSA in SWF (See Discussion Section and Fig. 7B).

**Ultrastructural, biochemical, and mechanical changes to USA300 grown in SWF.**

Next, we further assessed the cell and its envelope using atomic force microscopy (AFM)

to compare cell size, surface topography, roughness, elasticity, and adhesion. We observed a

significant increase in cell size (height and diameter) and surface roughness of USA300 cultured

in SWF relative to that cultured in MHB (Fig. 5A-H, Fig. S13, 14). The surface of USA300 cells

harvested from SWF culture was more compliant relative to those from MHB, requiring less

force to deform (Fig. 5I). Adhesion values between the negatively charged silicon nitride AFM

tip and the cell surface were greater for USA300 cells cultured in SWF relative to MHB (Fig.

5J), consistent with the cytochrome c binding assays showing that USA300 cultured in SWF are

less negative than those in MHB (Fig. 3J). Together, these results provide further evidence for

cell envelope-related alterations in simulated wound fluid, which underpins the increased β-

lactam susceptibility.

**Cefuroxime rescues USA300-infected Galleria larvae.**

Next, we sought to determine the efficacy of cefuroxime against USA300 in an *in vivo G. mellonella* incision wound infection model. Infection with wild-type USA300 treated with the vehicle control (Glaxal[TM] base non-medicated cream), led to only 10% and 2.5% larval survival by days 3 and 6 post-infection, respectively (Fig.6). In contrast, a single dose cefuroxime treatment (4 µL of 40% w/w cream, i.e., 1.6 mg/incision) significantly increased the survival of USA300-infected larvae to ~75% and 45% at the same timepoints post-infection (p<0.0001; Fig. 6). Together, the efficacy of cefuroxime against USA300 *in vivo* aligns with the *in vitro* susceptibility to that β-lactam antibiotic in SWF, demonstrating that this wound exudate-mimetic medium may be superior to MHB for predicting clinical outcomes of MRSA wound infections.

**Discussion**

Standard MHB-based AST assays have been widely used worldwide to guide antimicrobial therapy and study antimicrobial resistance. However, MHB does not accurately reflect the conditions at the site of infection [64], and the clinical outcome often does not correlate with standard AST results [19-21]. Further, antibiotic discovery has traditionally relied on standard AST conditions, partly because of regulatory requirements to demonstrate efficacy under such conditions for approval [65], which has likely limited the suite of potential antimicrobial targets and bioactives. Therefore, there are emerging efforts to study bacterial responses and screen for new antimicrobials under infection-relevant conditions to bridge the gap between *in vitro* testing and *in vivo* outcomes [E.g., [43,66-70]]. Herein, we studied the antibiotic responses of MRSA under wound-infection-mimetic conditions, revealing ~67% discordance in AST results between simulated wound fluid and MHB. Similar discordances were observed in analyses using serum-containing and other eukaryotic cell culture media (e.g., RPMI) [71,72]. We then sought to elucidate

the mechanisms underlying the two most significant antibiotic susceptibility alterations in the

MRSA USA300 strain in terms of fold-shift and potential clinical relevance, the unexpected

resistance to tetracyclines and sensitization to β-lactams in SWF.

We revealed that the unexpected increase in resistance to first-, second-, and third-

generation tetracyclines under wound-like conditions is mediated by MntC (Fig. 7A). MntC has

not been previously known to confer tetracycline resistance, a role overlooked in standard culture

conditions but detected in SWF. We observed an upregulation of *mntC* in SWF relative to MHB,

independent of tetracycline exposure, suggesting MntC expression is induced by the culture

condition rather than the antibiotic. Interestingly, the observed unexpected resistance to

tetracyclines appears to corroborate reports of therapeutic failures with tigecycline (a tetracycline

derivative) in soft-tissue, bloodstream, and other infections despite predicted efficacy [73,74]. Also,

the upregulation of *mntC*, which is highly conserved among *S. aureus*, in the serum-based SWF

aligns with observations from *in vivo* studies and patient samples [75-78]. MntC was only expressed

*in vivo* or in the presence of serum, and rapidly upregulated in *S. aureus* murine infection [75,76].

Anti-MntC antibodies protected against *S. aureus* in an infant rat model, and MntC could induce

a protective immune response; hence, it was identified as a potential vaccine target [75,76]. *mntC*

(also referred to as *sitA*) had increased transcription in three healthy persistently colonized

volunteers relative to *in vitro* conditions [77] and ranked among the first quartile of upregulated

genes in pediatric skin and soft tissue infection (SSTI) and murine SSTI abscesses [78]. As such,

unexpected clinical failures of tetracyclines against MRSA may occur due to MntC

overexpression *in vivo*. These observations, along with the increased survival of *mntC*::Tn-

wound infected Galleria larvae, relative to wild-type, upon treatment with doxycycline (Fig. 1G),

support that MntC could serve as an *in vivo*, clinically relevant drug target for new antibiotic

adjuvants for tetracyclines. Interestingly, infection with an *mntC* knockout increased animal

survival in a murine sepsis model, which was attributed to an increased susceptibility of the

mutant to oxidative stress [79], aligning with the increased larval survival at day 1 post-infection

with *mntC*::Tn relative to USA300 without treatment (Fig. 1G). These observations suggest that

MntC may also serve as a target for stand-alone anti-virulence therapy.

MRSA are characterized by their resistance to β-lactam antibiotics. As such, the

significant sensitization of tested MRSA strains from widely circulating lineages to

representative β-lactams in the simulated wound fluid is counterintuitive but suggests that β-

lactams may be a viable therapy for MRSA wound infections. *In vivo* results from the Galleria

incision wound infection model aligned with the *in vitro* data, whereby the β-lactam cefuroxime

improved the survival of MRSA USA300-infected larvae (Fig. 6). Interestingly, an observational

study of 2096 pediatric skin and soft tissue infection patients at a community-acquired MRSA-

endemic region in Philadelphia reported a therapeutic success of empiric β-lactam monotherapy

comparable or even superior to that of MRSA-active antibiotics [80], suggesting that β-lactams

likely cleared at least some MRSA infections, a regimen that standard AST would have

contraindicated. Further, other recent reports have shown that adding β-lactams to the empirical

therapy regimen improved bacterial clearance in MRSA bacteremia [81-84]. Mechanistically, we

revealed that cell envelope remodelling of the MRSA USA300 under wound-like conditions,

involving a decreased abundance of penicillin binding proteins PBP1, 2, 2a, 4 and wall teichoic

acid, along with a lack of antibiotic-mediated GraXSR VraFG induction (Fig. 7B), underpins the

sensitivity of MRSA to β-lactams in SWF. Notably, various cell envelope changes were

previously reported for *S. aureus* cultured in serum-containing media, altering responses to cell

wall-targeting and membrane-active antibiotics [43,66]. Together, our results and previous

observations suggest that MHB-based AST may erroneously exclude β-lactams from therapeutic

regimens, and that the wound exudate-like medium may be better than MHB at predicting β-

lactam antibiotic efficacy. β-lactams are broad-spectrum, well-tolerated antibiotics that offer oral

options [85]; hence, accurately predicting their potency and recommending their use when possible

would be valuable in the clinic.

Overall, host-mimetic media, such as SWF, may better predict bacterial resistance and

correlate more closely with positive clinical outcomes. Uncovering antimicrobial susceptibility

profiles discordant between infection-relevant (e.g., SWF) and standard (e.g., MHB) culture

media may enhance our understanding of antibiotic therapeutic responses during infection. By

revealing the mechanisms underlying the discordant phenotypes, we identified MntC as a

potential target for new antimicrobials that may reverse resistance to currently available

tetracycline antibiotics or suppress virulence *in vivo*. The phenotypes uncovered herein provide

an *in vitro* screening platform in SWF for therapeutics targeting MntC. Notably, we have recently

uncovered several natural bioactives that target MRSA planktonic and biofilm cells in simulated

wound fluid, but not in standard media[86], providing proof of concept for adjuvant discovery in

SWF. Our AST results in the wound-like medium could also guide and optimize the use of

currently available antibiotics.

**Limitations of the study:**

The *in vitro* AST and mechanistic studies under wound infection-mimetic conditions were

conducted in the FBS-containing SWF[24], which, while more representative of the wound

exudates than MHB, may still miss some host-relevant components, some of which may be

patient-specific, and lack the dynamic changes in composition and concentration that occur

throughout the phases of wound healing. Importantly, wound exudates may vary in appearance

and composition based on the etiology and specific conditions of the wound[25,87]. Hence, future

testing in other simulated wound fluids[88,89] with relatively minor compositional differences,

potentially reflecting variations across patient groups and healing phases, may be complementary

to this work. Additionally, the specific cues in SWF, representing potential host factors at wound

sites (such as extracellular matrix and coagulation cascade components, including fibronectin,

plasminogen, and fibrinogen that also bind to MntC[90], metal ion availability, or other factors),

and bacterial signalling pathways linking wound exudate microenvironmental exposure to

cellular responses, including MntC upregulation and the coordinated cell envelope remodelling,

are yet to be characterized, requiring further elucidation. Further, neither the *mntC*::Tn mutant

nor the *mntB*::Tn mutant, with both *mntB* and *mntC* disrupted (Fig. S3C), fully accounted for the

doxycycline MIC fold shift between MHB and SWF (Fig. 1A); a component of SWF inhibiting

tetracyclines may have contributed to the unaccounted-for ~2-fold increase in doxycycline MIC.

