

1 An *in vitro* biofilm model of *Staphylococcus aureus* infection of bone

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3 Running head: Bone biofilms

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5 E. Sweeney¹, A.M. Lovering², K.E. Bowker², A.P. MacGowan² and S.M. Nelson^{3*}

6

7 ¹ School of Life Sciences, University of Warwick, Gibbet Hill Campus, Coventry CV4

8 7AL

9 ² Bristol Centre for Antimicrobial Research & Evaluation, North Bristol NHS Trust,

10 Department of Infection Sciences, Pathology Sciences Building Phase 2, Southmead

11 Hospital, Westbury-on-Trym, Bristol BS10 5NB, UK

12 ³ Department of Applied Sciences, University of the West of England, Bristol,

13 Frenchay Campus, Coldharbour Lane, Bristol BS16 1QY

14

15 *To whom all correspondence should be addressed:

16 Dr Shona Nelson, Department of Applied Sciences, University of the West of

17 England, Bristol, Frenchay Campus, Coldharbour Lane, Bristol, BS16 1QY. Email:

18 shona.nelson@uwe.ac.uk

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22 **Significance and Impact of the Study**

23 The majority of studies of antibiotic efficacy in the treatment of chronic osteomyelitis
24 are carried out in animals. We developed an *in vitro* model of *Staphylococcus aureus*
25 infection of bone to evaluate the ability of antibiotics to eradicate mature biofilms on
26 surfaces analogous to necrotic bone. The results demonstrated the difficulties which
27 occur in osteomyelitis treatment, with only very high concentrations of antibiotic able
28 to penetrate the bone sufficiently to reduce bacterial survival whilst still failing to
29 eradicate biofilms. This model could be of use in initial screening of novel
30 compounds intended for use in the treatment of osteomyelitis.

31

32 **Abstract**

33 Chronic osteomyelitis is difficult to treat, with biofilm growth and the diffusion barrier
34 to antibiotics presented by bone contributory factors. The aim of this study was to
35 develop and evaluate an *in vitro* model of osteomyelitis. A bioluminescent strain of
36 *Staphylococcus aureus* was grown in bone blocks made from bovine femur. Light
37 output was insufficient for detection of bacterial cells within bone by 24 h and viable
38 counting of crushed bone blocks was used to determine bacterial survival. Challenge
39 of 72 h biofilms with gentamicin and daptomycin for 24 h demonstrated that only
40 concentrations of ten times the clinical peak serum target levels (100 mg l⁻¹
41 gentamicin and 1000 mg l⁻¹ daptomycin) resulted in significant reductions in cell
42 viability compared to controls. Once daily dosing over seven days resulted in ≥3 log
43 reductions in cell numbers by 48 h. Thereafter no significant reduction was achieved,
44 although emergence of resistance was suppressed. Determination of antibiotic
45 concentration in bone blocks over seven days indicated that neither agent was able

46 to consistently reach levels in bone of greater than 10% of the original dose. The
47 model was, therefore, able to demonstrate the challenges posed by biofilm growth
48 on and within bone.

49

50

51 **Keywords:** biofilm, *Staphylococcus aureus*, osteomyelitis, *in vitro* model

52

53 **Introduction**

54 Osteomyelitis, microbial infection of cortical and cancellous bone, can occur in any
55 bone in the human body (Beck-Broichsitter *et al.* 2015). It may be acquired
56 exogenously via direct inoculation of microorganisms through trauma or surgery, or
57 endogenously via haematogenous spread of microorganisms (Walter *et al.* 2012) or
58 contiguous spread from, for example, diabetic foot ulcers (Malhotra *et al.* 2014). With
59 population aging and concomitant increases in orthopaedic intervention and
60 prosthesis implantation, as well as an increasing diabetic population (WHO 2016),
61 the incidence of osteomyelitis is likely to increase. Osteomyelitis is inherently difficult
62 to diagnose and treat. In its chronic form, bone necrosis and microbial biofilm
63 formation limit delivery of antibiotics to, and within, the infection site (Cook *et al.*
64 2015). Relapse of infection is common and surgical debridement of the infected site
65 (Tuchscher *et al.* 2016) and prolonged antimicrobial chemotherapy add to the
66 already considerable economic burden of this disease (Birt *et al.* 2017).

67 *Staphylococcus aureus* is the bacterium most commonly associated with
68 chronic osteomyelitis, responsible for up to 90% of cases (Olson and Horswill 2013).

69 It expresses a number of adhesins for bone extracellular matrix components and,
70 once chronic osteomyelitis is established, it likely resides within the fluid spaces of
71 de-vascularised, dead bone, known as sequestra (Ciampolini and Harding, 2000).
72 However, *S. aureus* also persists within live cortical bone cells, leading to biofilm
73 formation in osteocyte lacunae (de Mesy Bentley *et al.* 2017).

