UCLA UCLA Previously Published Works

Title

Bicarbonate Resensitization of Methicillin-Resistant Staphylococcus aureus to β -Lactam Antibiotics

Permalink https://escholarship.org/uc/item/7px98892

Journal Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy, 63(7)

ISSN

0066-4804

Authors

Ersoy, Selvi C Abdelhady, Wessam Li, Liang <u>et al.</u>

Publication Date

2019-07-01

DOI

10.1128/aac.00496-19

Copyright Information

This work is made available under the terms of a Creative Commons Attribution License, available at <u>https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/</u>

Peer reviewed

SUSCEPTIBILITY



Bicarbonate Resensitization of Methicillin-Resistant Staphylococcus aureus to β -Lactam Antibiotics

Selvi C. Ersoy,^a Wessam Abdelhady,^a Liang Li,^a Henry F. Chambers,^c Yan Q. Xiong,^{a,b} Arnold S. Bayer^{a,b}

^aLos Angeles Biomedical Research Institute, Torrance, California, USA

^bGeffen School of Medicine, University of California Los Angeles, Los Angeles, California, USA

Antimicrobial Agents

MICROBIOLOGY and Chemotherapy®

AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR

cDivision of Infectious Diseases, Zuckerberg San Francisco General Department of Medicine, San Francisco School of Medicine, University of California, San Francisco, California, USA

ABSTRACT Endovascular infections caused by methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus* aureus (MRSA) are a major health care concern, especially infective endocarditis (IE). Standard antimicrobial susceptibility testing (AST) defines most MRSA strains as "resistant" to β -lactams, often leading to the use of costly and/or toxic treatment regimens. In this investigation, five prototype MRSA strains, representing the range of genotypes in current clinical circulation, were studied. We identified two distinct MRSA phenotypes upon AST using standard media, with or without sodium bicarbonate (NaHCO₃) supplementation: one highly susceptible to the antistaphylococcal β -lactams oxacillin and cefazolin (NaHCO₃ responsive) and one resistant to such agents (NaHCO₃ nonresponsive). These phenotypes accurately predicted clearance profiles of MRSA from target tissues in experimental MRSA IE treated with each β -lactam. Mechanistically, NaHCO₃ reduced the expression of two key genes involved in the MRSA phenotype, mecA and sarA, leading to decreased production of penicillin-binding protein 2a (that mediates methicillin resistance), in NaHCO3-responsive (but not in NaHCO3nonresponsive) strains. Moreover, both cefazolin and oxacillin synergistically killed NaHCO₃-responsive strains in the presence of the host defense antimicrobial peptide (LL-37) in NaHCO3-supplemented media. These findings suggest that AST of MRSA strains in NaHCO₃-containing media may potentially identify infections caused by NaHCO₃-responsive strains that are appropriate for β -lactam therapy.

KEYWORDS antimicrobial susceptibility testing, MRSA, β -lactams, infective endocarditis, penicillin-binding proteins, sodium bicarbonate

Staphylococcus aureus is a major bloodstream pathogen in both community-acquired and nosocomially acquired scenarios and is the leading cause of infective endocarditis (IE) in the industrialized world (1). Compounding the danger of *S. aureus* bloodstream infections (BSIs) is the steady rise of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) strains in many geographic regions in the United States (2). MRSA is a serious infectious threat, causing more than 15,000 deaths in the United States each year (3).

MRSA have high MICs that are above Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) resistance breakpoints for most conventional β -lactam antibiotics, such as oxacillin, on standard antimicrobial susceptibility testing (AST) media. This finding implies a lack of efficacy of these agents in treating MRSA infections, as confirmed in selected experimental IE studies (4–6). Treatment options for MRSA are generally limited to costlier and/or more toxic drugs, such as vancomycin, daptomycin, and lipoglycopeptides, and fifth-generation cephalosporins, such as ceftaroline (7–9). In addition, great expense and effort have gone into development of such newer anti-MRSA drugs (10, 11).

AST protocols for MRSA have been standardized by the CLSI and involve growth of

Citation Ersoy SC, Abdelhady W, Li L, Chambers HF, Xiong YQ, Bayer AS. 2019. Bicarbonate resensitization of methicilinresistant *Staphylococcus aureus* to β -lactam antibiotics. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 63:e00496-19. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC .00496-19.

Copyright © 2019 Ersoy et al. This is an openaccess article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International license.

Address correspondence to Yan Q. Xiong, yxiong@ucla.edu.

Received 5 March 2019 Returned for modification 24 March 2019 Accepted 7 April 2019

Accepted manuscript posted online 22 April 2019 Published 24 June 2019 bacterial samples in 2% NaCl cation-supplemented, nutrient-rich Mueller-Hinton broth (CA-MHB) (12, 13). However, MHB does not accurately represent the host milieu, and MICs observed in this medium are unlikely to mirror those exhibited by MRSA within specific host microenvironments. Although research efforts have been made to effectively model the host microenvironment *in vitro* or *ex vivo* (e.g., using simulated endocardial vegetations [SEVs]) (14, 15), these models are not suitable for large-scale AST in clinical laboratories.

Recently, several groups have attempted to improve standardized AST by altering growth conditions to better reflect the host environment. For example, AST of intracellular bacteria, such as Salmonella, in media that models the host phagolysosome can better predict treatment outcomes in murine bacteremia models (16, 17). Growth of bacteria in Dulbecco modified Eagle medium (DMEM) (but not in standard AST media) can stimulate expression of virulence factors typically exhibited in vivo (18, 19). These observations led to the discovery that AST of extracellular bacteria performed in such cell culture medium (including DMEM and RPMI 1640) was a better predictor of in vivo treatment outcomes than standard AST media for Acinetobacter and some staphylococci (17, 20). Of note, Dorschner et al. identified the role of physiological concentrations of NaHCO₃ in facilitating the in vitro killing of Escherichia coli and MRSA by host antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) (21). The carbonate molecule was capable of altering expression of a number of key regulatory genes in E. coli, including the homolog of the MRSA stress response regulator, sigma factor B (sigB). Finally, our lab has recently confirmed the key role of NaHCO₃ supplementation in rendering a range of bacterial pathogens, including MRSA, as more susceptible in vitro to multiple antibiotics, including β -lactams (17). The predictive role of this "NaHCO₃-responsive" phenotype, *vis-à-vis* salutary outcomes to β -lactam therapy, was corroborated in a murine bacteremia model (17).

In the present study, we focused on the activity of two β -lactam agents routinely used for treating methicillin-susceptible *S. aureus* (MSSA) infections against five well-characterized prototype MRSA strains, in the presence or absence of NaHCO₃supplemented standard media. Using this modified AST schema, we demonstrate that NaHCO₃ supplementation increased the *in vitro* susceptibility of selected MRSA strains to both cefazolin and oxacillin (i.e., NaHCO₃-responsive MRSA). Although these drugs are typically not recommended for the treatment of MRSA (22), we observed that they can be highly effective in treating such NaHCO₃-responsive MRSA strains in a rabbit model of IE. In contrast, MRSA strains that were NaHCO₃ nonresponsive *in vitro* were recalcitrant to such β -lactam therapy *in vivo*.

If verified in larger MRSA screening studies, these novel findings may potentially prompt modifications of AST for MRSA; this, in turn, could potentially guide new treatment algorithms for selected MRSA infections with β -lactam agents such as cefazolin and antistaphylococcal penicillins. Finally, mechanistically, NaHCO₃ responsiveness correlated with the capacity of this molecule to suppress at least two key regulatory pathways intimately involved in the MRSA phenotype: *mecA*-PBP2a and *sarA* (5, 23, 24).

RESULTS

Effect of NaHCO₃ on β-lactam susceptibility in vitro. MIC values obtained in standard CA-MHB for the five study strains were generally within 2-fold of those obtained in CA-MHB plus 100 mM Tris (CA-MHB-Tris; see Table S1 in the supplemental material). MRSA strains 11/11 (USA300 genotype) and MW2 (USA400 genotype) displayed a substantial decrease in MICs to cefazolin and oxacillin when grown in media containing 44 mM NaHCO₃ (Table 1). Strain MRSA 11/11 also displayed a decrease in MICs to cefazolin and oxacillin when exposed to a more physiologically relevant concentration of NaHCO₃ (25 mM). In contrast, β-lactam MICs for three other prototype MRSA strains, COL (USA100 genotype), BMC1001 (USA500 genotype), and 300-111 (CC8, *spa* type 4, Iberian clone) were unaffected by exposure to NaHCO₃ at either concentration (Table 1). Based on these two distinct phenotypes,

	Cefazolin MIC (µg/ml)					Oxacillin MIC (µg/ml)				
Treatment	MRSA 11/11	MW2	COL	BMC1001	300-111	MRSA 11/11	MW2	COL	BMC1001	300-111
CA-MHB-Tris	16	8	256	256	64	32	64	512	256	16
CA-MHB-Tris $+$ 25 mM NaHCO ₃	4	8	512	256	32	4	32	512	256	16
CA-MHB-Tris + 44 mM NaHCO ₃	0.5	1	256	256	32	0.5	2	512	256	32
RPMI 1640 + 10% LB medium	1	2	16	2	2	1	1	64	16	4

TABLE 1 MICs of β -lactam antibiotics against methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* grown in media with and without NaHCO₃^a

^aMIC values obtained in CA-MHB-Tris for strains MRSA 11/11, MW2, COL, and BMC1001 were within 2-fold of those obtained in standard CA-MHB (see Table S1 in the supplemental material). The MIC values for 300-111 in CA-MHB were 16 and 8 μ g/ml for cefazolin and oxacillin, respectively.

we termed the two strains above, whose β -lactam MICs were substantially reduced by NaHCO₃, "responsive," while we termed the other three strains, whose β -lactam MICs were unaffected by NaHCO₃, "nonresponsive."