The most significant antibiotic susceptibility phenotypes and the role of MntC in resistance to

tetracyclines were tested *in vivo* in *G. mellonella*. While Galleria larvae mount both cellular and

humoral innate immune responses closely resembling those of vertebrates [41,42] and their wound

model recapitulates the hallmarks of trauma and infection observed in mammalian models [32,33],

their immune system and surface tissues still differ from those of mammals. Thus, future studies

should validate these Galleria results in *ex vivo* human skin and *in vivo* mammalian wound

infection models.

**Resource availability:**

**Lead contact**

•   Further inquiries and requests should be directed to the lead contact, Omar El-Halfawy

(omar.el-halfawy@uregina.ca).

**Materials availability**

•   All reagents will be available upon request to the lead contact.

**Data and code availability**

•   All data reported in this study are available in the Main and Supplemental Tables and

Figures included in this publication.

•   This paper does not report original code.

•   Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this paper is

available from the lead contact upon request.

**Acknowledgements**:

This work was funded by a New Frontiers in Research Funds exploration grant (NFRFE-2021-

00398), a Saskatchewan Health Research Foundation establishment grant (6115), a Canadian

Institutes of Health Research grant (202403PPE-522800), Canada Foundation for Innovation and

Innovation Saskatchewan grants, and start-up funds from the Faculty of Science at the University

of Regina to O.M.E. O.M.E. holds a Canada Research Chair in Chemogenomics and

Antimicrobial Research (CRC-2024-00304). C.D.R. was supported by a Canadian Institutes of

Health Research Canada Graduate Scholarship – Master's (CGS-M) award. Work in the T.E.S.D.

laboratory was supported by Natural Science and Engineering Research Council (NSERC DG

2024-06684) and Canada Foundation for Innovation grants to T.E.S.D. The Faculty of Graduate

Studies and Research at the University of Regina provided partial support to A.M.

**Author contributions:**

Conceptualization: C.D.R., and O.M.E.; Formal analysis: C.D.R., and O.M.E.; Funding

acquisition: O.M.E.; Investigation: C.D.R. and A.M.; Methodology: C.D.R., A.M., T.E.S.D., and

O.M.E.; Project administration: O.M.E.; Resources: T.E.S.D. and O.M.E.; Supervision: T.E.S.D.

and O.M.E.; Writing – original draft: C.D.R., and O.M.E.; Writing – review & editing: C.D.R.,

A.M., T.E.S.D., and O.M.E.

**Declaration of interests:**

The authors declare no competing interests.

**Supplemental information**

Document S1. Tables S1 and S2, Figures S1-S14, and supplemental references.

**Figure**

**Fig. 1 | MntC increases USA300 resistance to doxycycline in SWF**

A) A chemogenomic screen of the Nebraska Transposon Mutant Library with doxycycline at

$1/32^{th}$ the MIC in SWF. B) Workflow of the chemogenomic screen and follow-up assays that lead

to the putative determinants of doxycycline resistance. C) MIC assays of determinants of

USA300 doxycycline resistance in SWF. n = 9 from three independent experiments, shown as

mean ± SEM. D) Intracellular fluorescence of doxycycline relative fluorescent units

(RLU)/$OD_{600}$ in USA300 and *mntC*::Tn cultured in MHB (blue) or SWF (red). n = 20 from 4

independent experiments. E) Doxycycline binding assay in HEPES buffer showing increased

background-subtracted RFU upon doxycycline binding with the ligands bovine serum albumin

(positive control), MntC, and lysozyme (negative control). n = 12. F) Fold change in *mntC*

transcription from USA300 in SWF and MHB with or without doxycycline (relative to averaged

signals in MHB). n = 9 from three independent experiments. G) Kaplan-Meier survival curve of

*G. mellonella* treated with doxycycline or vehicle control, shown as mean $\pm$ SE. n = 40 from 4

independent experiments. H) MIC assays of omadacycline against USA300 and *mntC*::Tn

cultured in SWF and MHB. n = 6 from three independent experiments, shown as mean $\pm$ SEM.

Significant difference were determined between USA300 cultured in MHB and SWF for D, E, F

by Welch's t-test, and in G (I; USA300 and USA300 Dox), (II; *mntC*::Tn and *mntC*::Tn Dox) and

(III; *mntC*::Tn Dox and PBS) by Logrank (Mantel-Cox) test and (IV; *mntC*::Tn and USA300) at

day 1 by two-way ANOVA and the Tukey post hoc test. $p < 0.0001$ (****), $p < 0.001$ (***), p

$< 0.01$ (**), $p < 0.05$ (*).

**Fig. 2 | A chemogenomic screen identifies putative determinants of USA300 sensitivity to cefuroxime in SWF.**

A) The workflow of the chemogenomic screen and follow-up assays that led to the identification of putative determinants of cefuroxime sensitivity. B) A chemogenomic screen of the Nebraska Transposon Mutant Library with cefuroxime at $1/8^{th}$ MIC of the wild-type strain in MHB. C) MIC assays of putative determinants uncovered in the screen; $n \geq 6$ from at least three independent experiments shown as mean $\pm$ SEM.

**Fig. 3 | Decrease in the abundance of PBPs and wall teichoic acid in SWF contributes to**

**USA300 cefuroxime sensitivity.**

A) Quantification of PBP1, 2, 3, 4 from USA300 cultured in SWF (red) relative to MHB (blue),

n = 4 from two independent membrane isolations, shown as mean ± SEM and one representative

BOCILLIN FL-labeled gel. All uncropped gels are shown in Fig. S9B) PBP2a quantification

from Western blots, using an anti-PBP2a antibody, of membranes isolated from USA300 cultured

in SWF (red) relative to MHB (blue), n = 3 from three independent membrane isolations, shown

as mean $\pm$ SEM and one representative blot. All uncropped blots are shown in Fig. S9C) MIC of

cefuroxime and targocil against USA300 or CMRSA10$\Delta$tarO cultured in MHB or SWF, n = 5

biological replicates each performed in triplicate. D) Representative checkerboard assays of *S.*

*aureus* USA300 of cefuroxime in combination with epicatechin gallate (ECg). n = 5. FICI shown

as mean $\pm$ SEM. E) Relative quantity of PAGE-resolved crude WTA from *S. aureus* USA300 or

*tcaA*::Tn cultured in MHB or SWF. n = 3 shown as mean $\pm$ SEM. F) Representative PAGE gel

of WTA isolated from USA300 or *tcaA*::Tn cultured in MHB or SWF. Uncropped gel is shown in

Fig. S10G) Relative band migration of WTA on PAGE represented as mean pixel density. n = 3

from three independent WTA isolations. H-I) Area under the curve (AUC) of lysis rates

represented as PBS AUC – 0.02% Triton AUC comparing lysis rates of USA300 and *tcaA*::Tn

(H; n=4) and *fmtA*::Tn (I; n=2) cultured from MHB or SWF. Shown as mean $\pm$ SEM. Full lysis

curves and AUC calculation are shown in Fig. S10J) Percent cytochrome c binding to USA300

or mutants cultured in MHB or SWF, which infers relative cell charge. n = 15 or n = 13 for

*mprF*::Tn SWF from 5 independent experiments, shown as mean $\pm$ SEM. Significant differences

were determined by Welch's t-test (A and B) and one-way ANOVA and the Tukey post hoc test

(E, H, I, and J). $p < 0.0001$ (****), $p < 0.001$ (***), $p < 0.01$ (**), and $p < 0.05$ (*).

**Fig. 4 | Disruption of GraXSR VraFG in SWF contributes to cefuroxime sensitivity.**

A) Monitoring the luciferase expression under the control of the *mprF* promoter in USA300 over

10 h in TSB (Blue) or SWF (Red) in the presence or absence of 1/32 MIC of colistin. n = 4

shown as mean $\pm$ SEM. Significant differences were determined between the with and without

colistin conditions by two-way ANOVA and the Bonferroni post hoc test. $p < 0.0001$ (****), p

$< 0.001$ (***), $p < 0.01$ (**), $p < 0.05$ (*). B) Representative cefuroxime and MAC-545496

checkerboard assays against *S. aureus* USA300. Dark blue represents high cell density, measured

by $OD_{600}$, n = 3, FICI shown as mean $\pm$ SEM.

**Fig. 5 | Atomic force microscopy of USA300 cultured in MHB and SWF**

A) A schematic diagram of the AFM probe, B-E) Representative images (B, D) and 3D images of

cell surface topography (C, E) of USA300 cultured in MHB (B, C) and SWF (D, E). All AFM

images used for quantitative analyses are shown in Fig. S13 and S14F) Cell height of USA300

cultured in MHB and SWF. G) Cell diameter of USA300 cultured in MHB and SWF. H) Root

mean squared (RMS) roughness of the flattest 100 nm x 100 nm region from a 0.4 x 0.4 μm scan

area. I-J) Viscoelasticity and adhesion of USA300 cultured in MHB n = 91079 and SWF n =

118114. Significant differences between USA300 cultured in MHB and SWF were determined

by Welch's t-test. $p < 0.0001$ (****), $p < 0.001$ (***), $p < 0.01$ (**), $p < 0.05$ (*).