74 If diagnosed early, acute and haematogenous osteomyelitis caused by
75 methicillin sensitive *S. aureus* can be treated by six weeks of antibiotic therapy,
76 whilst chronic infection treatment may span from eight weeks to lifelong suppression.
77 Gentamicin, an aminoglycoside, has been widely used in orthopaedic surgery,
78 intravenously, impregnated into bone cement or implanted in the form of beads in
79 order to deliver high concentrations at the site of device implantation (McHugh *et al.*
80 2011). Daptomycin, a cyclic lipopeptide, has been used experimentally and clinically
81 in the treatment of osteomyelitis and device-related infections caused by *S. aureus*,
82 often in combination with rifampicin. Although often used successfully, there are
83 reports of relapse of infection and emergence of resistance (Falagas *et al.* 2007)
84 particularly with monotherapy, and optimal dosing regimes are still being investigated
85 (Senneville *et al.* 2016).

86 Clearly, further study and new, novel agents are required. However, with limited new
87 approaches available, it is pertinent to investigate current drugs with new models.
88 Although reports in the literature of *in vitro* biofilm models of osteomyelitis have
89 increased in recent years (Tuchscherer *et al.* 2016; Junk *et al.* 2017; Melicherčik *et al.*
90 2018; Raic *et al.* 2018), most pharmacodynamic studies of antibiotic efficacy are
91 carried out in animals. The aim of this work was to use a novel *in vitro*
92 pharmacodynamic model of biofilm in bone in order to study gentamicin and
93 daptomycin efficacy against a bioluminescent *S. aureus* reporter strain.

94

95 **Results and discussion**

96 **The bone model**

97 The work described here highlights the challenges involved in *in vitro* modelling of
98 osteomyelitis. Bovine bone was chosen for several reasons; its availability, its
99 similarities in chemical composition and architectural geometry to human bone
100 (Stravropoulos 2008) and also its reported similar antibiotic elution properties to
101 human bone (Winkler *et al.* 2000). The size of bovine femur enabled a large number
102 of blocks to be cut from the cortical region of an individual bone, however, natural
103 variation in the bone marrow lumen diameter and bone density, precluded the
104 production of identical bone blocks, as encountered elsewhere (Melicherčík *et al.*,
105 2018). To minimise variation, only blocks between 1 and 2 g were used. Changes to
106 the bone that may have resulted from autoclaving, such as reduction in mechanical
107 strength (Köhler *et al.* 1986) were deemed less important than the requirement to
108 sterilise the bone and, as the model aimed to simulate *in vivo* necrotic bone devoid
109 of blood supply, some denaturation of the organic matrix was acceptable.

110

111 **Visualisation of *S. aureus* 8325p1 biofilm on bovine femur bone substratum**

112 Scanning electron microscopy of 72 h biofilms confirmed that *S. aureus* 8325p1 was
113 adhering to bovine femur bone (see supporting information). As this strain is a dual
114 reporter (expressing *gfp* and *lux* genes), it was hoped that information on its location
115 and metabolic activity within bone blocks could be acquired via confocal laser
116 scanning microscopy and bioluminescence imaging, respectively. However,
117 preliminary work (data not shown) demonstrated that bone autofluorescence

118 interfered with detection of *gfp*-expressing bacterial cells and, although it may be
119 possible to mitigate this (Zimmermann *et al.* 2014; Capasso *et al.* 2017), only
120 bioluminescence imaging was further investigated.

121

122 During low light level imaging of *S. aureus* 8325p1 cultures in bone blocks over
123 24 h (Fig. 1), bioluminescence initially increased, indicating that cells were
124 metabolically active and primarily maintained within the bone blocks. Thereafter, light
125 intensity decreased within the bone, but increased in the broth surrounding the bone,
126 as the bacterial reporter spread outwards due to the vascularised nature of bone. At
127 24 h, there was an obvious darker region where the bone was present in each of the
128 samples (represented by arrows in Fig. 1). This reduction in bioluminescence was
129 not due to an absence of cells, as viable counts performed by crushing the bone
130 blocks and counting cells washed from the bone fragments all yielded approximately
131 4×10^6 cfu ml⁻¹ (ca. 8.0×10^7 cfu per bone block). One possible reason was that the
132 number of reporter organisms was too low for bioluminescence to be detected
133 through the bone. An improved *lux* gene construct generating increased light output,
134 recently described for use in *Escherichia coli* by Gregor *et al.* (2018), may address
135 this problem. It is, however, more likely that cells adherent to the bone were
136 metabolically inactive or growing slowly and, therefore, not emitting sufficient
137 detectable light. The likelihood of slow growing or persister cells within biofilms
138 (Conlon 2014) will limit the utility of reporters reliant on active metabolism and a
139 combination of bioluminescence imaging and conventional viable counting will likely
140 be required for the study of mature biofilms (Ogunniyi *et al.* 2018) and chronic
141 infection.

142

143 **Time/kill studies of gentamicin and daptomycin against biofilms of *S. aureus***
144 **8325p1**

145 Gentamicin and daptomycin were chosen as relevant antimicrobials with which to
146 investigate antibiotic penetration into and efficacy within the bone model. *S. aureus*
147 8325p1 was susceptible to both antibiotics, with MICs of 0.25 mg l⁻¹ and 1.0 mg l⁻¹ for
148 gentamicin and daptomycin, respectively.

