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1 **Pathogenesis of *Staphylococcus epidermidis* in prosthetic joint infections: Can the**  
2 **identification of virulence genes differentiate between invasive and commensal**  
3 **strains?**

4

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22 **Running title:** Pathogenesis of *Staphylococcus epidermidis* in prosthetic joint  
23 infections

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25 infections

26 **ABSTRACT**

27 *Staphylococcus epidermidis* is a commensal of cutaneous flora that has emerged as one  
28 of the most frequent causative microorganism of prosthetic joint infections (PJIs). The  
29 aim of this study was to elucidate possible antimicrobial resistance and virulence  
30 markers involved in the pathogenicity of *S. epidermidis* analyzing the possible  
31 differences between infecting and commensal strains. Fifty *S. epidermidis* strains from  
32 PJI patients, 50 from skin of healthy-individuals (HI) and 17 from the surgery-field  
33 during a primary arthroplasty (SF) were analyzed in regard to antimicrobial resistance,  
34 detection of resistance genes, PFGE, MLST, biofilm formation and detection of  
35 virulence genes. The PJI strains were significantly more often resistant to antibiotics  
36 than HI and SF strains. PFGE defined 56 PFGE types and none was shared between PJI  
37 and SF groups. The ST2 was the predominant sequence type and was only present in  
38 PJI strains (44%), while HI and SF showed a large variety of STs. All strains were  
39 biofilm producers and significant differences were not detected. The genes *sdrF*, *bhp*,  
40 *icaA*, *icaB*, *icaD*, the complete *ica* operon and the *IS256* were significantly predominant  
41 in PJI strains, whereas, *embp*, *hld*, *ACME* prevailed in HI strains. The SF strains  
42 behaved similarly to HI strains. In conclusion, there was no single marker to  
43 differentiate invasive from commensal *S. epidermidis* strains, but a combination of them  
44 were more common in strains from the PJI group than from the other groups including  
45 *ica* operon, *IS256*, *sdrF*, *bhp* and *mecA*, higher antimicrobial resistance and a  
46 predominance of the ST2.

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51 **INTRODUCTION**

52 Prosthetic joint infections (PJIs) are considered serious complications since they are  
53 long-lasting and difficult to treat infections with high economic costs that can generate  
54 irreversible physical sequelae. (Becker, Heilmann, and Peters 2014b; Parvizi, Fassihi,  
55 and Enayatollahi 2016; Runner et al. 2019; Tsai et al. 2015).

56 The majority of PJI cases were caused by coagulase negative staphylococci (39.6%),  
57 with *S. epidermidis* as the more common etiological agent (23.3%) (Becker, Heilmann,  
58 and Peters 2014a; Benito et al. 2016) .

59 *Staphylococcus epidermidis*, is an important commensal specie in the nasal and  
60 cutaneous human microbiota, and it has a great clinical impact as an opportunistic  
61 pathogen implicated in device related infections. During the last years, *S. epidermidis*  
62 has been considered one of the principal causes of PJIs (Le, Park, and Otto 2018) after  
63 *S. aureus* (Post V, Harris LG, Morgenstern M, Mageiros L, Hitchings MD, Méric G,  
64 Pascoe B, Sheppard SK, Richards RG 2017). However, it is not always easy to establish  
65 if *S. epidermidis* isolated in periprosthetic clinical specimens represent true infection or  
66 only colonization/contamination. (Karsten Becker, Christine Heilmann, Georg Peters.  
67 Coagulase-Negative Staphylococci. Clin Microbiol Rev 2014; 27: 870 –926)

68 The production of a biofilm on surfaces of implanted materials is recognized as the  
69 main virulence factor in *S. epidermidis* (Bengt Hellmark, Soderquist, et al. 2013).  
70 During the biofilm formation a set of virulence genes (VG) are involved from the  
71 attachment to the surface that they colonize until the aggregation and the subsequent  
72 cellular detachment (Büttner et al. 2015). Some genes such as, *ica* operon, *IS256*, *bhp*,  
73 *aap* and *ebp* among others, have been described as possible molecular markers that  
74 might differentiate invasive from commensal *S. epidermidis* strains (Gu et al. 2005;