**Fig. 6 | Cefuroxime increases larval survival *in vivo Galleria* wound infection.**

628 Kaplan-Meier survival curve of larvae shown as mean ± SE. PBS with vehicle treatment (blue),

629 infection with USA300 and vehicle treatment (red), and infection with USA300 and cefuroxime

630 treatment (black), n = 40 from 4 independent experiments. Significant differences were

631 determined between (I; PBS and USA300 Cef) and (II; USA300 and USA300 Cef) by the

632 Logrank (Mantel-Cox) test. p <0.0001 (****), p <0.001 (***), p <0.01 (**), p <0.05 (*).

**Fig. 7 | Summary of mechanisms underlying the altered susceptibility of MRSA USA300 to**

**tetracyclines and β-lactams under wound infection-like conditions.**

A) Summary of alterations in USA300 that led to increased resistance to tetracyclines when

cultured in SWF, depicting an increase in expression of MntC, which binds to doxycycline (a

tetracycline), reducing its intracellular concentration. B) Summary of cell envelope-related

remodelling in USA300 that increased susceptibility to β-lactams when cultured in SWF,

displaying decreased abundance of penicillin binding proteins PBP1, 2, 2a, 4 and wall teichoic

acid, along with a lack of the antimicrobial peptide colistin-mediated GraXSR VraFG induction.

Created using Biorender.

## Tables

**Table 1. USA300 MIC assays conducted in SWF relative to those in MHB**

MICs from at least three independent experiments.

| Antibiotic class | Antibiotic | MIC, µg/mL | | Fold shift* | CLSI breakpoint, µg/mL | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | MHB | SWF | | R, ≥ | S, ≤ | Ref |
| Lipopeptides | Daptomycin | 4 | 1 | 4 ↓ | - | 1 | [91] |
| Fluoroquinolones | Ciprofloxacin | 32 | 16 | 2 ↓ | 4 | 1 | [91] |
| Glycopeptides | Vancomycin | 2 | 1 | 2 ↓ | 16 | 2 | [91] |
| Rifampins | Rifampicin | 0.008 | 0.064 | 8 ↑ | 4 | 1 | [91] |
| β-lactams | Cefuroxime | 1024 | 4 | 256 ↓ | 32 | 8 | [92] |
| | Oxacillin | 64 | 1 | 64 ↓ | 4 | 2 | [91] |
| Polymyxins | Colistin | 512 | 32 | 16 ↓ | | | |
| Tetracyclines | Tetracycline | 0.25 | 32 | 128 ↑ | 16 | 4 | [91] |
| | Doxycycline | 0.125 | 4 | 32 ↑ | 16 | 4 | [91] |
| | Omadacycline | 0.25 | 0.5 | 2 ↑ | | | |
| Macrolides | Azithromycin | 2 | 0.0156 | 128 ↓ | 8 | 2 | [91] |
| Aminoglycosides | Kanamycin | 4 | 4 | No shift | 64 | 16 | [18] |

* Fold increase or decrease in SWF relative to MHB.

**Table 2. MIC of cefuroxime, oxacillin, and doxycycline against isolates representing the most commonly circulating lineages of MRSA in Canada.** MICs average of three independent experiments.

| Strain | Lineage | MIC in MHB (µg/mL) | | | MIC in SWF (µg/mL) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | cefuroxime | oxacillin | doxycycline | cefuroxime | oxacillin | doxycycline |
| CMRSA 1 | USA600 | >2048 | 1024 | 0.25 | >2048 | 1024 | 2 |
| CMRSA 2 | USA100/800 | >2048 | 512 | 0.25 | 16 | 32 | 4 |
| CMRSA 3 | | >2048 | 512 | 16 | 512 | 256 | >128 |
| CMRSA 4 | USA200 | 2048 | 256 | 0.25 | 2048 | 256 | 4 |
| CMRSA 5 | USA500 | 256 | 32 | 8 | 8 | 1 | >128 |
| CMRSA 6 | | >2048 | 512 | 16 | 1024 | 256 | >128 |
| CMRSA 7 | USA400/MW2 | 1024 | 64 | 0.25 | 8 | 2 | 2 |
| CMRSA 8 | EMRSA15 | 1024 | 64 | 0.25 | 4 | 8 | 2 |
| CMRSA 9 | | 2048 | 256 | 0.25 | 16 | 32 | 4 |
| CMRSA 10 | USA300 | 1024 | 64 | 0.25 | 4 | 2 | 4 |

655 **STAR methods:**

656 **Key resources table**

| REAGENT or RESOURCE | SOURCE | IDENTIFIER |
|---|---|---|
| Antibodies | | |
| Anti-Mouse IgG, peroxidase-linked species-specific whole antibody | Fisher Scientific | Cat#45000679 |
| *Staphylococcus aureus* PBP2a (Methicillin-resistant) Monoclonal antibody (AC10) | Thermo Fisher Scientific | Cat#MAC-46568; RRID: AB_2937640 |
| Bacterial and virus strains | | |
| Refer to Table S1 | This work | N/A |
| Chemicals, peptides, and recombinant proteins | | |
| Daptomycin | Cedarlane | TRC-D193350 |
| Ciprofloxacin | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#17850 |
| Vancomycin | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#V1130 |
| Rifampicin | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#R7382 |
| Cefuroxime | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#C4417 |
| Oxacillin | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#28221 |
| Colistin | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#C4461 |
| Tetracycline | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#T7660 |
| Doxycycline | Fisher Scientific | Cat#D41165G |
| Omadacycline | Cayman Chemical Co. | Cat#24932 |
| Azithromycin | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#PHR1088 |
| Kanamycin | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#K1377 |
| Erythromycin | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#E5389 |
| IPTG | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#16758 |
| cOmplete™ protease inhibitor cocktail | Roche | Cat#11836170001 |
| His-select nickel-affinity gel | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#P6611 |
| Bovine serum albumin | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#10735078001 |
| Lysozyme | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#L1667 |
| Triton X-100 | Fisher Scientific | Cat#BP151-100 |
| Cytochrome c | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#C2506 |
| Proteinase K | Fisher Scientific | Cat#70-663-4 |
| BOCILLIN™ FL | Fisher Scientific | Cat#B13233 |
| Cell-Tak™ | Corning | Cat#354240 |
| Fetal bovine serum | Fisher Scientific | Cat#FB12999102 |
| MOPS | Fisher Scientific | Cat#BP308-100 |
| HEPES | Fisher Scientific | Cat#BP310-100 |
| Tris base | Fisher Scientific | Cat#BP152-500 |
| BBL™ Mueller Hinton II Broth (Cation-Adjusted) | Fisher Scientific | Cat#B12322 |
| BACTO™ Tryptic Soy Broth | Fisher Scientific | Cat#DF0370-17-3 |
| | | |
| Critical commercial assays | | |
| Bio-Rad Protein Assay Dye Reagent | Bio-Rad | Cat#5000006 |
| Monarch Total RNA | New England Biolabs | Cat#T2010S |
| TURBO DNA-free™ kit | Fisher Scientific | Cat#AM1907 |
| Superscript™ III First-Strand Synthesis | Fisher Scientific | Cat#18-080-051 |
| FastStart SYBR Green | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#4673484001 |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1-stepTM Ultra TMB-Blotting Solution | Fisher Scientific | Cat#P137574 |
| Blocker™ FL | Fisher Scientific | Cat#PI37565 |
| Monarch Spin PCR & DNA Cleanup kit | New England Biolabs | Cat#T1130L |
| Monarch Spin Plasmid Miniprep kit | New England Biolabs | Cat#T1110L |
| Oligonucleotides | | |
| Refer to Table S2 | This work | N/A |
| Recombinant DNA | | |
| Refer to Table S1 | This work | N/A |
| Software and algorithms | | |
| GraphPad Prism 10 | GraphPad | https://www.graphpad.com/ |
| ImageJ | ImageJ | https://imagej.net/ij/ |
| JPK SPM Data Processing v5.1 | Bruker | N/A |

**Strains and reagents.** Table S1 lists the strains and plasmids, and Table S2 lists the

primers used in this study. Bacteria were grown in cation-adjusted Mueller-Hinton broth (MHB)

or simulated wound fluid (50% Fetal bovine serum from Fisher Scientific, 50% Maximum

recovery diluent (MRD; 1g/L peptone, 8.5g/L NaCl) at 37 ºC, unless otherwise specified.

**Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing (AST).** MICs were determined by broth

microdilution according to CLSI guidelines [93]. The assays were conducted in microtiter plates

with a final inoculum adjusted to an $OD_{600}$ of 0.001, prepared by the colony resuspension

method. The plates were then incubated at 37ºC with shaking, and bacterial growth was

determined by measuring the $OD_{600}$ after 24 h. When MIC values were not reached within the

tested concentration range, the highest tested concentration was considered half the MIC. The

fractional inhibitory concentration indices (FICI) were calculated as FICI = ($MIC_A$ in

combination/$MIC_A$ alone) + ($MIC_B$ in combination/$MIC_B$ alone). FICI values ≤0.5 were

interpreted as synergy, >0.5 to ≤4.0 as additive or indifferent, and >4.0 as antagonistic.

**Nebraska transposon mutant library (NTML) screen.** Overnight cultures of the

NTML [38] were prepared in 384-well plates using Biomatrix BM6-BC (S&P Robotics Inc.) in

MHB with 5 µg/mL erythromycin (Sigma-Aldrich). The following day, these overnight cultures

were used to inoculate MHB or SWF with or without doxycycline (Fisher Scientific) or

cefuroxime (Sigma-Aldrich), at the concentrations indicated in the results section, using the

BM6-BC. All 384-well plates were incubated at 37 ºC and 600 RPM, and the $OD_{600}$ was read

after 24 h.