149 For gentamicin dosing of 72 h biofilms, at concentrations of 10, 30 and 100 mg l⁻¹
150 for 24 h, only 100 mg l⁻¹, corresponding to approximately ten times the target peak
151 concentration in plasma (C_{max}), resulted in a significant difference in viable cell counts
152 compared to the growth control (p=0.04) (Fig. 2), with a >2 log₁₀ reduction. Overall
153 drug effect (i.e. bacterial survival) was determined from the area under the bacterial
154 kill curve (AUBKC). Gentamicin at 10 and 30 mg l⁻¹ had minimal effect, however, at
155 100 mg l⁻¹ the mean AUBKC was 70.46 ±0.6 log cfu ml⁻¹ h, corresponding to a 38.9%
156 reduction in the bacterial population.

157 Exposure to daptomycin for 24 h at concentrations of 100 and 300 mg l⁻¹ did not
158 result in a reduction in viable cells from 72 h biofilms compared to controls (Fig. 3). As
159 a result, biofilms were challenged with daptomycin at 1000 mg l⁻¹ thereafter. The effect
160 of exposing 72 h biofilms to once daily dosing of daptomycin at 1000 mg l⁻¹ and
161 gentamicin at 100 mg l⁻¹, over 7 days, was investigated (Fig. 4). A significant reduction
162 in the recovery of *S. aureus* 8325p1 from biofilms was achieved over 7 days with both
163 antibiotics when compared to recovery of cells from the growth control (p = 0.002 for
164 daptomycin and p = 0.0005 for gentamicin), with gentamicin superior to daptomycin
165 (p=0.0005). AUBKC for each antibiotic (186.80±71 log cfu ml⁻¹ h for gentamicin and

166 549.42±24 log cfu ml⁻¹ h for daptomycin) represented 11.9% predicted survival with
167 gentamicin treatment and 35% survival with daptomycin when compared to the AUC
168 of the untreated control. A ≥3 log₁₀ cfu ml⁻¹ reduction was achieved for both drugs by
169 24 h and, for gentamicin, maintained over the remaining experimental period.
170 However, despite both drug concentrations being approximately ten times the target
171 C_{max} for effective plasma concentrations *in vivo*, viable populations remained. These
172 results reflect those of other *in vitro* studies (Parra-Ruiz *et al.* 2010; Molina-Manso *et*
173 *al.* 2013) where high dose antibiotic levels were unable to eradicate *S. aureus* biofilms.
174 Although the concentrations used in this current study are unlikely to be achieved or
175 tolerated with parenteral administration, the continued improvement of targeted
176 antimicrobial delivery systems should allow high local antibiotic doses whilst
177 minimising systemic toxicity (Birt *et al.* 2017). It is likely that maintaining high
178 concentrations over a prolonged period will be crucial.

179

180 **Diffusion of antibiotic into the bone model**

181 Reduced antibiotic activity against bacterial biofilms embedded in bone may be, in
182 part, due to a lack of diffusion into bone or variability of diffusion rates, due to different
183 bone densities. To evaluate diffusion, the concentrations of both gentamicin and
184 daptomycin were measured in bone blocks over time. Once daily dosing over 7 days
185 resulted in both drugs accumulating within the bone blocks (Fig. 5), with the
186 relationship between dose and drug accumulation stronger for daptomycin. The
187 reason for this is unclear, although may be as a result of daptomycin's charge and the
188 fact that it readily binds to calcium ions (Humphries *et al.* 2013). However, neither drug
189 consistently reached levels that were greater than 10% of the dosing concentration,

190 highlighting the difficulties that are encountered when attempting to achieve clinically
191 useful levels in necrotic bone *in vivo*.

192 The gentamicin levels achieved within the bone should, in theory, be sufficient to
193 reduce bacterial load as they exceeded the plasma concentration generally regarded
194 as therapeutically effective (5-10 mg l⁻¹ for multiple daily dosing (Joint Formulary
195 Committee 2018)). Comparison of the results of daily dosing on bacterial survival (Fig.
196 4) and drug concentration within bone (Fig. 5A), suggests that, although the sustained
197 antibiotic concentration was unable to further reduce the biofilm population, it was still
198 sufficient to prevent regrowth over the time period studied.

199 Reports of the concentration of daptomycin in bone vary, with concern about its
200 bioavailability in different tissues due to its high plasma protein binding (>90%).
201 Nevertheless, it has been shown to equilibrate with bone *in vivo* within 3 h of infusion
202 (Traunmüller *et al.* 2010) and reach a sufficient free concentration for clinical efficacy
203 against *S. aureus* infection (Montange *et al.* 2014). In this current study, daptomycin
204 lacked efficacy at clinically acceptable concentrations and a significant reduction in
205 bacterial numbers was only seen at tenfold the target level. This was sufficient only to
206 prevent re-growth of cells and maintain bacteriostasis. It should be noted, however,
207 that there was considerable variation in drug concentration within replicate bone
208 blocks, likely attributable to the inherent variability in bone density of the blocks.
209 Although there have been varied reports for daptomycin efficacy against staphylococci
210 in biofilms both *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Hurdle *et al.* 2011), a review of clinical outcomes
211 for treatment of osteomyelitis and orthopaedic device infection (EU-CORESM) reported
212 efficacy in 82.7% of *S. aureus* infections (Malizos *et al.* 2016). Work to further improve
213 and expand its use continues, particularly for high dose delivery via polymethyl
214 methacrylate (PMMA) bone cement (Eick *et al.* 2017), or in the form of daptomycin-

215 loaded PMMA microparticles to enhance delivery to *S. aureus* within osteoblasts
216 (Woischnig *et al.* 2018) or biofilms (Santos Ferreira *et al.* 2018).