In addition, several recent investigations have promoted the use of the tissue culture medium, RPMI 1640, as a more physiologic, host-mimicking media and a better predictor of *in vivo* susceptibility to various antimicrobials than standard growth media, especially for Gram-negative bacteria (20, 25). As opposed to our NaHCO₃ assays, we found that MICs to both β -lactams were decreased in RPMI 1640 for all five of our study strains, although the effect was somewhat less substantive for strain COL (Table 1).

To evaluate whether NaHCO₃ sensitization of MRSA to β -lactams was merely a "weak acid" effect, we investigated the impact of salicylic acid exposure on β -lactam MICs among four of our study strains. Exposure of these MRSA strains to 25 and 50 μ g/ml salicylic acid, concentrations that are physiologically achievable during aspirin therapy (26), had no effect on the β -lactam MICs in any strain tested (Table S1). These data are in accord with those of Farha et al. using two other weak acid molecules, acetate and borate (27). Taken together, this finding indicates that β -lactam resensitization of some MRSA in the presence of NaHCO₃ is not the result of a generalized weak acid effect.

To further quantify the effect of NaHCO₃ on MRSA β -lactam susceptibility profiles, a time-kill assay was conducted using log-phase responsive MRSA 11/11 or nonresponsive COL cells. As predicted by the MIC data, MRSA 11/11 displayed significantly greater killing when exposed to cefazolin and oxacillin in NaHCO₃-containing media compared to NaHCO₃-free media (Fig. 1A). After a 24 h of incubation, a \geq 4-log₁₀ CFU/ml reduction in counts was observed for MRSA 11/11 exposed to 8 μ g/ml cefazolin or 15 μ g/ml oxacillin in NaHCO₃-containing versus NaHCO₃-free media. These latter β -lactam con-



FIG 1 Time-kill analysis of log-phase cells grown in media with or without NaHCO₃. (A) MRSA 11/11; (B) COL. Growth in CA-MHB-Tris (closed symbols) or in CA-MHB-Tris plus 44 mM NaHCO₃ (open symbols) with no drug (circles), 8 μ g/ml cefazolin (triangles), 32 μ g/ml cefazolin (diamonds), or 15 μ g/ml oxacillin (squares) is indicated. The data are means of two independent runs performed in triplicate for each condition \pm the SD. Statistical comparisons were made using a Kruskal-Wallis single-factor ANOVA and the *post hoc* pairwise Mann-Whitney U test. Asterisks represent comparisons (**, P < 0.01) at the 24-h time point of MRSA 11/11 exposed to 8 μ g/ml cefazolin in CA-MHB-Tris versus CA-MHB-Tris plus 44 mM NaHCO₃ and 15 μ g/ml oxacillin in CA-MHB-Tris plus 2% NaCl versus CA-MHB-Tris plus 2% NaCl plus 44 mM NaHCO₃.

centrations represent sublethal concentrations as determined in multiple pilot time-kill studies carried out in NaHCO₃-free media. In contrast, strain COL displayed a minimal reduction in counts when grown in NaHCO₃-containing versus NaHCO₃-free media under all testing conditions (Fig. 1B). Similar differential time-kill results were obtained for the NaHCO₃-responsive strain MW2 and the NaHCO₃-nonresponsive strain BMC1001 (Fig. S1). Interestingly, the nonresponsive strain 300-111, which has a relatively low baseline level of resistance to cefazolin and oxacillin, displayed an intermediate level of killing when exposed to 8 μ g/ml cefazolin or 15 μ g/ml oxacillin in NaHCO₃-containing versus NaHCO₃-free media (Fig. S1).

Supplementation with 44 mM NaHCO₃ had only a modest effect on 24-h growth kinetics for the five study strains (Fig. S2). With the exception of COL and 300-111, stationary-phase cell counts at 24 h were not significantly different between media with versus without 44 mM NaHCO₃ for any strain tested.

Population analyses in NaHCO₃-containing media. Population analysis profiles (PAPs) are a standard quantitative *in vitro* assessment of the proportions of antibiotic-resistant subpopulations within a given strain versus specific antibiotics (28). MRSA strains contain a variable proportion of highly β -lactam-resistant subpopulations. For example, homogeneously resistant (homoresistant) strains usually contain a high percentage (e.g., >10%) of such subpopulations, whereas heterogeneously resistant (heteroresistant) strains generally contain a lower percentage (e.g., <0.01%) of resistant subpopulations.

To determine the effect of NaHCO₃ on β -lactam-resistant subpopulations, PAPs for cefazolin were determined for our five prototype MRSA strains in NaHCO₃-containing versus NaHCO₃-free agar. NaHCO₃-responsive strains MRSA 11/11 and MW2 displayed heteroresistant PAP phenotypes on NaHCO₃-free agar, whereas NaHCO₃-nonresponsive strains COL, BMC1001, and 300-111 each displayed a more homoresistant PAP phenotype (Fig. 2A). To better characterize β -lactam heteroresistant versus homoresistant phenotypes, using COL as our benchmark homoresistant strain, we calculated the area under the PAP curve (AUC) ratios for MRSA 11/11, MW2, BMC1001, and 300-111 with respect to the COL AUC. AUC ratios of NaHCO₃-responsive strains were significantly lower in the presence of NaHCO₃ (compare Fig. 2A to B). Although NaHCO₃ did have a slight repressive effect on the resistant subpopulation of 300-111, the AUC for this strain in 44 mM NaHCO₃ was significantly greater than both MRSA 11/11 and MW2. NaHCO₃ had no effect on the AUC ratio of BMC1001 or the proportion of highly resistant COL or BMC1001 cells (Fig. 2B). Exposure to oxacillin, with or without NaHCO₃, yielded similar results to cefazolin, although the magnitude of suppression of the highly resistant subpopulations of the two NaHCO₃-responsive strains (MRSA 11/11 and MW2) was less than that seen with cefazolin, and the differences were not statistically significant (data not shown).

Rabbit IE treatment outcomes with β -lactams. To verify the *in vivo* translatability of the NaHCO₃ responsivity phenotypes determined *in vitro*, a rabbit model of aortic valve IE, treated with the two study β -lactams, was used. The β -lactam treatment regimens were based on (i) published protocols for experimental IE therapy that are capable of clearing MSSA strains from target tissues (5, 29), (ii) human-mimicking pharmacokinetic profiles (5, 29) (Table S2), and (iii) our own pilot treatment outcome studies of experimental MSSA IE with these regimens (Fig. S4). As predicted by in vitro MICs determined in NaHCO₃-containing media, both NaHCO₃-responsive strains were highly susceptible to β -lactam therapy *in vivo* to levels not dissimilar from that seen with the MSSA control strain ATCC 25923 (Fig. 3A; see also Fig. S4 in the supplemental material). Thus, significant clearance of MRSA 11/11 and MW2 was observed in all target tissues sampled after 4 days of either cefazolin or oxacillin therapy. Of note, sterilization of multiple target tissues was seen in >70% of organ cultures from animals infected with the two NaHCO₃-responsive when treated with cefazolin; in contrast, oxacillin therapy did not sterilize any target tissues despite significant reductions in MRSA counts in IE caused by these latter strains (data not shown). In contrast, β -lactam



FIG 2 Population analysis of cells grown in media with or without NaHCO₃. (A) Mueller-Hinton agar (MHA) supplemented with Tris (closed symbols); (B) MHA supplemented with Tris and 44 mM NaHCO₃ (open symbols). Data for strains MRSA 11/11 (solid black line), MW2 (dashed black line), 300-111 (dotted gray line), COL (solid gray line), and BMC1001 (dashed gray line) are shown. CFZ, cefazolin. Area under the curve (AUC) ratios were compared to COL as a homoresistant reference strain. The data are means of two independent runs performed in triplicate for each condition \pm the SD. Statistical comparisons were made using a Kruskal-Wallis single-factor ANOVA and the *post hoc* pairwise Mann-Whitney U test. MRSA 11/11, MW2, and 300-111 AUC in media containing 44 mM NaHCO₃ (*, *P* < 0.05; **, *P* < 0.01; ****, *P* < 0.0001); the AUC ratio of 300-111 in media containing 44 mM NaHCO₃ is significantly greater than that of MRSA 11/11 and MW2 (*, *P* < 0.05).

therapy was ineffective in reducing bacterial counts in the target tissues of rabbits infected with two NaHCO₃-nonresponsive strains, COL or BMC1001 (Fig. 3B). The *in vitro* NaHCO₃-nonresponsive strain, 300-111, displayed a significant reduction in bacterial counts in all target tissues following cefazolin and oxacillin treatment; however, the magnitude of killing was significantly less than that observed in either NaHCO₃-responsive strain (Fig. 3B). Interestingly, the MICs determined in CA-MHB-Tris containing 44 mM NaHCO₃ were better predictors of treatment outcomes for all five strains than were the MICs determined in RPMI 1640, based roughly on previously established 2014 CLSI breakpoints (cefazolin breakpoints are no longer employed in the current 2018 CLSI guidelines [13, 30]: $S \le 8 \mu g/ml$, $I = 16 \mu g/ml$, $R \ge 32 \mu g/ml$) and current oxacillin breakpoints ($S \le 2 \mu g/ml$, $R \ge 4 \mu g/ml$ [31]).