**Dose-response assay.** Selected NTML strains were re-arrayed and inoculated into 96-

well plates in MHB containing 5 µg/mL erythromycin using the BM6-BC. The following day,

96-well plates with varying antibiotic concentrations in MHB and SWF were inoculated using

the BM6-BC. All plates were incubated at 37 ºC and 600 RPM, and the $OD_{600}$ was read after 24

h.

**Genetic complementation.** To complement *mntB*::Tn and *mntC*::Tn, PCR fragments

were amplified using USA300 gDNA as template and primer pairs (listed in Table S2):

mntB_compF3_AvrII and mntB_compR2_BamHI for *mntB*, mntB_compF3_AvrII and

mntC_compR_BamHI for *mntBC*, and mntC_compF3_AvrII and mntC_compR_BamHI for

*mntC*. Fragments and pKK22-Pfba were digested with AvrII and BamHI (New England Biolabs),

and the plasmid was alkaline phosphatase-treated (using Antarctic phosphatase, New England

Biolabs), followed by ligation with T4 DNA ligase (New England Biolabs) to generate the

complementation vectors, pKK22-Pfba-*mntB*, pKK22-Pfba-*mntBC*, and pKK22-Pfba-*mntC*.

Complementation and control vectors were transformed into electrocompetent *S. aureus* strains

by electroporation (Bio-Rad) [94].

**Doxycycline accumulation assay.** Cultures were started from a single colony and

incubated overnight in MHB or SWF at 37 ℃ with shaking, then sub-cultured by diluting to an

$OD_{600}$ of 0.1 in fresh media and further incubated for 6 h. Cells were harvested from the sub-

cultures and resuspended at an $OD_{600}$ of 1 in MHB or SWF. Doxycycline was added to 1 mL of

these OD-adjusted cultures at a final concentration of 5 µg/mL, and the cultures were incubated

for 30 min at 37 ℃. Cells were pelleted, resuspended in 1 mL of fresh culture media, and

incubated for 15 min at 37 ℃. The cells were then washed twice with PBS and resuspended in

0.5 mL of PBS, followed by dispensing of 100 µL aliquots into 96-well black plates in

quintuplicate and read at $\lambda_{ex} = 400$ nm / $\lambda_{em} = 530$ nm. The bacterial suspensions were also

transferred to a clear 96-well plate for $OD_{600}$ measurement. All centrifugation steps were at 6,000

$\times$ g for 1 min.

**Protein overexpression and purification.** *mntC* was cloned into pET28a(+) and

transformed into $CaCl_2$ chemically competent *E. coli* BL21 by heat shock. Bacterial cultures

were incubated at 30 ℃ and 250 RPM until an $OD_{600}$ of ~0.8 was reached, then induced with 0.5

mM IPTG and further incubated for 5 h at 30 ℃. Cells were harvested, resuspended in lysis

buffer [50 mM sodium phosphate, 500 mM NaCl, cOmplete™ protease inhibitor cocktail

(Roche), pH 8.0], and lysed using Lysing Matrix B (MP Biomedicals) and the FastPrep-24™.

The supernatants were separated from the insoluble fractions by centrifugation at 10,000 $\times$ g for

15 min at 4 ℃. His-tagged proteins were batch purified from the supernatants using His-select

nickel-affinity gel (Sigma-Aldrich), washed three times with wash buffer (50 mM sodium

phosphate, 500 mM NaCl, 5 mM imidazole, pH 8.0), and eluted with elution buffer (50 mM

sodium phosphate, 500 mM NaCl, 250 mM imidazole, pH 8.0), followed by detection on a 12%

acrylamide gel (Bio-Rad) stained with PageBlue$^{TM}$ (Fisher Scientific). The eluted protein was

dialyzed using 10 kDa SnakeSkin$^{TM}$ dialysis tubing (Fisher Scientific) into 20 mM HEPES, pH

7.4, 100 mM NaCl buffer, then quantified using the Bradford method with protein assay dye

reagent concentrate (Bio-Rad).

**Doxycycline binding assay.** Purified MntC, bovine serum albumin (BSA), and lysozyme

solutions in dialysis buffer (20 mM HEPES, pH 7.4, 100 mM NaCl) were each incubated at 37

ºC with doxycycline in the dark for 4 h at a final volume of 200 µL and final concentration of 32

µM of protein and 16 µM of doxycycline in 96-well black plates. Wells containing only 200 µL

of buffer with 16 µM of doxycycline and 200 µL of buffer with 32 µM of protein were used for

background subtraction of fluorescent signal. Plates were then read at $\lambda_{ex}$ = 390 nm / $\lambda_{em}$ = 550

nm.

**RNA extraction.** USA300 cultures were grown overnight and diluted to an $OD_{600}$ of 0.05

in MHB or SWF. Cells were grown at 37 ºC to an $OD_{600}$ of 0.6, then treated with doxycycline (8

µg/mL) or vehicle control (ultrapure water) for 30 minutes. Aliquots (6 mL) of the cultures were

collected, centrifuged at 3,320 × g for 10 min. RNA was extracted using Monarch Total RNA

miniprep (New England Biolabs), followed by treatment with Invitrogen Turbo DNA-free DNase

(Fisher Scientific) following the manufacturer's protocol. RNA purity was assessed by

measuring the ratio of absorbance at 260 nm to 280 nm (values obtained ~2.0).

**cDNA synthesis and RT-PCR.** RNA was converted to cDNA with Superscript™ III

First-Strand Synthesis System (Fisher Scientific) following the manufacturer's protocol. RT-PCR

was performed using the QuantStudio™ 5 Real-Time PCR (Thermo Fisher Scientific) with

FastStart SYBR Green (Roche). Fold change in gene expression was calculated using the Pfaffl

Method [95] relative to *arcC* and 16s rRNA.

***Galleria mellonella* incision wound infection model.** *G. mellonella* larvae weighing

~300 mg were selected, anesthetized by chilling at 4 ºC for 10 minutes, and kept on ice during

incision and treatment application. Incisions spanning the third segment from the posterior end of

the larvae were made parasagittally on the dorsal side. Larvae were inoculated with 2 µL of

inoculum (0.0001 $OD_{600}$/mg of larva weight). After 30 min, 4 µL of a 10% w/w doxycycline

compounded in Glaxal™ Base, 40% w/w cefuroxime compounded in Glaxal™ Base, or vehicle

control (water in Glaxal™ Base) was applied to the inoculated wounds. Worms were then

incubated at 37 ºC and monitored for survival for 6 days. Of note, research ethics approval is not

required for the use of this invertebrate model.

**Lysis Assay.** Overnight cultures were diluted to an $OD_{600}$ of 0.1 and grown to an $OD_{600}$ of

0.8. Cells were washed and resuspended in PBS or PBS containing 0.02% Triton X-100 (Fisher

Scientific) at a cell density of 1 OD/mL. The bacterial suspensions were dispensed into 200 µL

aliquots in triplicate in 96-well plates, incubated at 37 ºC with shaking in the plate reader, and

their $OD_{600}$ was read every 15 min for 6 h.

**Cytochrome c binding assay.** The assay was performed as previously described [96].

Briefly, overnight cultures were adjusted to an $OD_{600}$ of 1, and 8 mL were pelleted, washed twice

in MOPS buffer (20 mM, pH 7.0), and resuspended in a total volume of 200 µL MOPS. A 50 µL

aliquot of a 2.5 mg/mL cytochrome c solution (Sigma-Aldrich) was added to the 200 µL

resuspended culture and incubated at room temperature for 10 min. The samples were then

pelleted at 16,000 × g for 1 min, and 200 µL of the supernatants were dispensed into 96-well

plates, and their absorbance was read at 530 nm ($A_{530nm}$). *mprF*::Tn was used as a positive

control.

**Bioluminescence assay.** The luciferase expression assay was conducted as previously

described [58], except that bacteria were cultured in either TSB or SWF. Briefly, USA300

(pGYlux::*mprF*), USA300 (pGYlux::*ilvD*), Δ*graR* (pGYlux::*mprF*), and USA300 with control

vector pGYlux were grown overnight in TSB and SWF with 10 µg/mL chloramphenicol. The

overnight cultures were then diluted to an $OD_{600}$ of 0.01 in 10 mL of TSB or SWF with and

without 1/32$^{nd}$ MIC of colistin and grown at 37 ºC with shaking. Each hour, 100 µL was plated

into a white 96-well plate in triplicate, and relative light units (RLU) were measured before

transferring to a clear 96-well plate to measure $OD_{600}$.

**WTA isolation.** Crude WTA was isolated as previously described [97], with minor

modifications to normalize the quantity of bacteria prior to WTA isolation. Briefly, overnight

cultures in either MHB or SWF were washed once with buffer 1 (50 mM MES, pH 6.5) and

volumes corresponding to an $OD_{600}$ of 5 were centrifuged at 5,000 × g, resuspended in buffer 2

[4% (w/v) SDS, 50 mM MES, pH 6.5], and boiled for 1 h, followed by washing in buffer 1 and

transferring into 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tubes. Pellets were then washed with 1.4 mL of buffer

2, then with 1.4 mL of buffer 3 (2% NaCl, 50 mM MES, pH 6.5), followed by 1.4 mL of buffer 1

with all spins at $16,000 \times g$ for 1 min. Pellets were resuspended in 1 mL of digestion buffer [20

mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 0.5% (w/v) SDS] with the addition of 10 µL of 2 mg/mL proteinase K.