75 Heilmann, Ziebuhr, and Becker 2018; B. Hellmark et al. 2013; Ortega-Peña et al. 2019).  
76 However, to date, no single marker has permitted distinguish both populations. The aim  
77 of this study was to elucidate possible genetic markers involved in the pathogenicity of  
78 *S. epidermidis* through molecular characterization, including epidemiological, resistance  
79 and virulence features of three populations of *S. epidermidis*: strains of PJIs, strains of  
80 skin or mucous membranes of healthy individuals and strains isolated from the surgery  
81 field during a primary arthroplasty (that did not be eventually involved in PJIs).

## 82 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 83 **Bacterial strains**

84 A total of 117 *S. epidermidis* strains from three populations were studied: 50 strains  
85 recovered from the collection of all microorganisms causing PJIs during 2013-2019 at  
86 the Microbiology Department, Hospital de la Santa Creu i Sant Pau, 50 strains isolated  
87 from nasal and skin swabs of healthy individuals (HI) not related with a clinical  
88 environment during 2017-2018, and 17 strains isolated from the surgery field (SF),  
89 during a primary arthroplasty performed during 2016-2019 in the Hospital de la Santa  
90 Creu i Sant Pau and the Hospital del Mar without causing infection (after at least one  
91 year follow-up) (Table 1).

92 The participants of the HI group did not consume antibiotics and were not hospitalized  
93 in the three months prior to sample collection; whereas patients from the SF group had  
94 received as surgical antimicrobial prophylaxis one dose of cefazolin or cefazolin plus  
95 gentamycin, (in penicillin-allergic patients, vancomycin or vancomycin plus  
96 gentamicin) before obtaining the samples. Most patients with IPA did not received  
97 antibiotics prior to collect the diagnostic periprosthetic samples (by synovial fluid  
98 aspiration or during the surgical treatment).

99 One isolate per patient was included in the study except when the strains differed in the  
100 antibiogram.

101 Strains were isolated and identified according to the routine microbiological techniques  
102 and confirmed by MALDI TOF MS (Bruker).

103 The study was approved by the Hospital de la Santa Creu i Sant Pau ethics committee  
104 (IIBSP-STA-2016-81).

### 105 **Antimicrobial susceptibility testing and resistance genes**

106 All strains underwent antimicrobial susceptibility testing using the Sensititre ESTEN2F  
107 (ThermoFisher Scientific, Inc.). Results were interpreted according with the Clinical  
108 and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI 2017)(Clinical and Laboratory Standards  
109 Institute (CLSI) n.d.), except for fosfomycin and tigecycline that were interpreted  
110 according with the European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing  
111 (EUCAST 2017)

112 Total DNA of all strains was extracted using the GenElute-Bacterial Genomic DNA Kit  
113 (Sigma-Aldrich). Resistant strains were PCR-screened for a set of antimicrobial  
114 resistance genes (AGRs): to oxacillin (*mecA*), erythromycin (*ermA*, *ermB*, *ermC*, *msrA*,  
115 *mphC*), clindamycin (*lnuA*), cotrimoxazole (*dfrS*), linezolid (*cfr*, rRNA 23S, L3, L4,  
116 L22), aminoglycosides (*aacA-aphD* and *aadD*) (Table S1). PCR products were purified  
117 using EXOSAP (Isogen Life Science) and sequenced following Macrogen Inc  
118 guidelines. Sequences were analysed by BioNumerics v.7.6 (Applied Maths NV) and  
119 Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST). Staphylococcal cassette chromosome  
120 *mec* (SCC*mec*) typing was performed in all methicillin-resistant *S. epidermidis* (MRSE)  
121 strains by multiplex PCRs (M-PCR1 and M-PCR2) (Kondo et al. 2007) and  
122 <http://www.sccmec.org> (Table S1).