217

218 The results of this current work suggest that, without a dynamic blood supply,
219 bone presents a barrier to the diffusion of even small molecules. Local antibiotic
220 delivery methods *in vivo*, such as antibiotic-loaded beads, antibiotic-coated
221 intramedullary rods or antibiotic-containing cement, expose the infecting
222 microorganisms to high doses without causing toxic levels systemically (Hake *et al.*
223 2015). However, sustaining the required effective concentration for a sufficient period
224 is not without potential problems. *S. aureus* small colony variants (SCVs) are isolated
225 from osteomyelitis infections (Kahl *et al.* 2016) and were noted when *S. aureus* 8325p1
226 was exposed to gentamicin. It is likely that treatment failure and relapse of chronic
227 osteomyelitis are, at least in part, attributable to this antibiotic tolerant phenotype.
228 Nonstable SCVs with long lag phases originate from persister cells and their delayed
229 growth is advantageous in the presence of antibiotics (Vulin *et al.* 2018). Under the
230 stressful conditions that likely exist in necrotic bone during (inadequate) antibiotic
231 treatment, such SCVs would be at a selective advantage. Furthermore, known to
232 survive in osteoblasts and osteocytes (Yang *et al.* 2018), SCVs have the potential to
233 persist even when bone is being remodelled and reformed. Three-dimensional
234 scaffolds which allow bone generation alongside sustained release of antibiotic are
235 under development (Cicuéndez *et al.* 2018) and it will be critical to their success that
236 sufficient antibiotic can be delivered in order to suppress the development of SCVs.

237 It is clear from this work that *in vitro* modelling of bone infection is challenging,
238 both in terms of consistency of model construction and the non-destructive monitoring

239 of the infecting organisms. Nevertheless, the model has the potential to generate
240 information on bacterial survival over sustained time periods which can be related to
241 the ability of antibiotic to penetrate into the bone. Most *in vitro* pharmacokinetic and
242 pharmacodynamic models only investigate short term drug efficacy which is not
243 appropriate when modelling chronic osteomyelitis. Given that the levels required for
244 measurable reduction in our study were 400 x MIC for gentamicin and 1000 x MIC for
245 daptomycin, the model was able to reflect some of the challenges faced with *in vivo*
246 control of *S. aureus* on and within bone.

247

248 **Material and methods**

249 **Bacterial strain**

250 The bacterial strain used was *S. aureus* ATCC 8325, transformed (Sweeney 2010)
251 with a recombinant plasmid containing the *luxABCDE* gene cassette of
252 *Photobacterium luminescens* (pSB3007; a 3 fragment expression cassette in the
253 shuttle vector pUNK1 Em^r : P_{xyIA}:*gfp:luxABCDE:rrnBT1T2* [4 *attB*]) (Perehinec *et al.*,
254 2007). The transformant, *S. aureus* 8325p1, was maintained on nutrient agar (NA)
255 (Oxoid, Basingstoke, UK) supplemented with 10 mg l⁻¹ erythromycin (Sigma-Aldrich
256 Company Ltd., Poole, UK) for plasmid selection and overnight cultures were grown
257 in nutrient broth (NB) (Oxoid) supplemented with 10 mg l⁻¹ erythromycin (Sigma-
258 Aldrich).

259

260 **Bone model preparation**

261 Bovine femur, obtained from an abattoir (Bristol University Veterinary School,
262 Langford, UK) or a local butcher, was sliced into approximately 4 cm sections. Bone
263 marrow and debris were removed and bone slices washed in 10% Hycolin™. Bone
264 blocks of 1 cm³ were cut from each section and those weighing between 1 and 2 g
265 were selected. A hole (2 mm diameter x 5 mm depth) was drilled into each block and
266 the blocks were sterilised by autoclaving (121°C, 15 lb inch⁻², for 15 min).

267

268 **Bone model set up and confirmation of biofilm formation**

269 The well of each bone block was inoculated with 10 µl of an overnight culture of *S.*
270 *aureus* 8325p1 incubated in NB containing 10 mg l⁻¹ erythromycin and diluted to a final
271 concentration of 10⁶ cfu ml⁻¹. Each bone block was then immersed in 5 ml of pre-
272 warmed NB, in universal bottles and incubated, without agitation, at 37°C in air for 72
273 h to allow biofilm development. Bones were transferred to fresh NB every 24 h.

274

275 **Bioluminescence imaging of *S. aureus* 8325p1 in bone blocks**

276 Bone blocks were prepared and inoculated with *S. aureus* 8325p1, as described
277 previously, placed in a tissue culture dish (Nunclon® 60 x 15 mm) containing 3 ml NB
278 and light output monitored over 24 h, at 37°C, using a High Resolution Photon
279 Counting system (HRPCS-3; Photech, St. Leonards-on-Sea, UK).