Samples were digested at 50 ºC for 4 h with shaking (1000 rpm). Pellets were then washed with

1.4 mL of buffer 3, followed by three 1.4 mL washes of ultrapure water. The pellets were then

resuspended in 1 mL of 0.1 M NaOH and incubated at 20 ºC for 16 h with shaking at 1000 rpm

in an infors HT Multitron incubator (3 mm throw diameter). The samples were then centrifuged

at $16,000 \times g$ for 1 min, and 750 µL of the supernatants were transferred to a new

microcentrifuge tube. Subsequently, 250 µL of 1 M Tris-HCl, pH 7.8, was added to neutralize the

reaction.

**WTA PAGE.** Aliquots (15 µL) of crude WTA were mixed with 5 µL of 4x loading dye

(50% glycerol with bromophenol blue), and 10 µL was loaded and separated on tricine

polyacrylamide gels at 40 mA [97] until the dye front had reached the bottom of the gel. Gels were

washed three times with ultrapure water, then stained with Alcian Blue 8GX (Fisher Scientific, 1

mg/mL) overnight, and destained with ultrapure water until the bands became visible.

**Membrane preparation.** Cultures grown overnight at 37 ºC with shaking were diluted to

an $OD_{600}$ of 0.05 and then grown to an $OD_{600}$ of 0.8. The cultures were pelleted, resuspended in

PBS, and lysed using Lysing Matrix B (MP Biomedicals) and the FastPrep-24™. Cell debris was

pelleted at $10,000 \times g$ for 30 min, and the supernatant was centrifuged at 40,000 rpm for 1h to

pellet the membrane, which was then resuspended in PBS, and its protein content was quantified

by the Bradford method using protein assay dye reagent concentrate (Bio-Rad).

**BOCILLIN™ FL assay.** Membrane fractions (equivalent to 30 µg of protein content)

from USA300 and *pbp4*::Tn cultured in MHB and SWF were incubated with 20 µM of

BOCILLIN™ FL (Fisher Scientific) at 37 ºC for 10 min, followed by the addition of 4x Laemmli

buffer and boiling for 5 min. Membrane samples were resolved on 10% SDS-PAGE running at

80V for 30 min, followed by 120V for 2.25 h. Gels were then visualized using the Typhoon FLA

7000 gel scanner (GE Healthcare), and the band intensities were subsequently quantified with

ImageJ. PBP quantifications were background-subtracted by membrane-free BOCILLIN™ FL

lanes.

**PBP2a western blot.** Membrane fractions (equivalent to 10 µg of protein content) from

USA300 and *pbp2a*::Tn cultured in MHB and SWF were resolved on 10% SDS-PAGE, running

at 80 V for 30 min, followed by 120 V for 2.25 h. Protein bands were transferred to

nitrocellulose film using a Mini Trans-Blot® Cell (Bio-Rad) at 100 V for 2 h. The nitrocellulose

membrane was then blocked overnight at 4 ºC with Blocker™ FL (Thermo Scientific). The

primary antibody, mouse anti-*S. aureus*-PBP2a (Thermo Fisher Scientific) (1:1000 dilution in

Blocker™ FL), was incubated for 2 h at room temperature with rocking. The secondary antibody,

a horseradish peroxidase-conjugated sheep anti-Mouse IgG (Thermo Scientific) (1:1000 dilution

in Blocker™ FL buffer), was incubated for 2 h at room temperature with rocking. The blot was

developed with 1-Step™ Ultra TMB-Blotting Solution (Thermo Scientific) for 10 min, then

visualized on the Gel Doc[TM] EZ imager (Bio-Rad), and band intensities were subsequently

quantified with ImageJ.

**Atomic force microscopy (AFM) imaging.** AFM (Nanowizard 4; JPK Instruments,

Berlin, Germany) in quantitative imaging (QI[TM]) mode [98,99] was used to analyze cell surface

topography and mechanics of USA300 cells cultured in MHB and SWF. Overnight cultures of

USA300 in MHB and SWF were diluted to an $OD_{600}$ of 0.05 and grown to an $OD_{600}$ of 0.6. Cells

were then washed three times in PBS and resuspended to an $OD_{600}$ of 0.125 and deposited onto

clean, Cell-Tak[TM] (Corning®)-coated coverslips [100], incubated for 30 min at room temperature

followed by rinsing with ultrapure water three times, air dried (30 min) at room temperature, and

imaged using non-conductive silicon nitride cantilevers (Multi-cantilever Tip (MLCT), D

cantilever, nominal k = 0.03 N/m and tip radius 20 nm; Bruker, USA). Cantilever spring constant

(0.028 N/m) was calibrated using the thermal noise method [101]. QI[TM] force curves at each pixel

of a 128 × 128 raster scan were collected using a Z-length of 1000 nm, setpoint of 2 nN, and a

raster scan of 100 μm/s, along with a subset of force curves within a 0.4 × 0.4 nm square in the

center of the cell. Force curves were batch-processed using JPK SPM Data Processing software

(version 5.1, JPK, Berlin, Germany), and histogram data were exported to Excel.

**Statistical analysis.** All statistical analyses were calculated using GraphPad Prism 10. The

statistical test used for each assay is indicated in the figure captions.

**References**

1.    Laxminarayan, R., Duse, A., Wattal, C., Zaidi, A.K., Wertheim, H.F., Sumpradit, N., Vlieghe, E., Hara, G.L., Gould, I.M., Goossens, H., et al. (2013). Antibiotic resistance-the need for global solutions. Lancet Infect Dis *13*, 1057–1098. 10.1016/S1473-3099(13)70318-9.

2.    Ibberson, C.B., and Whiteley, M. (2020). The social life of microbes in chronic infection. Current opinion in microbiology *53*, 44–50. 10.1016/j.mib.2020.02.003.

3.    Lazarus, G.S., Cooper, D.M., Knighton, D.R., Percoraro, R.E., Rodeheaver, G., and Robson, M.C. (1994). Definitions and guidelines for assessment of wounds and evaluation of healing. Wound Repair Regen *2*, 165–170. 10.1046/j.1524-475X.1994.20305.x.

4.    Schultz, G.S., Chin, G.A., Moldawer, L., and Diegelmann, R.F. (2011). Principles of Wound Healing. In Mechanisms of Vascular Disease: A Reference Book for Vascular Specialists, R. Fitridge, and M. Thompson, eds.

5.    Cutting, K.F. (2003). Wound exudate: composition and functions. Br J Community Nurs *8*, suppl 4–9. 10.12968/bjcn.2003.8.sup3.11577.

6.    Falanga, V., Isseroff, R.R., Soulika, A.M., Romanelli, M., Margolis, D., Kapp, S., Granick, M., and Harding, K. (2022). Chronic wounds. Nat Rev Dis Primers *8*, 50. 10.1038/s41572-022-00377-3.

7.    Queen, D., and Harding, K. (2023). What's the true costs of wounds faced by different healthcare systems around the world? International Wound Journal *20*, 3935–3938. https://doi.org/10.1111/iwj.14491.

8.    Queen, D., and Harding, K. (2024). Estimating the cost of wounds both nationally and regionally within the top 10 highest spenders. Int Wound J *21*, e14709. 10.1111/iwj.14709.

9.    Rahim, K., Saleha, S., Zhu, X.D., Huo, L., Basit, A., and Franco, O.L. (2017). Bacterial Contribution in Chronicity of Wounds. Microb Ecol *73*, 710–721. 10.1007/s00248-016-0867-9.

10.    Murray, C.J., Ikuta, K.S., Sharara, F., Swetschinski, L., Aguilar, G.R., Gray, A., Han, C., Bisignano, C., Rao, P., and Wool, E. (2022). Global burden of bacterial antimicrobial resistance in 2019: a systematic analysis. The lancet *399*, 629–655.

11.    Tong, S.Y.C., Davis, J.S., Eichenberger, E., Holland, T.L., and Fowler, V.G. (2015). *Staphylococcus aureus* Infections: Epidemiology, Pathophysiology, Clinical Manifestations, and Management. Clinical Microbiology Reviews *28*, 603–661. 10.1128/Cmr.00134-14.

12.    Norbury, W., Herndon, D.N., Tanksley, J., Jeschke, M.G., Finnerty, C.C., and Infection, S.S.C.S. (2016). Infection in Burns. Surg Infect *17*, 250–255. 10.1089/sur.2013.134.

13.    Gjødsbøl, K., Christensen, J.J., Karlsmark, T., Jørgensen, B., Klein, B.M., and Krogfelt, K.A. (2006). Multiple bacterial species reside in chronic wounds: a longitudinal study. Int Wound J *3*, 225–231. 10.1111/j.1742-481X.2006.00159.x.

14.    Pastagia, M., Kleinman, L.C., Lacerda de la Cruz, E.G., and Jenkins, S.G. (2012). Predicting risk for death from MRSA bacteremia. Emerg Infect Dis *18*, 1072–1080. 10.3201/eid1807.101371.

15.    WHO (2017). Prioritization of pathogens to guide discovery, research and development of new antibiotics for drug-resistant bacterial infections including tuberculosis. World Health Organization.