It was important to ensure that β -lactam therapy in experimental IE caused by the NaHCO₃-responsive strains did not select for highly β -lactam-resistant subpopulations within target tissues after β -lactam therapy. Thus, at the time of sacrifice, homogenates from these organs were parallel plated onto tryptic soy agar (TSA) containing 64 μ g/ml of either cefazolin or oxacillin in animals treated with these respective agents. No such high-level β -lactam-resistant colonies were detected for either MRSA 11/11-infected or MW2-infected animals after therapy with either of the two β -lactam agents (data not shown).

To investigate whether exposure to $NaHCO_3$ itself might influence the tissue burdens of $NaHCO_3$ -responsive strains during induction of infection, in a separate study, MRSA 11/11 was grown overnight in CA-MHB-Tris containing 25 or 44 mM $NaHCO_3$ prior to infection of aortic valve-catheterized animals. At 24 h postinfection, there were no significant differences in target tissue MRSA counts between rabbits infected with



FIG 3 Treatment outcomes of rabbits with infective endocarditis treated with β -lactams. (A) NaHCO₃-responsive strains; (B) NaHCO₃-nonresponsive strains. All rabbits were treated with 100 mg/kg of cefazolin (CFZ) or oxacillin (OX), t.i.d., intramuscularly, for 4 days. Data for strains MRSA 11/11 (control, n = 6; CFZ, n = 8; OX, n = 6), MW2 (control, n = 7; CFZ, n = 6; OX, n = 7), COL (control, n = 6; CFZ, n = 8; OX, n = 6), MW2 (control, n = 7; OX, n = 7), and 300-111 (control, n = 6; CFZ, n = 4; OX, n = 6) are shown. The data presented indicate the mean tissue CFU/g for each treatment group \pm the SD. Statistical comparisons were made using a Kruskal-Wallis single-factor ANOVA and the *post hoc* pairwise Mann-Whitney U test (**, P < 0.01). Strain 300-111 had significantly greater cell counts in all target tissues following cefazolin and oxacillin therapy compared to both MRSA 11/11 and MW2 (*, P < 0.05).

MRSA 11/11 grown in NaHCO₃-free CA-MHB-Tris versus 25 or 44 mM NaHCO₃-containing CA-MHB-Tris (Fig. S3B). This confirmed that bicarbonate preexposure itself did not hinder the induction and early progression phases of infection in experimental IE caused by NaHCO₃-responsive strains.

NaHCO₃ levels in experimental IE. To put our *in vivo* outcomes in experimental IE into perspective, we measured [HCO_3^{-}] levels in both infected and uninfected rabbits. Quantification of [HCO_3^{-}] concentrations in the blood of animals with IE versus uninfected controls revealed that blood [HCO_3^{-}] levels remained relatively constant in the range of 20 to 25 mM (Fig. S3C). The fact that the maximal *in vitro* impact of NaHCO₃ supplementation of standard media was seen at 44 mM versus 25 mM suggested that other factors are likely in play *in vivo* which contribute to NaHCO₃ responsivity in experimental IE (e.g., host immune molecules and/or cells).

LL-37 synergy with β -lactams in the presence of physiological concentrations of NaHCO₃. We hypothesized that the high-level killing exhibited by β -lactams *in vivo* against the two NaHCO₃-responsive strains in the presence of physiologic concentrations of NaHCO₃ (ca. 20 to 25 mM) may be due to a synergistic effect between β -lactams and host immune factors, particularly host defense peptides. To further



FIG 4 LL-37 synergy with β -lactams in media containing 25 mM NaHCO₃. (A) MRSA 11/11 (NaHCO₃ responder); (B) MW2 (NaHCO₃ responder); (C) COL (NaHCO₃ nonresponder). CFZ, cefazolin; OX, oxacillin. Bars: no drug, hatched; LL-37 only, white; CFZ or OX, black; CFZ or OX plus LL-37, gray. MRSA 11/11 was exposed to 2.5 μ g/ml LL-37 and 0.03125 μ g/ml CFZ or OX. MW2 and COL were exposed to 5 μ g/ml LL-37 and 0.03125 μ g/ml CFZ or OX. MW2 and COL were exposed to 5 μ g/ml LL-37 and 0.0625 μ g/ml CFZ or OX. The percent survival was calculated after 4 h of exposure to antimicrobials in NaHCO₃-free DMEM supplemented with 25 mM NaHCO₃. The data are means of three independent runs performed in triplicate for each condition \pm the SD. Statistical comparisons were made using a Kruskal-Wallis single-factor ANOVA and the *post hoc* pairwise Mann-Whitney U test (**, *P* < 0.01; ***, *P* < 0.001).

investigate this, we performed a cell survival assay utilizing sublethal concentrations of the human cathelicidin, LL-37, in combination with cefazolin or oxacillin, in a minimal medium containing 25 mM NaHCO₃. Strains were exposed to LL-37 and the β -lactams alone or in combination in the presence of this physiological concentration of NaHCO₃.

When exposed to a combination of LL-37 and either cefazolin or oxacillin, both NaHCO₃-responsive strains displayed significantly lower MRSA survivals compared to either β -lactam agent alone (Fig. 4A and B). In contrast, the NaHCO₃-nonresponsive strain, COL, did not display synergistic killing when exposed to a combination of LL-37 plus either cefazolin or oxacillin (Fig. 4C), consistent with the results seen in the IE model. These data indicate that, although higher concentrations of NaHCO₃ (44 mM) are required *in vitro* to disclose "responsiveness" among MRSA strains, host defense and/or other serum factors may foster such responsivity *in vivo* in combination with more physiologic NaHCO₃ levels (ca. 20 to 25 mM).

Mechanisms of NaHCO₃-mediated β-lactam resensitization of MRSA: mecA and sarA expression. To understand the potential genetic basis for altered β -lactam susceptibility in selected MRSA strains in NaHCO3-containing media, we investigated the influence of NaHCO₃ on mecA and sarA gene expression. The mecA locus encodes penicillin-binding protein 2a (PBP2a) that confers β -lactam resistance in MRSA strains (24). In addition, recent studies have demonstrated that the global virulence gene regulator, sarA, can also modulate β -lactam resistance via both mecA-dependent and mecA-independent mechanisms (23). To investigate the influence of NaHCO₃ exposure on mecA and sarA gene expression, RNA was extracted from cells grown in media with and without NaHCO₃ in the absence or presence of 1/2 MIC of oxacillin (to maximally induce mecA expression). The quantitative real-time PCR (gRT-PCR) analyses revealed that mecA and sarA gene expression were each significantly repressed in the two NaHCO₃-responsive strains under both these mecA-noninducing and -inducing conditions (Fig. 5A and B). In contrast, mecA gene expression was not repressible in any NaHCO₃-nonresponsive strain (Fig. 5A and B). The expression of sarA was only slightly repressed in COL in NaHCO₃-supplemented media with oxacillin induction but was nonrepressible in media without oxacillin induction (Fig. 5A and B). The expression of sarA was also not repressible in the other NaHCO₃-nonresponsive strains, BMC1001 and 300-111 (Fig. 5A and B).

To phenotypically verify that the *mecA* repression observed in NaHCO₃-responsive strains correlated with diminished PBP2a protein production, a macroagglutination PBP2a production assay was utilized. A clear reduction in PBP2a agglutination was observed in both NaHCO₃-responsive strains after growth in NaHCO₃-containing media (Table 2; see Fig. S3 in the supplemental material), consistent with the reduced expression of *mecA*. The NaHCO₃-nonresponsive strains, COL and BMC1001, displayed high levels of agglutination in media with and without NaHCO₃ exposures (Table 2; see Fig. S3 in the supplemental material). Although *mecA* gene expression was not repressible in strain 300-111 in the presence NaHCO₃, the level of observable PBP2a agglutination was slightly diminished in media containing NaHCO₃.

Lipase production is one of the signature phenotypes normally repressed by the global regulator sarA (32, 33). To phenotypically confirm the blunting of sarA gene expression by NaHCO₃ exposures seen in NaHCO₃-responsive versus -nonresponsive strains, a tributyrin clearance assay was used to measure lipase production. As predicted by NaHCO₃ repression of sarA gene expression, NaHCO₃-responsive strains had significantly higher levels of lipase activity when exposed to NaHCO₃ (Fig. 5C). In contrast, lipase production in NaHCO₃-nonresponsive strains was not affected by the presence of NaHCO₃ (Fig. 5C).

DISCUSSION

Several studies have demonstrated the importance of NaHCO₃, the body's primary biological buffer, in altering susceptibility of *S. aureus* to various antibiotics, including β -lactams, as well as to the prototypical host defense peptide, LL-37 (17, 21, 27). Here, we show the ability of NaHCO₃ to increase susceptibility in selected MRSA strains to two conventional β -lactam agents commonly used to treat MSSA infections. This raises the intriguing possibility of treating MRSA infections with such β -lactam agents, a concept not currently endorsed by any therapeutic guidelines for MRSA (22). Since such β -lactams are relatively inexpensive and exhibit infrequent serious side effects (34), our findings are of potential clinical relevance. The results show that certain MRSA strains found to be β -lactam susceptible *in vitro* by AST with NaHCO₃ supplementation can be effectively treated by β -lactam therapy in a prototypical model of endovascular infections, experimental IE.