280

281 **Recovery of viable bacterial cells from bone blocks**

282 To recover *S. aureus* 8325p1 from bone blocks, they were crushed in an iron bore
283 mortar. The fragments were given four successive 1 min vortex-washes in 5 ml

284 sterile PBS. The 20 ml washings were pooled, serially diluted in saline, plated onto
285 NA containing 10 mg l⁻¹ erythromycin and incubated overnight at 37°C for bacterial
286 enumeration.

287

288 **Antimicrobial susceptibility testing**

289 Minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) of gentamicin and daptomycin were
290 determined for *S. aureus* 8325p1 using the BSAC standard broth macrodilution
291 method (Andrews 2001), modified for daptomycin by using Mueller Hinton broth
292 (MHB) (Oxoid) supplemented with 50 mg l⁻¹ calcium ions.

293

294 **Time/kill studies of antibiotics against bone biofilms**

295 The activity of gentamicin and daptomyin (both Sigma-Aldrich) against biofilms within
296 bone blocks was determined. Bone blocks were inoculated, as described previously,
297 and incubated for 72 h at 37°C, with NB changes every 24 h. Bones were then
298 transferred to tissue culture plates containing 3 ml sterile NB, NB containing
299 gentamicin (10, 30 or 100 mg l⁻¹) or MHB containing daptomycin (100, 300 or 1000 mg
300 l⁻¹) plus 50 mg l⁻¹ Ca²⁺ in the form of CaCl₂. At 0, 1, 2, 4, 6, 9, 12 and 24 h, three bone
301 blocks for each treatment were removed, briefly washed in fresh PBS and blotted dry
302 to remove adherent bacteria/antibiotic and the cells recovered for viable counting. To
303 monitor the effect of once-daily dosing, bone biofilms were developed and monitored
304 in the same way and maintained for 7 days. Every 24 h, growth controls were
305 transferred to fresh NB or MHB+Ca²⁺ and test samples were transferred to the relevant
306 broth containing the appropriate antibiotic dose. Three bone blocks were sampled for
307 viable counting at each 24 h interval.

308

309 **Determination of antibiotic diffusion into bone by FPIA and HPLC**

310 Sterile bone blocks were weighed and placed into universals containing 5 ml of
311 aqueous solutions of either 100 mg l⁻¹ gentamicin or 1000 mg l⁻¹ daptomycin. At
312 intervals of 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 12 and 24 h bone blocks were crushed and re-weighed.
313 Following transfer to universal bottles, PBS was added in the ratio 1:2 w/v and the
314 samples left at room temperature for four hours to allow the drug to elute into the
315 solution. Gentamicin concentrations were determined by Fluorescence Polarisation
316 Immunoassay (FPIA) (Abbott TDxFLx®, Abbott Laboratories, Abbott Park, IL, USA)
317 and daptomycin was determined by High Performance Liquid Chromatography
318 (HPLC). In brief, FPIA samples were prepared by 1:1 dilution with TDx buffer (Abbott
319 Laboratories) and then assayed following the manufacturer's instruction. HPLC
320 samples were diluted 1:1 with acetonitrile (Sigma-Aldrich), allowed to stand for 5 min
321 then centrifuged for 5 min (2,500 g) to remove any cell protein and then assayed as
322 previously described (Tobin *et al.* 2008). Chromatography was performed on a
323 Hypersil 5ODS column using a mobile phase composed of 0.2 M phosphate buffer
324 (pH 5.5) and acetonitrile (70:30). The pump flow rate was 1.5 ml min⁻¹ and detection
325 was by UV absorbance at 223 nm (Thermo-Sep Electron Corp., Waltham, MA, USA;
326 Dionex Chromeleon Analyser, Dionex Corp, Sunnyvale, CA, USA). All assays were
327 calibrated against appropriate standards using the external standard method.

328

329

330 **Statistical analysis**

331 All data were analysed using GraphPad Prism 4.0 (GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA,
332 USA). All assays were performed in triplicate. Two way ANOVA was used to compare
333 antibiotic-treated biofilms with controls. *P* values of < 0.05 were considered statistically
334 significant.

335

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341

342 **Conflict of interest**

343 The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

344

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477

478

479 **Figure legends**

480

481 **Figure 1** Bioluminescence imaging of cultures of *S. aureus* 8325p1, growing within 1
482 cm³ sterile bovine bone blocks (indicated by superimposed square), surrounded by 3
483 mL NB in tissue culture plates (indicated by superimposed circle), over 24 h. Arrows

484 at time 24 h indicate dark areas where bioluminescence is no longer detected. A-C
485 represent 3 replicates.

486

487 **Figure 2** Effect of varying concentration on the antimicrobial activity of single dose gentamicin
488 against 72 h biofilms of *S. aureus* 8325p1 in bone, monitored over 24 h. Growth Control (■),
489 gentamicin at 10 mg l⁻¹ (□), 30 mg l⁻¹ (▼) and 100 mg l⁻¹ (●). (n = 3, error bars indicate SD).

490

491 **Figure 3** Effect of varying concentration on the antimicrobial activity of single dose daptomycin
492 + 50 mg l⁻¹ Ca²⁺ against 72 h biofilms of *S. aureus* 8325p1 in bone, monitored over 24 h.
493 Growth Control (■), daptomycin at 100 mg l⁻¹ (□) and 300 mg l⁻¹ (▼). (n = 3, error bars indicate
494 SD).