16.  Nichol, K.A., Adam, H.J., Golding, G.R., Lagace-Wiens, P.R.S., Karlowsky, J.A., Hoban,
D.J., Zhanel, G.G., Canadian Antimicrobial Resistance, A., and Canward (2019).
Characterization of MRSA in Canada from 2007 to 2016. J Antimicrob Chemother *74*,
iv55–iv63. 10.1093/jac/dkz288.
17.  Mueller, J.H., and Hinton, J. (1941). A protein-free medium for primary isolation of the
Gonococcus and Meningococcus. Proc. Soc. Expt. Biol. Med. *48*, 330–333.
https://doi.org/10.3181/00379727-48-13311.
18.  CLSI. (2017). Performance Standards for Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing; 27th
Edition. CLSI supplement M100. (Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute).
19.  Macgowan, A.P., and Surveillance, B.W.P.o.R. (2008). Clinical implications of
antimicrobial resistance for therapy. J Antimicrob Chemother *62 Suppl 2*, ii105–114.
10.1093/jac/dkn357.
20.  Hurley, M.N., Ariff, A.H., Bertenshaw, C., Bhatt, J., and Smyth, A.R. (2012). Results of
antibiotic susceptibility testing do not influence clinical outcome in children with cystic
fibrosis. J Cyst Fibros *11*, 288–292. 10.1016/j.jcf.2012.02.006.
21.  Smith, A.L., Fiel, S.B., Mayer-Hamblett, N., Ramsey, B., and Burns, J.L. (2003).
Susceptibility testing of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* isolates and clinical response to
parenteral antibiotic administration: lack of association in cystic fibrosis. Chest *123*,
1495–1502.
22.  Tong, M., French, S., El Zahed, S.S., Ong, W.K., Karp, P.D., and Brown, E.D. (2020).
Gene Dispensability in *Escherichia coli* Grown in Thirty Different Carbon Environments.
mBio *11*. 10.1128/mBio.02259-20.
23.  Zlitni, S., Ferruccio, L.F., and Brown, E.D. (2013). Metabolic suppression identifies new
antibacterial inhibitors under nutrient limitation. Nat Chem Biol *9*, 796–804.
10.1038/nchembio.1361.
24.  Bowler, P.G., Jones, S.A., Walker, M., and Parsons, D. (2004). Microbicidal properties of
a silver-containing hydrofiber dressing against a variety of burn wound pathogens. J Burn
Care Rehabil *25*, 192–196. 00004630-200403000-00009 [pii].
25.  Wound exudate and the role of dressings. A consensus document.  (2008). Int Wound J *5
Suppl 1*, iii–12. 10.1111/j.1742-481X.2008.00439.x.
26.  Aiba-Kojima, E., Tsuno, N.H., Inoue, K., Matsumoto, D., Shigeura, T., Sato, T., Suga, H.,
Kato, H., Nagase, T., Gonda, K., et al. (2007). Characterization of wound drainage fluids
as a source of soluble factors associated with wound healing: comparison with platelet-
rich plasma and potential use in cell culture. Wound Repair Regen *15*, 511–520.
10.1111/j.1524-475X.2007.00259.x.
27.  Iizaka, S., Sanada, H., Minematsu, T., Oba, M., Nakagami, G., Koyanagi, H., Nagase, T.,
Konya, C., and Sugama, J. (2010). Do nutritional markers in wound fluid reflect pressure
ulcer status? Wound Repair Regen *18*, 31–37. 10.1111/j.1524-475X.2009.00564.x.
28.  James, T.J., Hughes, M.A., Cherry, G.W., and Taylor, R.P. (2000). Simple biochemical
markers to assess chronic wounds. Wound Repair Regen *8*, 264–269. 10.1046/j.1524-
475x.2000.00264.x.
29.  Trengove, N.J., Langton, S.R., and Stacey, M.C. (1996). Biochemical analysis of wound
fluid from nonhealing and healing chronic leg ulcers. Wound Repair Regen *4*, 234–239.
10.1046/j.1524-475X.1996.40211.x.
30.  Lee, D.Y., Lee, S.Y., Yun, S.H., Jeong, J.W., Kim, J.H., Kim, H.W., Choi, J.S., Kim, G.D.,
Joo, S.T., Choi, I., and Hur, S.J. (2022). Review of the Current Research on Fetal Bovine

Serum and the Development of Cultured Meat. Food Sci Anim Resour *42*, 775–799.
10.5851/kosfa.2022.e46.

31.   Slade, E.A., Thorn, R.M.S., Young, A., and Reynolds, D.M. (2019). An *in vitro* collagen
perfusion wound biofilm model; with applications for antimicrobial studies and microbial
metabolomics. BMC Microbiol *19*, 310. 10.1186/s12866-019-1682-5.

32.   Rowley, A.F., and Ratcliffe, N.A. (1978). A histological study of wound healing and
hemocyte function in the wax-moth *Galleria mellonella*. J Morphol *157*, 181–199.
10.1002/jmor.1051570206.

33.   Maslova, E., Shi, Y., Sjoberg, F., Azevedo, H.S., Wareham, D.W., and McCarthy, R.R.
(2020). An Invertebrate Burn Wound Model That Recapitulates the Hallmarks of Burn
Trauma and Infection Seen in Mammalian Models. Front Microbiol *11*, 998.
10.3389/fmicb.2020.00998.

34.   Nelson, M.L., and Levy, S.B. (2011). The history of the tetracyclines. Ann Ny Acad Sci
*1241*, 17–32. 10.1111/j.1749-6632.2011.06354.x.

35.   Brown, N.M., Goodman, A.L., Horner, C., Jenkins, A., and Brown, E.M. (2021).
Treatment of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA): updated guidelines
from the UK. JAC Antimicrob Resist *3*, dlaa114. 10.1093/jacamr/dlaa114.

36.   Farha, M.A., Leung, A., Sewell, E.W., D'Elia, M.A., Allison, S.E., Ejim, L., Pereira, P.M.,
Pinho, M.G., Wright, G.D., and Brown, E.D. (2013). Inhibition of WTA Synthesis Blocks
the Cooperative Action of PBPs and Sensitizes MRSA to beta-Lactams. Acs Chem Biol
*8*, 226–233. 10.1021/cb300413m.

37.   Christianson, S., Golding, G.R., Campbell, J., and Mulvey, M.R. (2007). Comparative
genomics of Canadian epidemic lineages of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.
J Clin Microbiol *45*, 1904–1911. 10.1128/Jcm.02500-06.

38.   Fey, P.D., Endres, J.L., Yajjala, V.K., Widhelm, T.J., Boissy, R.J., Bose, J.L., and Bayles,
K.W. (2013). A genetic resource for rapid and comprehensive phenotype screening of
nonessential *Staphylococcus aureus* genes. MBio *4*, e00537–00512.
10.1128/mBio.00537-12.

39.   Horsburgh, M.J., Wharton, S.J., Cox, A.G., Ingham, E., Peacock, S., and Foster, S.J.
(2002). MntR modulates expression of the PerR regulon and superoxide resistance in
*Staphylococcus aureus* through control of manganese uptake. Mol Microbiol *44*, 1269–
1286. 10.1046/j.1365-2958.2002.02944.x.

40.   Tan, X., Song, Z., and Wang, Z. (2016). Characterization of the interaction between
bovine serum albumin and doxycycline by chemiluminescence and molecular docking.
Instrumentation Science & Technology *44*, 294–307. 10.1080/10739149.2015.1105817.

41.   Ramarao, N., Nielsen-Leroux, C., and Lereclus, D. (2012). The insect *Galleria*
*mellonella* as a powerful infection model to investigate bacterial pathogenesis. J Vis Exp,
e4392. 10.3791/4392.

42.   Glavis-Bloom, J., Muhammed, M., and Mylonakis, E. (2012). Of model hosts and man:
using *Caenorhabditis elegans*, *Drosophila melanogaster* and *Galleria mellonella* as
model hosts for infectious disease research. Advances in experimental medicine and
biology *710*, 11–17. 10.1007/978-1-4419-5638-5_2.

43.   Douglas, E.J.A., Palk, N., Brignoli, T., Altwiley, D., Boura, M., Laabei, M., Recker, M.,
Cheung, G.Y.C., Liu, R., Hsieh, R.C., et al. (2023). Extensive re-modelling of the cell
wall during the development of *Staphylococcus aureus* bacteraemia. eLife.
10.7554/elife.87026.2.

44.    Rahman, M.M., Hunter, H.N., Prova, S., Verma, V., Qamar, A., and Golemi-Kotra, D.
(2016). The *Staphylococcus aureus* Methicillin Resistance Factor FmtA Is a d-Amino
Esterase That Acts on Teichoic Acids. mBio *7*, e02070–02015. 10.1128/mBio.02070-15.

45.    Hartman, B.J., and Tomasz, A. (1984). Low-affinity penicillin-binding protein associated
with beta-lactam resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*. J Bacteriol *158*, 513–516.
10.1128/jb.158.2.513-516.1984.

46.    Reed, P., Atilano, M.L., Alves, R., Hoiczyk, E., Sher, X., Reichmann, N.T., Pereira, P.M.,
Roemer, T., Filipe, S.R., Pereira-Leal, J.B., et al. (2015). *Staphylococcus aureus* Survives
with a Minimal Peptidoglycan Synthesis Machine but Sacrifices Virulence and Antibiotic
Resistance. PLoS Pathog *11*, e1004891. 10.1371/journal.ppat.1004891.

47.    Falord, M., Karimova, G., Hiron, A., and Msadek, T. (2012). GraXSR Proteins Interact
with the VraFG ABC Transporter To Form a Five-Component System Required for
Cationic Antimicrobial Peptide Sensing and Resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*.
Antimicrob Agents Ch *56*, 1047–1058. 10.1128/Aac.05054-11.