### 123 **Molecular typing of the strains**

124 Pulsed-Field Gel Electrophoresis (PFGE) methodology was applied to the analysis of  
125 strains from the PJI and SF groups. Strains from the HI group were excluded because  
126 the divergence of them (not clinically-epidemiologically related). *SmaI* enzyme (Sigma-  
127 Aldrich) was used for the genomic restriction of the strains following the procedure  
128 described (Goering and Fey 2014). Further analysis of the PFGE procedure was  
129 obtained with the Bionumerics software v.7.6 using the Dice similarity coefficient and  
130 the construction of a dendrogram with the UPGMA algorithm (Unweighted Pair Group  
131 Method using Arithmetic averages). The interpretation criteria was based on the  
132 previously established (Tenover et al. 1995) (M. Miragaia et al. 2008).

133 Multilocus sequence typing (MLST) was performed in all strains according to the  
134 published scheme of Thomas et al. (Thomas et al. 2007). Sequence types (STs) were  
135 assigned according to the *S. epidermidis* MLST data base (<http://sepidermidis.mlst.net>).

136 Clonal complex was assigned by eBURST (<http://eburst.mlst.net>) and published reports  
137 (Feil EJ, Li BC, Aanensen DM, Hanage WP 2004; M. Miragaia et al. 2007, 2008).

138 The minimum spanning tree (MST) was constructed with the STs of all strains using  
139 Bionumerics software v.7.6.

#### 140 **Biofilm formation assay**

141 *S. epidermidis* strains were growth in Tryptic Soy Broth supplemented with 0.5%  
142 glucose (TSBG, Oxoid). The bacterial suspensions adjusted to OD<sub>600</sub> of 1.5 were diluted  
143 1:100 with TSBG and inoculated (200 µL) in 96-well microtiter plates for 24 h at 37 °C.  
144 Biofilm quantification was performed by 1% Crystal Violet (CV) stain following  
145 (Seyedi-Marghaki et al. 2019). The biofilm formation was calculated by the median  
146 absorbance of three replicates of the experiment. Strains were classified as strong (>2),  
147 moderate (1-2), weak (0.1-1) and non-biofilm producer (<0.1). The *S. epidermidis*

148 RP62A (ATCC 35984) and *S. epidermidis* ATCC 12228 strains were used as biofilm-  
149 forming and non-biofilm-forming controls, respectively.

### 150 **Detection of virulence genes**

151 Presence of virulence genes (VG) involved in the biofilm formation was determined by  
152 PCR of the following genes: *atlE*, *sdrG*, *sdrF*, *sesI*, *ebp*, *ica* operon (*icaA*, *icaB*, *icaC*,  
153 *icaD*, *icaR*), *bhp*, *aap* and *hld*. In addition, the two *quorum sensing systems*, *agr* and  
154 *luxS* were analysed (Table S1).

155 The *agr* type was determined by the analysis of the deduced amino acid sequence  
156 (Bengt Hellmark, Söderquist, et al. 2013).

157 Additionally, the mobile elements *IS256* and ACME were studied by PCR (Table S1).

158 The ACME type was classified according with the *arc*, *opp3* and *kdp* genes presence:  
159 ACME-I (*arc* and *opp3*), ACME-II (*arc*), ACME-III (*opp3*), ACME-IV (*arc* and *kdp*),  
160 ACME-V (*arc*, *opp3* and *kdp*) and ACME-VI (*kdp*) (Maria Miragaia et al. 2009)  
161 (O'Connor et al., 2018).

### 162 **Data analysis**

163 The categorical variables were compared using Chi-square test ( $\chi^2$  test) or Fisher's  
164 exact test and the ordinal variables by Mann-Whitney or Kruskal-Wallis. All  
165 comparisons were performed with IBM SPSS Statistics v25.. A  $p < 0.05$  was considered  
166 statistically significant.