495

496 **Figure 4** Antimicrobial activity of once daily doses of 100 mg l⁻¹ gentamicin and 1000 mg l⁻¹
497 daptomycin +50 mg l⁻¹ Ca²⁺ against 72 h biofilms of *S. aureus* 8325p1 in bone, monitored over
498 7 days. Untreated control (■, n=1), gentamicin 100 mg l⁻¹ (●, n=3), daptomycin 1000 mg l⁻¹
499 +50 mg l⁻¹ Ca²⁺ (○, n=3). (Error bars indicate SD).

500

501 **Figure 5** Measurement of antibiotic diffusion into bone over 7 days with once daily dosing of
502 100 mg l⁻¹ gentamicin (■) and 1000 mg l⁻¹ daptomycin (▼). Gentamicin concentration
503 determined by FPIA and daptomycin concentration by HPLC. (n=3, error bars indicate SD).

504

505 **Supporting information legend**

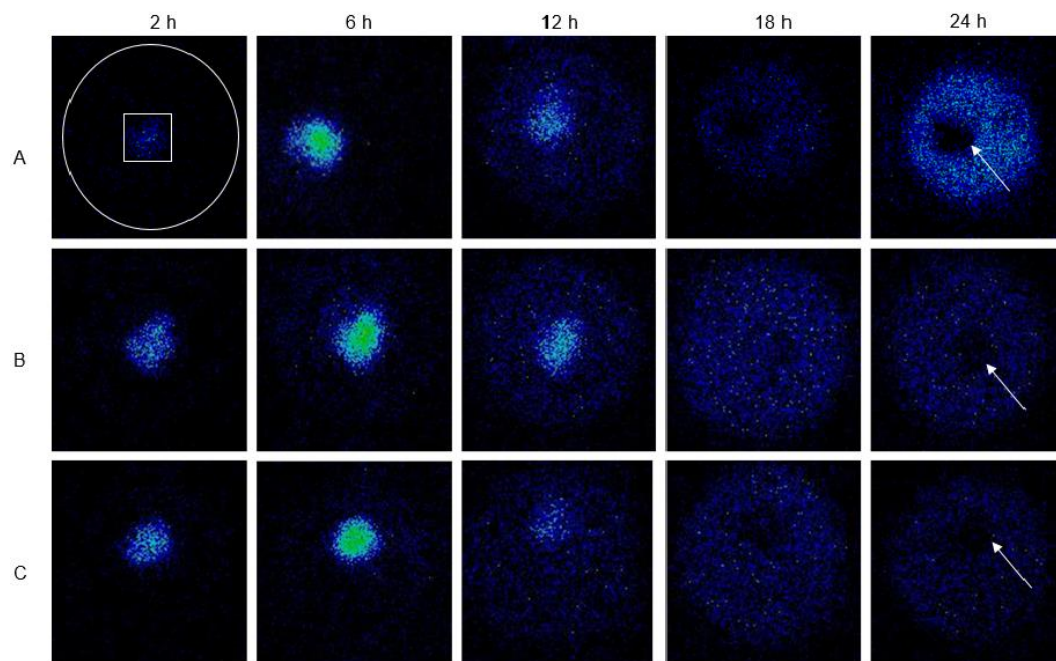
506 ESEM images of 100 nm bone slices with biofilm (a) SEM image of Haversian canal in bone,
507 after 72 h biofilm development. (b) Magnification of area indicated by arrow in (a) shows
508 densely packed cocci cells. Scale bar 1 μm .