48.    Huang, Y.-H., Yeh, W.-B., Chang, R., Chen, C.-Y., Wing-Yan Chan, M., Chou, M.-C., and
Chen, C.-C. (2025). A novel $\sigma^B$ regulatory module in *Staphylococcus aureus:* Unraveling
the multifaceted roles of RsbU domains in stress response mechanisms. Journal of
Microbiology, Immunology and Infection. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmii.2025.05.007.

49.    Fuchs, S., Mehlan, H., Bernhardt, J., Hennig, A., Michalik, S., Surmann, K., Pané-Farré,
J., Giese, A., Weiss, S., Backert, L., et al. (2018). AureoWiki‑The repository of the
*Staphylococcus aureus* research and annotation community. International Journal of
Medical Microbiology *308*, 558–568. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijmm.2017.11.011.

50.    Mlynek, K.D., Callahan, M.T., Shimkevitch, A.V., Farmer, J.T., Endres, J.L., Marchand,
M., Bayles, K.W., Horswill, A.R., and Kaplan, J.B. (2016). Effects of Low-Dose
Amoxicillin on *Staphylococcus aureus* USA300 Biofilms. Antimicrob Agents Chemother
*60*, 2639–2651. 10.1128/AAC.02070-15.

51.    Maria, J.P.S., Sadaka, A., Moussa, S.H., Brown, S., Zhang, Y.J., Rubin, E.J., Gilmore,
M.S., and Walker, S. (2014). Compound-gene interaction mapping reveals distinct roles
for *Staphylococcus aureus* teichoic acids. P Natl Acad Sci USA *111*, 12510–12515.
10.1073/pnas.1404099111.

52.    Lee, A.S., de Lencastre, H., Garau, J., Kluytmans, J., Malhotra-Kumar, S., Peschel, A.,
and Harbarth, S. (2018). Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. Nature Reviews
Disease Primers *4*. ARTN 18033
10.1038/nrdp.2018.33.

53.    Hamilton, S.M., Alexander, J.A.N., Choo, E.J., Basuino, L., da Costa, T.M., Severin, A.,
Chung, M., Aedo, S., Strynadka, N.C.J., Tomasz, A., et al. (2017). High-Level Resistance
of *Staphylococcus aureus* to beta-Lactam Antibiotics Mediated by Penicillin-Binding
Protein 4 (PBP4). Antimicrob Agents Chemother *61*. 10.1128/AAC.02727-16.

54.    Sewell, E.W.C., and Brown, E.D. (2014). Taking aim at wall teichoic acid synthesis: new
biology and new leads for antibiotics. Journal of Antibiotics *67*, 43–51.
10.1038/ja.2013.100.

55.    Campbell, J., Singh, A.K., Maria, J.P.S., Kim, Y., Brown, S., Swoboda, J.G., Mylonakis,
E., Wilkinson, B.J., and Walker, S. (2011). Synthetic Lethal Compound Combinations
Reveal a Fundamental Connection between Wall Teichoic Acid and Peptidoglycan
Biosyntheses in *Staphylococcus aureus*. Acs Chemical Biology *6*, 106–116.
10.1021/cb100269f.

56.    D'Elia, M.A., Henderson, J.A., Beveridge, T.J., Heinrichs, D.E., and Brown, E.D. (2009).
1038           The *N*-Acetylmannosamine Transferase Catalyzes the First Committed Step of Teichoic
1039           Acid Assembly in *Bacillus subtilis* and *Staphylococcus aureus*. J Bacteriol *191*, 4030–
1040           4034. 10.1128/Jb.00611-08.
1041    57.    Lee, K., Campbell, J., Swoboda, J.G., Cuny, G.D., and Walker, S. (2010). Development
1042           of improved inhibitors of wall teichoic acid biosynthesis with potent activity against
1043           *Staphylococcus aureus*. Bioorg Med Chem Lett *20*, 1767–1770.
1044           10.1016/j.bmcl.2010.01.036.
1045    58.    El-Halfawy, O.M., Czarny, T.L., Flannagan, R.S., Day, J., Bozelli, J.C., Jr., Kuiack, R.C.,
1046           Salim, A., Eckert, P., Epand, R.M., McGavin, M.J., et al. (2020). Discovery of an
1047           antivirulence compound that reverses beta-lactam resistance in MRSA. Nat Chem Biol
1048           *16*, 143–149. 10.1038/s41589-019-0401-8.
1049    59.    Lu, Y., Chen, F., Zhao, Q., Cao, Q., Chen, R., Pan, H., Wang, Y., Huang, H., Huang, R.,
1050           Liu, Q., et al. (2023). Modulation of MRSA virulence gene expression by the wall
1051           teichoic acid enzyme TarO. Nat Commun *14*, 1594. 10.1038/s41467-023-37310-5.
1052    60.    Komatsuzawa, H., Sugai, M., Ohta, K., Fujiwara, T., Nakashima, S., Suzuki, J., Lee,
1053           C.Y., and Suginaka, H. (1997). Cloning and characterization of the *fmt* gene which affects
1054           the methicillin resistance level and autolysis in the presence of triton X-100 in
1055           methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. Antimicrob Agents Ch *41*, 2355–2361. Doi
1056           10.1128/Aac.41.11.2355.
1057    61.    Xia, G., Kohler, T., and Peschel, A. (2010). The wall teichoic acid and lipoteichoic acid
1058           polymers of *Staphylococcus aureus*. Int J Med Microbiol *300*, 148–154.
1059           10.1016/j.ijmm.2009.10.001.
1060    62.    Slavetinsky, C.J., Hauser, J.N., Gekeler, C., Slavetinsky, J., Geyer, A., Kraus, A.,
1061           Heilingbrunner, D., Wagner, S., Tesar, M., Krismer, B., et al. (2022). Sensitizing
1062           *Staphylococcus aureus* to antibacterial agents by decoding and blocking the lipid flippase
1063           MprF. Elife *11*. 10.7554/eLife.66376.
1064    63.    Falord, M., Mader, U., Hiron, A., Debarbouille, M., and Msadek, T. (2011). Investigation
1065           of the *Staphylococcus aureus* GraSR regulon reveals novel links to virulence, stress
1066           response and cell wall signal transduction pathways. PLoS One *6*, e21323.
1067           10.1371/journal.pone.0021323.
1068    64.    Farha, M.A., Tu, M.M., and Brown, E.D. (2025). Important challenges to finding new
1069           leads for new antibiotics. Current opinion in microbiology *83*. ARTN 102562
1070    10.1016/j.mib.2024.102562.
1071    65.    van Belkum, A., Bachmann, T.T., Ludke, G., Lisby, J.G., Kahlmeter, G., Mohess, A.,
1072           Becker, K., Hays, J.P., Woodford, N., Mitsakakis, K., et al. (2019). Developmental
1073           roadmap for antimicrobial susceptibility testing systems. Nat Rev Microbiol *17*, 51–62.
1074           10.1038/s41579-018-0098-9.
1075    66.    Ledger, E.V.K., Mesnage, S., and Edwards, A.M. (2022). Human serum triggers
1076           antibiotic tolerance in *Staphylococcus aureus*. Nat Commun *13*, 2041. 10.1038/s41467-
1077           022-29717-3.
1078    67.    Somerville, G.A., Parrett, A.A., Reed, J.M., Gardner, S.G., Morton, M., and Powers, R.
1079           (2022). Human Serum Alters the Metabolism and Antibiotic Susceptibility of
1080           *Staphylococcus aureus*. J Proteome Res *21*, 1467–1474. 10.1021/acs.jproteome.2c00073.
1081    68.    Weber, B., De Jong, A., Guo, A., Dharavath, S., French, S., Fiebig-Comyn, A., Coombes,
1082           B., Magolan, J., and Brown, E. (2020). Genetic and Chemical Screening in Human Blood

Serum Reveals Unique Antibacterial Targets and Compounds against *Klebsiella*
*pneumoniae*. Cell reports *32 3*, 107927. 10.1016/j.celrep.2020.107927.

69.   Di Bonaventura, G., Lupetti, V., Di Giulio, A., Muzzi, M., Piccirilli, A., Cariani, L., and
Pompilio, A. (2023). Repurposing High-Throughput Screening Identifies Unconventional
Drugs with Antibacterial and Antibiofilm Activities against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*
under Experimental Conditions Relevant to Cystic Fibrosis. Microbiol Spectr *11*,
e0035223. 10.1128/spectrum.00352-23.

70.   Carfrae, L.A., MacNair, C.R., Brown, C.M., Tsai, C.N., Weber, B.S., Zlitni, S., Rao, V.N.,
Chun, J., Junop, M.S., Coombes, B.K., and Brown, E.D. (2020). Mimicking the human
environment in mice reveals that inhibiting biotin biosynthesis is effective against
antibiotic-resistant pathogens. Nat Microbiol *5*, 93–101. 10.1038/s41564-019-0595-2.

71.   Ersoy, S.C., Heithoff, D.M., Barnes, L.t., Tripp, G.K., House, J.K., Marth, J.D., Smith,
J.W., and Mahan, M.J. (2017). Correcting a Fundamental Flaw in the Paradigm for
Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing. EBioMedicine *20*, 173–181.
10.1016/j.ebiom.2017.05.026.

72.   Heithoff, D.M., Barnes, V.L., Mahan, S.P., Fried, J.C., Fitzgibbons, L.N., House, J.K.,
and Mahan, M.J. (2023). Re-evaluation of FDA-approved antibiotics with increased
diagnostic accuracy for assessment of antimicrobial resistance. Cell Rep Med *4*, 101023.
10.1016/j.xcrm.2023.101023.