In vitro, NaHCO₃-responsive MRSA strains have a typical signature. They are heteroresistant on PAPs and have relatively low MICs within the MRSA range to conventional β -lactams (i.e., to cefazolin and oxacillin). Phenotypically, compared to NaHCO₃nonresponsive MRSA strains, such NaHCO₃-responsive MRSA strains are killed signifi-



FIG 5 mecA and sarA expression in NaHCO₃-responsive and NaHCO₃-nonresponsive strains. (A) qRT-PCR analysis of mecA and sarA gene expression in stationary-phase cells grown in CA-MHB-Tris with or without NaHCO₃. (B) qRT-PCR analysis of mecA and sarA gene expression in stationary-phase cells grown in CA-MHB-Tris plus 2% NaCl with or without NaHCO₃ with 1/2 MIC of oxacillin. Gene expression levels are normalized to the housekeeping gene gyrB. Gene expression values are normalized to CA-MHB-Tris for each strain. All data are derived from two independent biological replicates, tested in triplicate on two separate occasions. (B) Lipase production analysis in NaHCO₃-responsive and -nonresponsive strains grown in media with or without NaHCO₃. Values normalized to CA-MHB-Tris for each strain. The data are means of two independent runs performed in triplicate for each condition \pm the SD. Statistical comparisons were made using a Kruskal-Wallis single-factor ANOVA and the *post hoc* pairwise Mann-Whitney U test (*, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01; ****, P < 0.0001).

cantly better *in vitro* by these β -lactams in the presence versus absence of NaHCO₃, and NaHCO₃ substantially represess the growth of their resistant subpopulations.

Importantly, not all strains with relatively low intrinsic β -lactam MICs display the NaHCO₃-responsive phenotype, as demonstrated by strain 300-111. Despite displaying nearly identical basal β -lactam MICs to MRSA 11/11 in standard media, this "intermediate" NaHCO₃-nonresponsive strain was incompletely cleared from target tissues in experimental IE following cefazolin and oxacillin treatment. These outcomes under-

	PBP2a agglutination level ^a					
Strain	CA-MHB-Tris	CA-MHB-Tris, 44 mM NaHCO ₃				
MRSA 11/11	++	_				
MW2	++	-				
COL	+ + +	+++				
BMC1001	+ + +	+++				
300-111	+ + +	++				

TABLE 2 PBP2a agglutination of NaHCO_3-responsive and -nonresponsive strains grown in media with or without 44 mM NaHCO_3

aInterpretation of agglutination intensity: +++, high; ++, moderate; +, low; and -, none.

score the concept that the resistant subpopulations of such low-MIC, but NaHCO₃nonresponsive strains cannot be simply eliminated by achieving supra-MIC β -lactam serum levels in such infections. More such "intermediate" strains need to be studied in the IE model to verify this concept.

In our investigations, AST was performed at both 44 mM NaHCO₃, a concentration present in certain cell culture media (e.g., DMEM), as well as at 25 mM NaHCO₃, a physiologically relevant concentration for humans and rabbits (35). Although we saw highly effective β -lactam-mediated killing of our "responsive" strains *in vivo*, we saw only a modest impact at physiologically relevant concentrations of 25 mM NaHCO₃ *in vitro*. These results suggested that other factors previously implicated in endovascular pathogenesis, such as host defense peptides (e.g., LL-37 or α -defensin, hNP-1 [36–38]), might synergize with β -lactams at physiological NaHCO₃ concentrations to yield *in vivo* killing mirroring those observed *in vitro* at 44 mM NaHCO₃. Of note, data, at least for LL-37, supported this notion. We recognize that other innate host immune factors (e.g., neutrophils, serum complement, other host peptides, antistaphylococcal antibodies, etc.) may also contribute to enhanced bacterial killing by β -lactams *in vivo* in the presence of physiological concentrations of NaHCO₃.

In terms of how physiological concentrations of NaHCO₃ might impact MRSA to alter its intrinsic β -lactam susceptibility profiles, Farha et al. (27) proposed that this molecule was simply acting through its capacity to collapse the proton motive force (PMF; PMF = $\Delta\psi$ + Δ pH). Thus, [HCO₃⁻], via Le Chatelier's principle, would drive the reaction, H⁺ + [HCO₃⁻] >>> H₂O + CO₂ to consume protons and collapse PMF by mitigating the Δ pH. In their study, these researchers found that an MSSA strain became more resistant to oxacillin in the presence of NaHCO₃ (27) and attributed their observations to globally decreased cellular respiration and growth rates. Since β -lactams are more effective against rapidly dividing cells, these authors postulated the mechanism to be based in an overall impact of reduced respiratory energy production to fuel growth in the presence of PMF-modifying concentrations of NaHCO₃. In contradistinction, our study observed essentially the opposite result in MRSA, i.e., that certain MRSA strains become highly susceptible to β -lactams in the presence of NaHCO₃, indicating that additional changes to MRSA-defining gene expression patterns may overcome any inhibitory effect of NaHCO₃ on global cell metabolism to render such strains as β -lactam susceptible.

The β -lactam treatment of rabbits infected with *in vitro* NaHCO₃-responsive strains was highly effective in clearing infection in all target organs assessed. It was hypothesized that a decrease in overall virulence stimulated by growth in a NaHCO₃-containing microenvironment might be part of the explanation for increased susceptibility to β -lactam antibiotics under these conditions. However, overnight growth of the NaHCO₃-responsive strain, MRSA 11/11, in the presence of 25 or 44 mM NaHCO₃ prior to infection had no effect on the strain's ability to induce or propagate experimental IE.

Intriguingly, our *in vitro* MIC data obtained in CA-MHB containing 44 mM NaHCO₃ was a better predictor of *in vivo* outcomes than the tissue culture medium RPMI 1640. Although use of the latter medium for AST is gaining some traction as a "host mimicking milieu" (especially for Gram-negative pathogens [20, 25, 39]), we found that it falsely predicted the efficacy of oxacillin and cefazolin for the *in vivo* treatment of

some study MRSA strains, (e.g., BMC1001). Further head-to-head screening in both media, using larger MRSA strain collections, will be required to fully identify which medium is the best predictor of β -lactam efficacy *in vivo* against MRSA.

Gene expression analyses revealed that *mecA* and *sarA* were highly repressed *in vitro* in NaHCO₃-responsive versus NaHCO₃-nonresponsive strains. Repression of the *mecA* gene was, in turn, found to directly correspond to a decrease in PBP2a protein expression. It is unclear, however, whether NaHCO₃ has a direct impact on *mecA* expression, or whether altered *mecA* gene expression is mediated through repression of *sarA* or other global regulons. Recent studies have shown that deletion of *sarA* and *sigB* can reduce *mecA* expression (23); therefore, NaHCO₃ may be altering *mecA* expression directly and/or through one or both of these global regulatory pathways. In addition, we observed that the *mecA* and *sarA* expression levels were reduced by NaHCO₃ exposures in both the presence and the absence of oxacillin induction (Fig. 5A and B). This raises an intriguing dual-mechanism notion that NaHCO₃ can directly effect the basal expression of these genes, as well as interfere with *mecA* induction by β -lactams, such as oxacillin.

As discussed above, Dorschner et al. determined that NaHCO₃ had a significant repressive impact on expression of the *E. coli* homologue of the key *S. aureus* stress-response regulon, *sigB* (21). This locus is known to regulate pigment production in *S. aureus* (40); thus, factors that repress *sigB* expression ultimately reduce carotenoid production, altering membrane fluidity (41). Carotenoid is critical for oligomerization and proper insertion of PBP2a into the cell membrane (42). NaHCO₃'s potentially repressive impact on the *sigB* regulatory axis could thus result in a decrease in carotenoid production. This event, combined with decreased PBP2a expression in NaHCO₃-responsive strains, could yield MRSA cells that are phenotypically *"mecA* defective." In this regard, pilot studies in our laboratory have confirmed that *in vitro* NaHCO₃ exposures in both *"*responsive" and *"*nonresponsive" MRSA can repress *sigB* expression, as well as carotenoid production (data not shown). Thus, bicarbonate repression of the *sigB* regulatory axis does not appear to play a principal role in β -lactam resensitization by bicarbonate in MRSA.

Although we have identified at least two genetic targets of NaHCO₃ that may influence MRSA resistance to β -lactams, it is highly likely that NaHCO₃ has pleotropic effects on multiple gene expression profiles which may contribute to β -lactam susceptibility in NaHCO₃-responsive strains. Furthermore, different pathways may be activated or repressed in individual "responsive" and "nonresponsive" strains, resulting in multiple "genetic types" of NaHCO₃ responsiveness. For example, wall teichoic acid (WTA) forms a scaffold for PBP2a maturation, allowing its insertion into the cell membrane (43). Deletion of genes involved in WTA synthesis can render MRSA strains more susceptible to β -lactams (43, 44), indicating that this may be another potential site of NaHCO₃ action on gene expression. The modest decrease in PBP2a expression in strain 300-111, despite *mecA* expression being nonrepressible by NaHCO₃ in this strain, highlights the latter point. Thus, NaHCO₃ may be affecting multiple pathways in this nonresponsive strain, causing an increase in *mecA* gene expression but a slight overall decrease in membrane insertion of mature PBP2a.