509

510

511

512 **Figure 1**

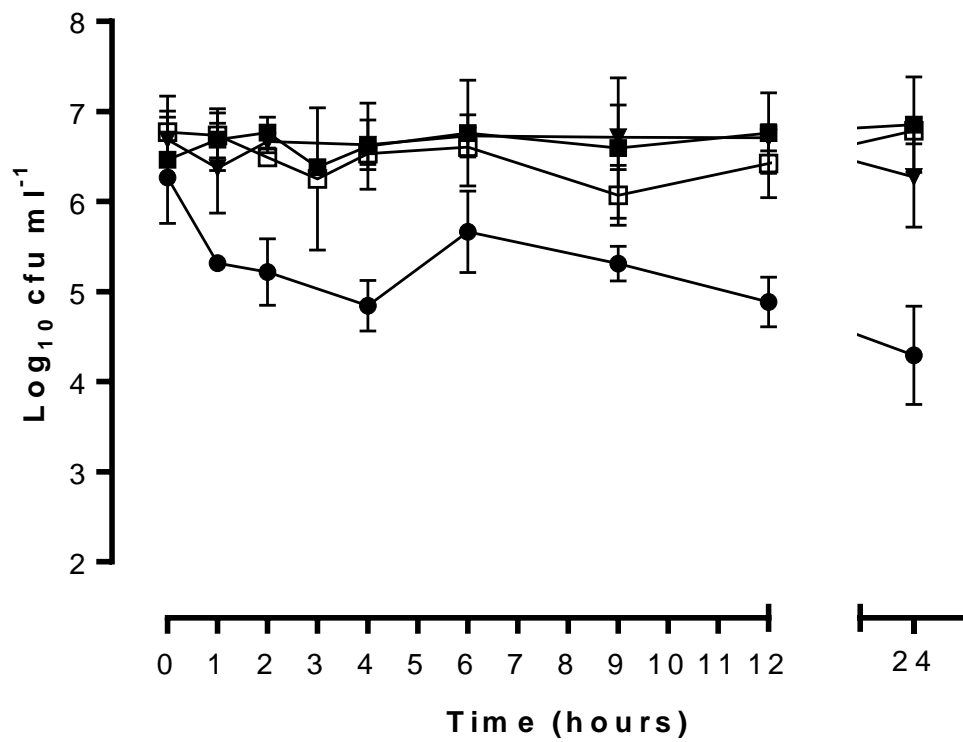


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514 **Figure 2**

515

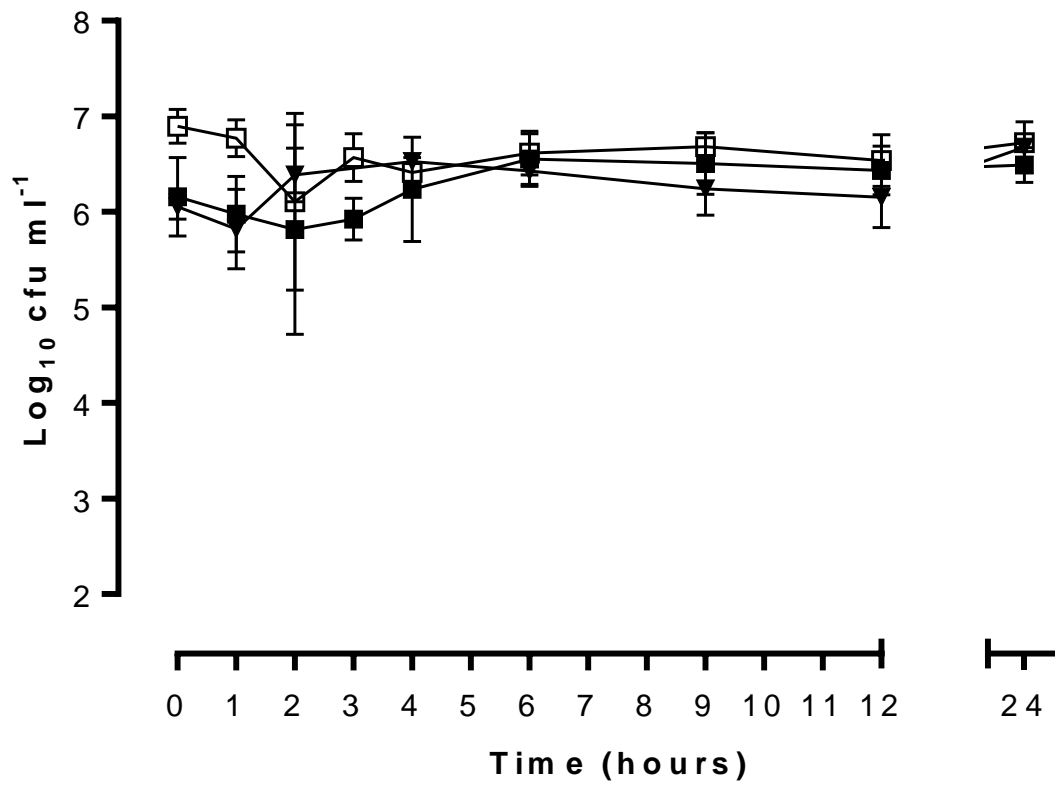
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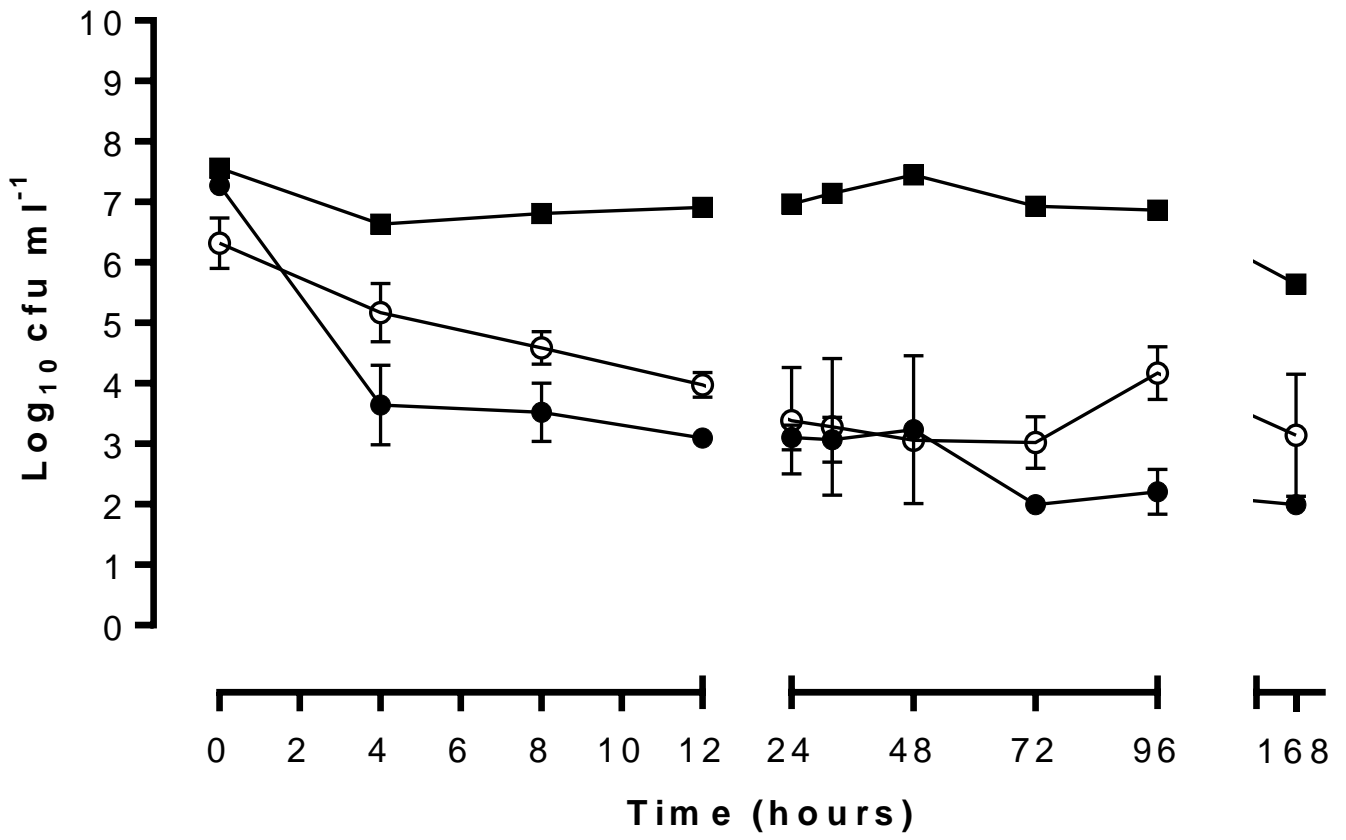
518 **Figure 3**