73.   Jin, S., Lim, S.Y., Lee, Y.W., Sung, H., Kim, M.-N., Bae, S., Jung, J., Kim, M.J., Kim, S.-
H., Lee, S.-O., et al. (2025). Clinical and microbiological analysis of risk factors for
breakthrough bloodstream infection during Tigecycline Therapy. Scientific Reports *15*,
4266. 10.1038/s41598-025-88048-7.

74.   Parsonage, M., Shah, S., Moss, P., Thaker, H., Meigh, R., Balaji, A., Elston, J., and
Barlow, G. (2010). Breakthrough bacteraemia with a susceptible *Enterococcus faecalis*
during tigecycline monotherapy. J Antimicrob Chemother *65*, 370–374.
10.1093/jac/dkp455.

75.   Anderson, A.S., Miller, A.A., Donald, R.G., Scully, I.L., Nanra, J.S., Cooper, D., and
Jansen, K.U. (2012). Development of a multicomponent *Staphylococcus aureus* vaccine
designed to counter multiple bacterial virulence factors. Hum Vaccin Immunother *8*,
1585–1594. 10.4161/hv.21872.

76.   Anderson, A.S., Scully, I.L., Timofeyeva, Y., Murphy, E., McNeil, L.K., Mininni, T.,
Nuñez, L., Carriere, M., Singer, C., Dilts, D.A., and Jansen, K.U. (2012). *Staphylococcus*
*aureus* Manganese Transport Protein C Is a Highly Conserved Cell Surface Protein That
Elicits Protective Immunity Against *S. aureus* and *Staphylococcus epidermidis*. The
Journal of Infectious Diseases *205*, 1688–1696. 10.1093/infdis/jis272.

77.   Chaves-Moreno, D., Wos-Oxley, M.L., Jauregui, R., Medina, E., Oxley, A.P., and Pieper,
D.H. (2016). Exploring the transcriptome of *Staphylococcus aureus* in its natural niche.
Sci Rep *6*, 33174. 10.1038/srep33174.

78.   Moffitt, K., Cheung, E., Yeung, T., Stamoulis, C., and Malley, R. (2021). Analysis of
*Staphylococcus aureus* Transcriptome in Pediatric Soft Tissue Abscesses and Comparison
to Murine Infections. Infection and Immunity *89*. ARTN e00715-20
10.1128/IAI.00715-20.

79.   Handke, L.D., Gribenko, A.V., Timofeyeva, Y., Scully, I.L., and Anderson, A.S. (2018).
MntC-Dependent Manganese Transport Is Essential for *Staphylococcus aureus* Oxidative
Stress Resistance and Virulence. mSphere *3*. 10.1128/mSphere.00336-18.

80. Elliott, D.J., Zaoutis, T.E., Troxel, A.B., Loh, A., and Keren, R. (2009). Empiric
antimicrobial therapy for pediatric skin and soft-tissue infections in the era of methicillin-
resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. Pediatrics *123*, e959–966. 10.1542/peds.2008-2428.
81. Dhand, A., Bayer, A.S., Pogliano, J., Yang, S.-J., Bolaris, M., Nizet, V., Wang, G., and
Sakoulas, G. (2011). Use of Antistaphylococcal β-Lactams to Increase Daptomycin
Activity in Eradicating Persistent Bacteremia Due to Methicillin-Resistant
*Staphylococcus aureus*: Role of Enhanced Daptomycin Binding. Clinical Infectious
Diseases *53*, 158–163. 10.1093/cid/cir340.
82. Barber, K.E., Ireland, C.E., Bukavyn, N., and Rybak, M.J. (2014). Observation of
"seesaw effect" with vancomycin, teicoplanin, daptomycin and ceftaroline in 150 unique
MRSA strains. Infect Dis Ther *3*, 35–43. 10.1007/s40121-014-0023-0.
83. Casapao, A.M., Jacobs, D.M., Bowers, D.R., Beyda, N.D., and Dilworth, T.J. (2017).
Early Administration of Adjuvant β-Lactam Therapy in Combination with Vancomycin
among Patients with Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* Bloodstream Infection:
A Retrospective, Multicenter Analysis. Pharmacotherapy *37*, 1347–1356.
10.1002/phar.2034.
84. Truong, J., Veillette, J.J., and Forland, S.C. (2018). Outcomes of Vancomycin plus a β-
Lactam versus Vancomycin Only for Treatment of Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus*
*aureus* Bacteremia. Antimicrob Agents Ch *62*. ARTN e01554-17
10.1128/AAC.01554-17.
85. Bush, K., and Bradford, P.A. (2016). β-Lactams and β-Lactamase Inhibitors: An
Overview. Csh Perspect Med *6*. ARTN a025247
10.1101/cshperspect.a025247.
86. Rieger, C.D., Soliman, A.M., Kaplia, K., Ghosh, N., Lopez Alexa, C., Venkatesan Surya,
A., Guevara Flores Abraham, G., Filiol Belin Matheus, A., Allen, F., Reynolds, M., et al.
(2024). The antimicrobial potential of traditional remedies of Indigenous peoples from
Canada against MRSA planktonic and biofilm bacteria in wound infection mimetic
conditions. Microbiology Spectrum *12*, e02341–02324. 10.1128/spectrum.02341-24.
87. Demidova-Rice, T.N., Hamblin, M.R., and Herman, I.M. (2012). Acute and impaired
wound healing: pathophysiology and current methods for drug delivery, part 1: normal
and chronic wounds: biology, causes, and approaches to care. Adv Skin Wound Care *25*,
304–314. 10.1097/01.ASW.0000416006.55218.d0.
88. Svensby, A.U., Nygren, E., Gefen, A., Cullen, B., Ronkvist Å, M., Gergely, A., and Craig,
M.D. (2024). The importance of the simulated wound fluid composition and properties in
the determination of the fluid handling performance of wound dressings. Int Wound J *21*,
e14861. 10.1111/iwj.14861.
89. Kadam, S., Madhusoodhanan, V., Dhekane, R., Bhide, D., Ugale, R., Tikhole, U., and
Kaushik, K.S. (2021). Milieu matters: An *in vitro* wound milieu to recapitulate key
features of, and probe new insights into, mixed-species bacterial biofilms. Biofilm *3*,
100047. 10.1016/j.bioflm.2021.100047.
90. Salazar, N., Castiblanco-Valencia, M.M., da Silva, L.B., de Castro, Í., Monaris, D.,
Masuda, H.P., Barbosa, A.S., and Arêas, A.P. (2014). *Staphylococcus aureus* manganese
transport protein C (MntC) is an extracellular matrix- and plasminogen-binding protein.
PLoS One *9*, e112730. 10.1371/journal.pone.0112730.
91. CLSI (2023). Performance Standards for Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing CLSI
supplement M100. Approved Standard, Pennsylvania *33rd ed*.

92.    CLSI (2009). Performance Standards for Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing CLSI
1176            supplement M100. Approved Standard, Pennsylvania *19th ed*.
1177    93.    CLSI (2012). Methods for dilution antimicrobial susceptibility tests for bacteria that grow
1178            aerobically. Approved Standard, Pennsylvania, 19087–11898.
1179    94.    Grosser, M.R., and Richardson, A.R. (2016). Method for Preparation and Electroporation
1180            of *S. aureus* and *S. epidermidis*. Methods Mol Biol *1373*, 51–57.
1181            10.1007/7651_2014_183.
1182    95.    Pfaffl, M.W. (2001). A new mathematical model for relative quantification in real-time
1183            RT-PCR. Nucleic Acids Res *29*, e45.
1184    96.    Douglas, E.J.A., Alkhzem, A.H., Wonfor, T., Li, S.X., Woodman, T.J., Blagbrough, I.S.,
1185            and Laabei, M. (2022). Antibacterial activity of novel linear polyamines against
1186            *Staphylococcus aureus*. Frontiers in Microbiology *13*. ARTN 948343
1187    10.3389/fmicb.2022.948343.
1188    97.    Kho, K., and Meredith, T.C. (2018). Extraction and Analysis of Bacterial Teichoic Acids.
1189            Bio Protoc *8*, e3078. 10.21769/BioProtoc.3078.
1190    98.    Chopinet, L., Formosa, C., Rols, M.P., Duval, R.E., and Dague, E. (2013). Imaging living
1191            cells surface and quantifying its properties at high resolution using AFM in QI™ mode.
1192            Micron *48*, 26–33. 10.1016/j.micron.2013.02.003.
1193    99.    Bhat, S.V., Booth, S.C., Vantomme, E.A.N., Afroj, S., Yost, C.K., and Dahms, T.E.S.
1194            (2015). Oxidative stress and metabolic perturbations in *Escherichia coli* exposed to
1195            sublethal levels of 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid. Chemosphere *135*, 453–461.
1196            https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2014.12.035.
1197    100.   Shahina, Z., Bhat, S.V., Ndlovu, E., Sultana, T., Körnig, A., Dague, É., and Dahms, T.E.
1198            (2022). Cellulomics of Live Yeast by Advanced and Correlative Microscopy. In
1199            Laboratory Protocols in Fungal Biology: Current Methods in Fungal Biology, (Springer),
1200            pp. 159–174.
1201    101.   Lübbe, J., Temmen, M., Rahe, P., Kühnle, A., and Reichling, M. (2013). Determining
1202            cantilever stiffness from thermal noise. Beilstein J Nanotech *4*, 227–233.
1203            10.3762/bjnano.4.23.
1204
1205