Another potential "checkpoint" for NaHCO₃ is PBP4, a protein involved in the generation of highly cross-linked peptidoglycan. Although this PBP is normally dispensable in MSSA (45, 46), MRSA strains require its activity for proper peptidoglycan cross-linking (47), without which it is dependent on the β -lactam-susceptible PBP2 for peptidoglycan synthesis. Interestingly, inhibition of PBP4 activity has been shown to diminish cell wall cross-linking in β -lactam heteroresistant MRSA strains but had no effect on cross-linking in homoresistant strains (48). Currently, little is known about the regulation of PBP4 expression (49); however, further investigations into the effect of NaHCO₃ on PBP4 protein production may offer additional insights into mechanisms underlying NaHCO₃-responsive versus NaHCO₃-nonresponsive phenotypes.

Other potential genes that might be involved in the "bicarbonate effect" in MRSA include *prsA*, *vraSR*, *mprF*, and *graSR* (50–57). Each of these genes has been implicated

in a phenomenon somewhat akin to NaHCO₃/ β -lactam responsivity called the "seesaw" effect, in which MRSA cells that evolve daptomycin resistance become resensitized to β -lactams (50–53). Many of these genetic perturbation possibilities are under active investigation in our labs using whole-genome sequencing and RNA sequencing analyses.

One of the major limitations of our study is the fact that only five MRSA strains were investigated. We are currently screening a large collection of well-characterized clinical MRSA strains which represent the broad range of clonal complex, *agr*, SCC*mec*, and *spa* types in current worldwide circulation for their NaHCO₃-responsive profiles *in vitro*. Subsets of these strains will then be subjected to the same *in vivo* testing in the IE model as in the current work to further verify the linkage between *in vitro* NaHCO₃ responsivity and effective β -lactam therapy *in vivo*.

A key in vivo finding in the present study was that, in NaHCO₃-responsive MRSA IE, neither treatment with oxacillin nor treatment with cefazolin selected for the emergence of high-level (MICs > 64 μ g/ml) β -lactam-resistant subpopulations within cardiac vegetations. It should be emphasized, however, that one additional limitation of the present investigation was that rabbit vegetations are considerably smaller than those of humans with IE (\sim 2 to 3 mm in diameter [corresponding to a weight of \sim 50 to 100 mg] versus \sim 1 cm in diameter [corresponding to \sim 500 to 1,000 mg], respectively) (50-52). Therefore, if bacterial densities observed in the rabbit IE model (which can reach 10⁸ to 10⁹ CFU/gm) are similar to those in humans, then the total bacterial burden in human vegetations would be at least 10 times higher than in the rabbit IE model. This would correspondingly increase the chance that highly resistant subpopulations might well emerge during β -lactam therapy in human IE. This metric will need to be carefully monitored in any future clinical trials. Once a reliable and facile method for identifying potentially β -lactam-responsive MRSA strains has been established and verified, large-scale clinical trials to evaluate the effectiveness of β -lactam therapy for treating selected MRSA infections in human patients would be warranted.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains and media. The methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) strains used in this study were all initially derived from patients with clinical infections: MRSA 11/11 (USA300), MW2 (USA400), COL (USA100), BMC1001 (USA500), and 300-111 (CC8, *spa* type 4, Iberian clone) (53–58). These prototypical strains encompass the range of clonal complex, *agr*, and SCC*mec* genotypes that are in current worldwide clinical circulation. In addition, several of these strains have been previously used in experimental studies of virulence, pathogenesis and antimicrobial responsiveness (MW2, COL, and MRSA 11/11) (5, 23, 56, 59). In experimental IE studies, we also included the well-known MSSA strain, ATCC 25923, as a control.

MRSA and MSSA strains were stored at -80° C until thawed for use. They were isolated on tryptic soy agar (TSA) and incubated at 37° C in ambient air. Bacteria were grown for most experiments, including AST, overnight in cation-adjusted Mueller-Hinton broth (CA-MHB; Difco) with the addition of 100 mM Tris (hydroxymethyl-aminomethane) to maintain pH at $\sim 7.3 \pm 0.1$ throughout all AST testing (Fisher Scientific). In parallel studies, CA-MHB-Tris was supplemented with either 25 or 44 mM NaHCO₃; these NaHCO₃ concentrations represent physiologic bloodstream concentrations, and those found in DMEM, respectively. In parallel control assays, AST testing was also performed in the tissue culture medium, Roswell Park Memorial Institute (RPMI) 1640 (Fisher Scientific) supplemented with 10% Luria-Bertani (LB) broth. All media were supplemented with 2% NaCl when assays were performed in which MRSA cells were exposed to oxacillin.

MIC assays. The MICs of cefazolin and oxacillin were determined according to the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) guidelines by broth microdilution (12, 13). MRSA were grown overnight in specified media and diluted into the same media containing 2-fold serial dilutions of antibiotics. We added 2% NaCl to all media when performing oxacillin MICs. All MIC values are the mode of at least six independent determinations.

For MIC determinations performed in the presence or absence of salicylic acid, we used CA-MHB plus 100 mM Tris (CA-MHB-Tris) with or without 25 or 50 μ g/ml salicylic acid.

Time-kill assays. Cells were grown overnight in specified testing media and diluted to 5×10^5 CFU/ml in 200 μ l of same media on a 96-well plate (flat bottom; tissue culture-treated). Based on pilot experiments, cells were incubated at 37°C for 3 h to enter log phase and then diluted to 5×10^5 CFU/ml in 200 μ l of the same media, with or without antibiotic, in a 96-well flat-bottom plate. Plates were then incubated at 37°C for 24 h. Surviving cells were quantified at 0, 2, 4, 8, and 24 h of incubation, and data are expressed as the log₁₀ CFU/ml. A bactericidal effect was defined as a \geq 3-log₁₀ CFU/ml decline in counts at 24 h versus the count at 0 h.

Population analysis profiles. The PAP protocol was modified from published guidelines (60–63). In brief, agar plates were prepared with Mueller-Hinton Agar (MHA) supplemented with 100 mM Tris, 2% NaCl, and 44 mM NaHCO₃ (where indicated) at pH ~7.3 \pm 0.1, containing 2-fold serial dilutions of cefazolin or oxacillin at concentrations ranging from 0.0625 to 1024 µg/ml. Bacterial cells were grown overnight in broth testing medium and diluted to ~1 \times 10° CFU/ml in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). Ten-fold serial dilutions were performed in PBS, and 10 µl of each dilution was plated onto the MHA plates. After 48 h of incubation at 30°C, plates were enumerated for viable cells at each drug concentration. The area under a population analysis profile (PAP) curve (AUC) was calculated by linear approximation.

Synergy of β -lactams with host defense peptides. For studies of β -lactam synergy with host defense peptides, a prototypical host defense peptide, LL-37, was used. This cathelicidin peptide is commonly found in large amounts in human epithelial cells, as well as in neutrophils (64, 65), and has been documented to play an important role in innate immunity (66–68). Highly purified LL-37 was purchased commercially from Peptides International (Lexington, KY).

MRSA strains were grown overnight in NaHCO₃-free DMEM (Gibco) supplemented with 25 mM NaHCO₃ and diluted into the same medium supplemented with 150 mM NaCl. Diluted cells were incubated for 3 h at 37°C to enter log-phase growth. Log-phase cells were then diluted to 1×10^3 CFU/ml with LL-37, cefazolin, and oxacillin, alone or in combination; this inoculum has been used as a standard in our prior killing assays with host defense peptides (69). The final concentrations of the antimicrobials were as follows: 2.5 μ g/ml LL-37 (MRSA 11/11), 5 μ g/ml LL-37 (MW2 and COL), 0.03125 μ g/ml cefazolin and oxacillin (MRSA 11/11), and 0.0625 μ g/ml cefazolin and oxacillin (MW2 and COL). These antibiotic concentrations were determined after extensive pilot studies to represent individual drug levels that did not cause \geq 50% killing of this starting MRSA inoculum. Surviving cells were quantified after 4 h of incubation with antimicrobials at 37°C, and the percent survival was calculated at this time point as follows: (CFU with antimicrobial/CFU with no antimicrobial) \times 100.

Isolation of RNA and quantitative real-time PCR analyses. To quantify expression of two key genes involved in the MRSA phenotype (*mecA* and *sarA*), total RNA was isolated from the study strains following overnight growth in media with or without NaHCO₃ supplementation using an RNeasy kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA) (59). Cells were grown overnight in specified media (CA-MHB-Tris \pm 44 mM NaHCO₃) and then diluted 1:100 into the same media and, followed by incubation at 37°C overnight. To quantify the combined effect of oxacillin stimulation and NaHCO₃ exposure on gene expression, cells were grown as specified, but diluted into media containing 1/2 MIC of oxacillin (with 2% NaCI). qRT-PCR was performed using primers for *mecA*, *sarA*, and *gyrB* as previously described (59, 70, 71). *gyrB* was used as a housekeeping gene to normalize transcript quantifications. Relative quantification was calculated using the $\Delta\Delta C_T$ method. All qRT-PCR gene expression data were determined from two separate biological replicates for each condition, tested in triplicate. The data are presented as the fold change in gene expression in the presence of NaHCO₃ exposures compared to CA-MHB-Tris alone for each strain, with CA-MHB-Tris gene expression data being normalized to 1.0.