519



520 **Figure 4**

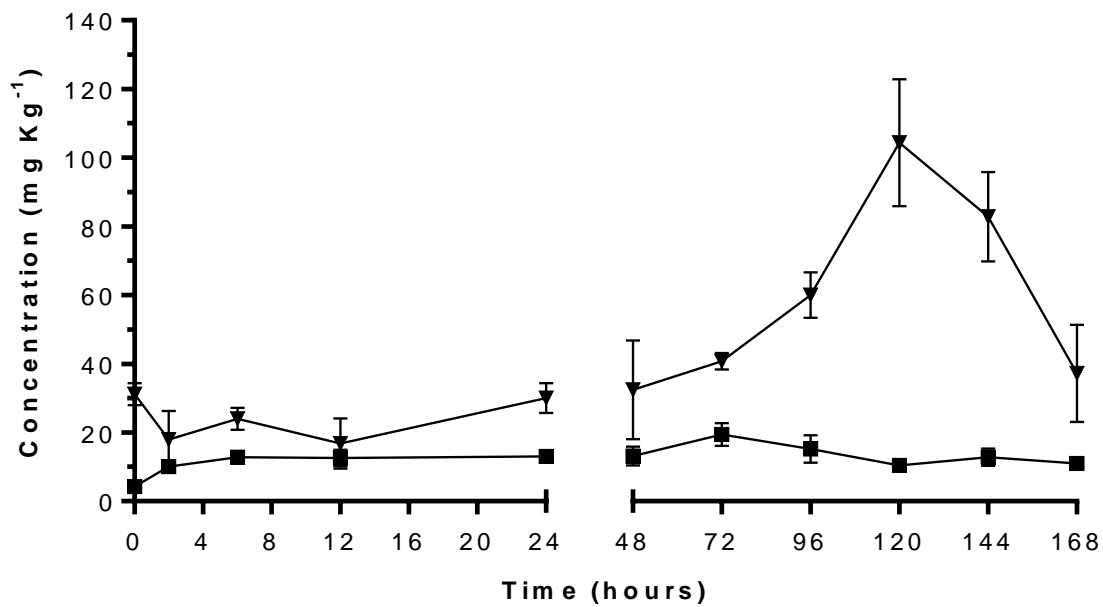
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523 **Figure 5**

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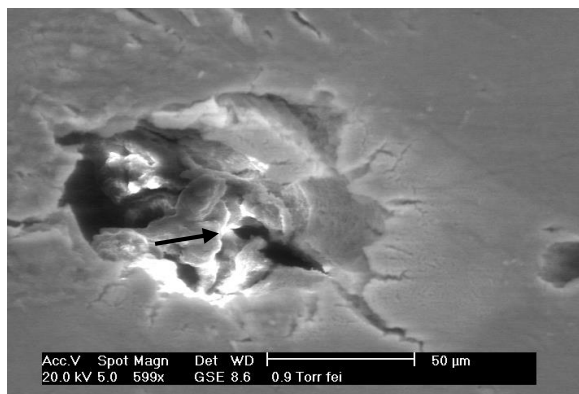
527 **Supporting information:**

528

529 (a)

530

531



(b)