PBP2a agglutination assays. A semiquantitative, rapid, and reliable latex agglutination method (Seiken, Tokyo, Japan) was used to measure PBP2a production (72), using beads labeled with specific anti-PBP2a antibody (73). Strains were grown overnight in specified media (CA-MHB-Tris \pm 44 mM NaHCO₃) at 37°C. Cells were collected by centrifugation, washed once in PBS, resuspended in PBS to an optical density at 600 nm (OD₆₀₀) of 1.0, and pelleted. Pellets were prepped for PBP2a agglutination according to the manufacturer's instructions. Agglutination results were scored blindly and separately by two investigators (S.C.E. and L.L.) and scored as high (+++), moderate (++), low (+), or negative (-) based on the presence or absence of an overt agglutination pattern. S. *aureus* ATCC 43300 (MRSA; PBP2a positive) and ATCC 25923 (MSSA; PBP2a negative) were used as positive and negative controls, respectively, in all assays.

Lipase assays. Lipase production is normally repressed by *sarA* (33, 74). As a phenotypic readout for NaHCO₃-mediated *sarA* repression, a spectrophotometric assay measuring the rate of clearance of a tributyrin emulsion was used to measure lipase activity (75). Strains were grown overnight in specified media (CA-MHB-Tris \pm 44 mM NaHCO₃) at 37°C and then diluted to $\sim 1 \times 10^9$ CFU/ml in same media and filter sterilized. A 0.5% (vol/vol) tributyrin solution (Sigma) was prepared in 100 mM Tris (pH 8.0) plus 25 mM CaCl₂ and emulsified by sonication for 3 min. The tributyrin emulsion was diluted 1:1 with a 0.8% (wt/vol) low-gelling-temperature agarose (Sigma), and the suspension was maintained at 50°C. Then, 1 ml of the tributyrin suspension was added to 100 μ l of each supernatant in a spectrophotometric cuvette, and the OD₄₅₀ was measured at time zero and at 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 min. Lipase activity was calculated as the rate of clearance normalized to the cell density of each sample. A higher rate of clearance corresponds to greater lipase activity. The data are presented as the fold change in lipase activity in the presence of NaHCO₃ compared to CA-MHB-Tris alone for each strain, with CA-MHB-Tris alone lipase activity being normalized to 1.0. As stated above, increases in lipase activity correlate with repression of the *sarA* gene "tone" (activity) (33).

Rabbit model of MRSA infective endocarditis. To verify the *in vivo* translatability of the relationship between NaHCO₃ responsiveness or NaHCO₃ nonresponsiveness observed *in vitro*, a well-characterized rabbit model of indwelling catheter-induced aortic valve infective endocarditis (IE) was used (59). This model is ideal for these studies since it represents a combined acute bacteremia and subacute multitarget organ, high-inoculum infection (66). Rabbits were infected intravenously at 48 h after catheter placement with 2×10^5 CFU/animal of the indicated strain; this inoculum represents the 95% infective dose for inducing IE, as established by extensive pilot experiments for each strain. At 24 h postinfection, the animals were randomized into either an untreated control group (sacrificed at this time

point as a therapeutic baseline) or β -lactam-treated groups (100 mg/kg cefazolin or oxacillin, administered by intramuscular injection, three times daily [t.i.d.] for 4 days). These β -lactam treatment strategies encompass (i) dose regimens used in prior studies of experimental IE (5) and (ii) doses that mimic human-like pharmacokinetics in experimental IE (29).

To provide a perspective on the extent of β -lactam-mediated killing *in vivo* in experimental IE among NaHCO₃-responsive versus NaHCO₃-nonresponsive MRSA, we performed a parallel study using the highly cefazolin-susceptible MSSA strain, ATCC 25923, treated with the same cefazolin treatment regimen used above for MRSA IE.

In all studies, at 24 h after the last antibiotic treatment, the animals were sacrificed, and their cardiac vegetations, kidneys, and spleens were removed and quantitatively cultured on TSA. MRSA counts were expressed as the mean \log_{10} CFU per gram of tissue (\pm the standard deviations [SD]). To assess the potential emergence of high-level resistance to either cefazolin or oxacillin for strains MRSA 11/11 and MW2 during such β -lactam treatments, the three target tissues were parallel plated on the above media, but containing 64 μ g/ml of the antibiotic of interest. The limit of detection in target organ cultures in this model, based on average target tissue weights, is $\leq 2 \log_{10}$ CFU/g.

To determine whether preincubation of NaHCO₃-responsive MRSA in media containing NaHCO₃ itself might influence the initial induction and/or early progression phases of experimental IE, MRSA 11/11 was grown overnight in CA-MHB-Tris with either 25 or 44 mM NaHCO₃. Rabbits were then infected intravenously at 48 h after catheter placement with 2×10^5 CFU/animal with NaHCO₃-preexposed cells. At 24 h postinfection, the rabbits were sacrificed, and the same target tissues described above were removed and quantitatively cultured on TSA.

Statistics. All statistical comparisons were made using a Kruskal-Wallis single-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) test and a pairwise Mann-Whitney U test *post hoc* comparison. The data are presented, unless otherwise indicated, as the sample means \pm the SD. *P* values of <0.05 were considered statistically significant.

Study approval. Female New Zealand White rabbits (weighing 2.2 to 2.5 kg) were used in all animal studies (Irish Farm). The rabbits were maintained in accordance with the American Association for Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care criteria. The Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the Los Angeles Biomedical Research Institute at Harbor–UCLA Medical Center approved all animal study protocols.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

Supplemental material for this article may be found at https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC .00496-19.

SUPPLEMENTAL FILE 1, PDF file, 0.6 MB.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This project was supported in part by National Institutes of Health (National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Disease) grants R01 Al100291 (to H.F.C.), R01 Al039108 (to A.S.B.), and R01Al041513, 1R42Al36065-01A1, and R42Al118133 (to Y.Q.X.).

The authors have declared no conflict of interest exists.

All authors read and approved the final manuscript. Specific contributions were as follows: concept and design (S.C.E., A.S.B., and Y.Q.X.), collection of data (S.C.E., W.A., and L.L.), analysis of data (S.C.E., A.S.B., LL, Y.Q.X., and H.F.C.), drafting the manuscript (S.C.E., A.S.B., and Y.Q.X.), critical revision of the manuscript (S.C.E., A.S.B., Y.Q.X., L.L., W.A., and H.F.C.), and final acceptance of the manuscript (all authors).

REFERENCES

- Tong SY, Davis JS, Eichenberger E, Holland TL, Fowler VG. 2015. *Staphy-lococcus aureus* infections: epidemiology, pathophysiology, clinical manifestations, and management. Clin Microbiol Rev 28:603–661. https://doi.org/10.1128/CMR.00134-14.
- David MZ, Daum RS, Bayer AS, Chambers HF, Fowler VG, Jr, Miller LG, Ostrowsky B, Baesa A, Boyle-Vavra S, Eells SJ, Garcia-Houchins S, Gialanella P, Macias-Gil R, Rude TH, Ruffin F, Sieth JJ, Volinski J, Spellberg B. 2014. *Staphylococcus aureus* bacteremia at 5 US academic medical centers, 2008–2011: significant geographic variation in community-onset infections. Clin Infect Dis 59:798–807. https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciu410.
- 3. Ventola CL. 2015. The antibiotic resistance crisis. 1. Causes and threats. P T 40:277.
- Vouillamoz J, Entenza J, Feger C, Glauser M, Moreillon P. 2000. Quinupristin-dalfopristin combined with β-lactams for treatment of experimental endocarditis due to *Staphylococcus aureus* constitutively resistant to macrolide-lincosamide-streptogramin B antibiotics. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 44:1789–1795. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.44.7.1789 -1795.2000.

- Trotonda MP, Xiong YQ, Memmi G, Bayer AS, Cheung AL. 2009. Role of mgrA and sarA in methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus autolysis and resistance to cell wall-active antibiotics. J Infect Dis 199:209–218. https:// doi.org/10.1086/595740.
- Brandt CM, Rouse MS, Tallan BM, Laue NW, Wilson WR, Steckelberg JM. 1995. Effective treatment of cephalosporin-rifampin combinations against cryptic methicillin-resistant beta-lactamase-producing coagulasenegative staphylococcal experimental endocarditis. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 39:1815–1819. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.39.8.1815.
- Purrello S, Garau J, Giamarellos E, Mazzei T, Pea F, Soriano A, Stefani S. 2016. Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* infections: a review of the currently available treatment options. J Glob Antimicrob Resist 7:178–186. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jgar.2016.07.010.
- Edwards B, Andini R, Esposito S, Grossi P, Lew D, Mazzei T, Novelli A, Soriano A, Gould I. 2014. Treatment options for methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) infection: where are we now? J Glob Antimicrob Resist 2:133–140. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jgar.2014.03 .009.

- Rayner C, Munckhof W. 2005. Antibiotics currently used in the treatment of infections caused by *Staphylococcus aureus*. Intern Med J 35:S3–16. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1444-0903.2005.00976.x.
- Van Bambeke F, Mingeot-Leclercq M-P, Struelens MJ, Tulkens PM. 2008. The bacterial envelope as a target for novel anti-MRSA antibiotics. Trends Pharmacol Sci 29:124–134. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tips.2007.12 .004.
- 11. Projan S, Shlaes D. 2004. Antibacterial drug discovery: is it all downhill from here? Clin Microbiol Infect 10:18–22. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1465 -0691.2004.1006.x.
- 12. Cockerill FR. 2012. Methods for dilution antimicrobial susceptibility tests for bacteria that grow aerobically: approved standard. Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute, Wayne, PA.
- Patel J, Cockerill F, Alder J, Bradford P, Eliopoulos G, Hardy D, Hindler J, Jenkins S, Lewis J, Miller L. 2014. Performance standards for antimicrobial susceptibility testing; 24th informational supplement, vol 34. Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute, Wayne, PA.
- Rose WE, Leonard SN, Sakoulas G, Kaatz GW, Zervos MJ, Sheth A, Carpenter CF, Rybak MJ. 2008. Daptomycin activity against *Staphylococcus aureus* following vancomycin exposure in an *in vitro* pharmacodynamic model with simulated endocardial vegetations. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 52:831–836. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00869-07.
- Akins RL, Rybak MJ. 2001. Bactericidal activities of two daptomycin regimens against clinical strains of glycopeptide intermediate-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*, vancomycin-resistant *Enterococcus faecium*, and methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates in an *in vitro* pharmacodynamic model with simulated endocardial vegetations. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 45:454–459. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.45.2 .454-459.2001.
- Kubicek-Sutherland JZ, Heithoff DM, Ersoy SC, Shimp WR, House JK, Marth JD, Smith JW, Mahan MJ. 2015. Host-dependent induction of transient antibiotic resistance: a prelude to treatment failure. EBioMedicine 2:1169–1178. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ebiom.2015.08.012.
- Ersoy SC, Heithoff DM, Barnes L, Tripp GK, House JK, Marth JD, Smith JW, Mahan MJ. 2017. Correcting a fundamental flaw in the paradigm for antimicrobial susceptibility testing. EBioMedicine 20:173–181. https:// doi.org/10.1016/j.ebiom.2017.05.026.
- Clarke S, Haigh R, Freestone P, Williams P. 2003. Virulence of enteropathogenic *Escherichia coli*, a global pathogen. Clin Microbiol Rev 16: 365–378. https://doi.org/10.1128/CMR.16.3.365-378.2003.
- 19. Kenny B, Abe A, Stein M, Finlay BB. 1997. Enteropathogenic *Escherichia coli* protein secretion is induced in response to conditions similar to those in the gastrointestinal tract. Infect Immun 65:2606–2612.
- Lin L, Nonejuie P, Munguia J, Hollands A, Olson J, Dam Q, Kumaraswamy M, Rivera H, Jr, Corriden R, Rohde M, Hensler ME, Burkart MD, Pogliano J, Sakoulas G, Nizet V. 2015. Azithromycin synergizes with cationic antimicrobial peptides to exert bactericidal and therapeutic activity against highly multidrug-resistant Gram-negative bacterial pathogens. EBioMedicine 2:690–698. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ebiom.2015.05.021.
- Dorschner RA, Lopez-Garcia B, Peschel A, Kraus D, Morikawa K, Nizet V, Gallo RL. 2006. The mammalian ionic environment dictates microbial susceptibility to antimicrobial defense peptides. FASEB J 20:35–42. https://doi.org/10 .1096/fj.05-4406com.
- 22. Liu C, Bayer A, Cosgrove SE, Daum RS, Fridkin SK, Gorwitz RJ, Kaplan SL, Karchmer AW, Levine DP, Murray BE, Rybak MJ, Talan DA, Chambers HF. 2011. Clinical practice guidelines by the Infectious Diseases Society of America for the treatment of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* infections in adults and children. Clin Infect Dis 52:e18–e55. https://doi .org/10.1093/cid/ciq146.
- Li L, Cheung A, Bayer AS, Chen L, Abdelhady W, Kreiswirth BN, Yeaman MR, Xiong YQ. 2016. The global regulon *sarA* regulates beta-lactam antibiotic resistance in methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus in vitro* and in endovascular infections. J Infect Dis 214:1421–1429. https:// doi.org/10.1093/infdis/jiw386.
- Hiramatsu K, Asada K, Suzuki E, Okonogi K, Yokota T. 1992. Molecular cloning and nucleotide sequence determination of the regulator region of *mecA* gene in methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA). FEBS Lett 298:133–136. https://doi.org/10.1016/0014-5793(92)80039-J.
- Kumaraswamy M, Lin L, Olson J, Sun C-F, Nonejuie P, Corriden R, Döhrmann S, Ali SR, Amaro D, Rohde M, Pogliano J, Sakoulas G, Nizet V. 2016. Standard susceptibility testing overlooks potent azithromycin activity and cationic peptide synergy against MDR *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia*. J Antimicrob Chemother 71:1264–1269. https://doi.org/10 .1093/jac/dkv487.

- Farha MA, French S, Stokes JM, Brown ED. 2018. Bicarbonate alters bacterial susceptibility to antibiotics by targeting the proton motive force. ACS Infect Dis 4:382–390. https://doi.org/10.1021/acsinfecdis.7b00194.
- Liu C, Chambers HF. 2003. *Staphylococcus aureus* with heterogeneous resistance to vancomycin: epidemiology, clinical significance, and critical assessment of diagnostic methods. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 47: 3040–3045. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.47.10.3040-3045.2003.
- Bergan T. 1977. Comparative pharmacokinetics of cefazolin, cephalothin, cephacetril, and cephapirine after intravenous administration. Chemotherapy 23:389–404. https://doi.org/10.1159/000222009.
- 30. Dien Bard J, Hindler JA, Gold HS, Limbago B. 2014. Rationale for eliminating *Staphylococcus* breakpoints for β -lactam agents other than penicillin, oxacillin or cefoxitin, and ceftaroline. Clin Infect Dis 58:1287–1296. https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciu043.
- 31. Weinstein MP, Patel JB, Campeau S, Eliopoulos GM, Galas MF, Humphries RM, Jenkins SG, II, Lewis JS, Limbago B, Mathers AJ, Mazzulli T, Patel R, Richter SS, Satlin M, Swenson JM, Zimmer BL. 2018. Performance standards for antimicrobial susceptibility testing. Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute, Wayne, PA.
- Kupferwasser LI, Yeaman MR, Nast CC, Kupferwasser D, Xiong Y-Q, Palma M, Cheung AL, Bayer AS. 2003. Salicylic acid attenuates virulence in endovascular infections by targeting global regulatory pathways in *Staphylococcus aureus*. J Clin Invest 112:222. https://doi.org/10.1172/ JCI16876.
- Cheung AL, Zhang G. 2002. Global regulation of virulence determinants in *Staphylococcus aureus* by the SarA protein family. Front Biosci 7:d1825–d1842. https://doi.org/10.2741/A882.
- Donowitz GR, Mandell GL. 1988. Beta-lactam antibiotics. N Engl J Med 318:490–500. https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJM198802253180806.
- MayoClinic. 2018. Bicarbonate, serum. Mayo Foundation for Medical Education and Research, Rochester, MN. https://www.mayocliniclabs .com/test-catalog/Clinical+and+Interpretive/876.
- Mishra NN, McKinnell J, Yeaman MR, Rubio A, Nast CC, Chen L, Kreiswirth BN, Bayer AS. 2011. *In vitro* cross-resistance of daptomycin and host defense cationic antimicrobial peptides in clinical methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) isolates. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 55:4012–4018. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00223-11.
- Mishra NN, Bayer AS, Moise PA, Yeaman MR, Sakoulas G. 2012. Reduced susceptibility to host-defense cationic peptides and daptomycin coemerge in methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* from daptomycinnaive bacteremic patients. J Infect Dis 206:1160–1167. https://doi.org/ 10.1093/infdis/jis482.
- Dürr M, Peschel A. 2002. Chemokines meet defensins: the merging concepts of chemoattractants and antimicrobial peptides in host defense. Infect Immun 70:6515–6517. https://doi.org/10.1128/IAI.70.12 .6515-6517.2002.
- Sakoulas G, Rose W, Berti A, Olson J, Munguia J, Nonejuie P, Sakoulas E, Rybak MJ, Pogliano J, Nizet V. 2017. Classical β-lactamase inhibitors potentiate the activity of daptomycin against methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* and colistin against *Acinetobacter baumannii*. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 61:e01745–16.
- Kullik I, Giachino P, Fuchs T. 1998. Deletion of the alternative sigma factor σB in *Staphylococcus aureus* reveals its function as a global regulator of virulence genes. J Bacteriol 180:4814–4820.
- Tiwari K, Gatto C, Wilkinson BJ. 2018. Factors influencing the production of different types of fatty acid and staphyloxanthin in the *Staphylococcus aureus* membrane. Molecules 23:1201. https://doi .org/10.3390/molecules23051201.
- García-Fernández E, Koch G, Wagner RM, Fekete A, Stengel ST, Schneider J, Mielich-Süss B, Geibel S, Markert SM, Stigloher C, Lopez D. 2017. Membrane microdomain disassembly inhibits MRSA antibiotic resistance. Cell 171:1354–1367. e20. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2017.10 .012.
- Brown S, Xia G, Luhachack LG, Campbell J, Meredith TC, Chen C, Winstel V, Gekeler C, Irazoqui JE, Peschel A, Walker S. 2012. Methicillin resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus* requires glycosylated wall teichoic acids. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 109:18909–18914. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas .1209126109.
- 44. Campbell J, Singh AK, Santa Maria JP, Jr, Kim Y, Brown S, Swoboda JG, Mylonakis E, Wilkinson BJ, Walker S. 2011. Synthetic lethal compound combinations reveal a fundamental connection between wall teichoic

acid and peptidoglycan biosyntheses in *Staphylococcus aureus*. ACS Chem Biol 6:106–116. https://doi.org/10.1021/cb100269f.

- Reed P, Atilano ML, Alves R, Hoiczyk E, Sher X, Reichmann NT, Pereira PM, Roemer T, Filipe SR, Pereira-Leal JB, Ligoxygakis P, Pinho MG. 2015. *Staphylococcus aureus* survives with a minimal peptidoglycan synthesis machine but sacrifices virulence and antibiotic resistance. PLoS Pathog 11:e1004891. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1004891.
- 46. Łeski TA, Tomasz A. 2005. Role of penicillin-binding protein 2 (PBP2) in the antibiotic susceptibility and cell wall cross-linking of *Staphylococcus aureus*: evidence for the cooperative functioning of PBP2, PBP4, and PBP2A. J Bacteriol 187:1815–1824. https://doi.org/10.1128/JB.187.5.1815 -1824.2005.
- 47. Memmi G, Filipe SR, Pinho MG, Fu Z, Cheung A. 2008. *Staphylococcus aureus* PBP4 is essential for β-lactam resistance in community-acquired methicillin-resistant strains. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 52: 3955–3966. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00049-08.
- Higashi Y, Wakabayashi A, Matsumoto Y, Watanabe Y, Ohno A. 1999. Role of inhibition of penicillin binding proteins and cell wall crosslinking by beta-lactam antibiotics in low-and high-level methicillin resistance of *Staphylococcus aureus*. Chemotherapy 45:37–47. https:// doi.org/10.1159/000007163.
- da Costa TM, de Oliveira CR, Chambers HF, Chatterjee SS. 2018. PBP4: a new perspective on *Staphylococcus aureus* β-lactam resistance. Microorganisms 6:57. https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms6030057.
- Durack D, Beeson P, Petersdorf R. 1973. Experimental bacterial endocarditis. III. Production and progress of the disease in rabbits. Br J Exp Pathol 54:142.
- Rohmann S, Erbel R, Darius H, Görge G, Makowski T, Zotz R, Mohr-Kahaly S, Nixdorff U, Drexler M, Meyer J. 1991. Prediction of rapid versus prolonged healing of infective endocarditis by monitoring vegetation size. J Am Soc Echocardiogr 4:465–474. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0894 -7317(14)80380-5.
- Jaffe WM, Morgan DE, Pearlman AS, Otto CM. 1990. Infective endocarditis, 1983–1988: echocardiographic findings and factors influencing morbidity and mortality. J Am Coll Cardiol 15:1227–1233. https://doi .org/10.1016/S0735-1097(10)80005-1.
- Murthy MH, Olson ME, Wickert RW, Fey PD, Jalali Z. 2008. Daptomycin non-susceptible methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* USA 300 isolate. J Med Microbiol 57:1036–1038. https://doi.org/10.1099/jmm.0 .2008/000588-0.
- Bratu S, Eramo A, Kopec R, Coughlin E, Ghitan M, Yost R, Chapnick EK, Landman D, Quale J. 2005. Community-associated methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in hospital nursery and maternity units. Emerg Infect Dis 11:808. https://doi.org/10.3201/eid1106.040885.
- 55. Kornblum J, Hartman B, Novick R, Tomasz A. 1986. Conversion of a homogeneously methicillin-resistant strain of *Staphylococcus aureus* to heterogeneous resistance by Tn551-mediated insertional inactivation. Eur J Clin Microbiol 5:714–718. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02013311.
- 56. Yang S-J, Xiong YQ, Boyle-Vavra S, Daum R, Jones T, Bayer AS. 2010. Daptomycin-oxacillin combinations in treatment of experimental endocarditis caused by daptomycin-nonsusceptible strains of methicillinresistant *Staphylococcus aureus* with evolving oxacillin susceptibility (the "seesaw effect"). Antimicrob Agents Chemother 54:3161–3169. https:// doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00487-10.
- Seidl K, Bayer AS, Fowler VG, McKinnell JA, Hady WA, Sakoulas G, Yeaman MR, Xiong YQ. 2011. Combinatorial phenotypic signatures distinguish persistent from resolving methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* bacteremia isolates. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 55:575–582. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.01028-10.
- Ferry T, Bes M, Dauwalder O, Meugnier H, Lina G, Forey F, Vandenesch F, Etienne J. 2006. Toxin gene content of the Lyon methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* clone compared with that of other pandemic clones. J Clin Microbiol 44:2642–2644. https://doi.org/10.1128/JCM.004 30-06.
- Abdelhady W, Bayer AS, Seidl K, Moormeier DE, Bayles KW, Cheung A, Yeaman MR, Xiong YQ. 2014. Impact of vancomycin on *sarA*-mediated biofilm formation: role in persistent endovascular infections due to methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. J Infect Dis 209:1231–1240. https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/jiu007.

- Moore MR, Perdreau-Remington F, Chambers HF. 2003. Vancomycin treatment failure associated with heterogeneous vancomycinintermediate *Staphylococcus aureus* in a patient with endocarditis and in the rabbit model of endocarditis. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 47: 1262–1266. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.47.4.1262-1266.2003.
- Pinho MG, de Lencastre H, Tomasz A. 1998. Transcriptional analysis of the *Staphylococcus aureus* penicillin binding protein 2 gene. J Bacteriol 180:6077–6081.
- 62. Abdelhady W, Bayer AS, Seidl K, Nast CC, Kiedrowski MR, Horswill AR, Yeaman MR, Xiong YQ. 2013. Reduced vancomycin susceptibility in an *in vitro* catheter-related biofilm model correlates with poor therapeutic outcomes in experimental endocarditis due to methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 57:1447–1454. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.02073-12.
- Chambers HF, Sachdeva M, Kennedy S. 1990. Binding affinity for penicillin-binding protein 2a correlates with *in vivo* activity of β-Lactan antibiotics against methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. J Infect Dis 162:705–710. https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/162.3.705.
- Sørensen OE, Follin P, Johnsen AH, Calafat J, Tjabringa GS, Hiemstra PS, Borregaard N. 2001. Human cathelicidin, hCAP-18, is processed to the antimicrobial peptide LL-37 by extracellular cleavage with proteinase 3. Blood 97:3951–3959. https://doi.org/10.1182/blood.V97.12.3951.
- 65. Yang D, Chen Q, Schmidt AP, Anderson GM, Wang JM, Wooters J, Oppenheim JJ, Chertov O. 2000. LL-37, the neutrophil granule- and epithelial cell-derived cathelicidin, utilizes formyl peptide receptor-like 1 (FPRL1) as a receptor to chemoattract human peripheral blood neutrophils, monocytes, and T cells. J Exp Med 192:1069–1074. https://doi.org/ 10.1084/jem.192.7.1069.
- Scott MG, Davidson DJ, Gold MR, Bowdish D, Hancock RE. 2002. The human antimicrobial peptide LL-37 is a multifunctional modulator of innate immune responses. J Immunol 169:3883–3891. https://doi.org/10 .4049/jimmunol.169.7.3883.
- 67. Tjabringa GS, Aarbiou J, Ninaber DK, Drijfhout JW, Sørensen OE, Borregaard N, Rabe KF, Hiemstra PS. 2003. The antimicrobial peptide LL-37 activates innate immunity at the airway epithelial surface by transactivation of the epidermal growth factor receptor. J Immunol 171: 6690–6696. https://doi.org/10.4049/jimmunol.171.12.6690.
- Wiesner J, Vilcinskas A. 2010. Antimicrobial peptides: the ancient arm of the human immune system. Virulence 1:440–464. https://doi.org/10 .4161/viru.1.5.12983.
- Mishra NN, Liu GY, Yeaman MR, Nast CC, Proctor RA, McKinnell J, Bayer AS. 2011. Carotenoid-related alteration of cell membrane fluidity impacts *Staphylococcus aureus* susceptibility to host defense peptides. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 55:526–531. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC .00680-10.
- Abdelhady W, Chen L, Bayer AS, Seidl K, Yeaman MR, Kreiswirth BN, Xiong YQ. 2015. Early *agr* activation correlates with vancomycin treatment failure in multi-clonotype MRSA endovascular infections. J Antimicrob Chemother 70:1443–1452. https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dku547.
- Oliveira DC, de Lencastre H. 2002. Multiplex PCR strategy for rapid identification of structural types and variants of the *mec* element in methicillinresistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 46: 2155–2161. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.46.7.2155-2161.2002.
- Jafri AK, Reisner BS, Woods GL. 2000. Evaluation of a latex agglutination assay for rapid detection of oxacillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis 36:57–59. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0732-8893 (99)00105-4.
- O'Hara DM, Reynolds PE. 1987. Antibody used to identify penicillinbinding protein 2' in methicillin-resistant strains of *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA). FEBS Lett 212:237–241. https://doi.org/10.1016/0014-5793 (87)81352-2.
- Cheung AL, Koomey JM, Butler CA, Projan SJ, Fischetti VA. 1992. Regulation of exoprotein expression in *Staphylococcus aureus* by a locus (*sar*) distinct from *agr*. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 89:6462–6466. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.89.14.6462.
- Smeltzer MS, Hart ME, Iandolo JJ. 1992. Quantitative spectrophotometric assay for staphylococcal lipase. Appl Environ Microbiol 58:2815–2819.