## 167 **Results**

### 168 **Antimicrobial susceptibility testing and antimicrobial resistance genes**

169 A total of 117 *S. epidermidis* strains were analysed (Table 1). The resistance rates to  
170 most of the antimicrobials tested were found significantly higher in PJI strains than in  
171 HI and SF strains (Table 2). All strains remained susceptible to teicoplanin, vancomycin,  
172 daptomycin and tigecycline. Fourty seven percent (55/117) of the strains were MRSE



173 and were predominant in PJI strains (37/50; 74%) versus SF (9/17; 53%) and HI (9/50;  
174 18%) ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table 2A). The *mecA* gene was detected in 53/55 (96.4%) of MRSE  
175 strains. Among erythromycin resistant strains ( $n=74$ ), *mphC* and *msrA* genes and its  
176 combination were the predominant ones followed by the *ermC* and the combination of  
177 *ermC+mphC+msrA* genes (Table 2B). Gentamicin resistance was only present in PJI  
178 strains except for two SF strains. This resistance was mainly mediated by *aadD* (Table  
179 2B). The same mutations were observed for both linezolid resistant strains: G2603T  
180 mutation in the 23S rRNA gene and Val154Leu amino acid alteration in L3.

### 181 **Clonality of the strains**

182 The PFGE analysis of 67 strains from PJI ( $n=50$ ) and SF ( $n=17$ ) showed a great  
183 diversity and were distributed into 56 PFGE types (Figure 1): 49 single-patterns (32  
184 from PJI and 17 from SF), six PFGE types including two strains (4, 7, 26, 27, 31 and  
185 42) and the PFGE type 24 that contained six strains recovered from patients P5, P6 and  
186 P7. PFGE types 31 and 42 harboured a pair of strains from patients P10 and P13,  
187 respectively (each pair of strains differed in the isolation date and/or antibiogram). A  
188 clinical epidemiological relationship suggesting cross-transmission between patients of  
189 PFGE types 4, 7, 24, 26 and 42 was not found. PFGE types were not shared between PJI  
190 and SF strains.

191 The MLST analysis of all strains determined a total of 66 different STs. The sequence  
192 type ST2 was the predominant in PJI strains (22/50; 44%) followed by the new ST640  
193 and ST5 (6/50; 12% both). In HI and SF strains, a great variability of STs was observed,  
194 without a predominant sequence type. Twenty four new STs were described in this  
195 study (Figure 2 and S1).

196 The minimum spanning tree (MST) showed that ST35 and ST657 were shared between  
197 the three populations; ST5 and ST57 were shared between PJI and HI strains, and,  
198 ST17, ST32, ST88, ST89 and ST795 between HI and SF strains (Figure 2). Most of the  
199 strains (67; 57.3%) belonged to the clonal complex 2 (CC2). The subgroup CC2-I was  
200 predominant in PJI strains ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Table S2).

201 A SCC*mec* type was not possible to assign for any MRSE strain, showing a great  
202 variability of combinations between *ccr* and *mec* complexes. The most frequent  
203 combinations were: *ccr1-ccr2-mec* class B (19/55; 34.5%), *ccr1-ccr2-ccr5-mec* class B  
204 and *ccr3-ccr4-ccr5-mec* class A and B (both 2; 3.6%), all only present in PJI strains.

#### 205 **Biofilm formation and virulence genes**

206 All strains were biofilm producers and significant differences were not detected  
207 between the three populations (Table 3). The majority of PJI and SF strains were  
208 classified as strong or moderate biofilm producers (66% and 64.7%, respectively);  
209 whereas, contrary to the expected, this percentage was even higher (76%) in HI strains.

210 Different virulence genes content was observed between all strains: *sdrF*, *bhp*, the  
211 complete *ica* operon, *icaA*, *icaB*, *icaD* and the *IS256* were significantly predominant in  
212 PJI strains, whereas, *embp*, *hld* and ACME were more prevalent in HI strains. The  
213 *quorum sensing luxS* and *agr* genes were present in all strains; however, *agr-IV* and  
214 ACME-VI were statistically higher in PJI; *agr-III*, ACME-IV and ACME-V in HI; and  
215 ACME-II in SF strains (Table 3).

216 Comparison of biofilm formation and the presence of VGs determined that *icaA*  
217 positive strains were not associated with strong biofilm formation; only, *sdrF*, *embp* and  
218 *hld* genes showed relation to strong biofilm production in HI strains (data not shown).

219 From gentamicin resistant strains, 82.1% (32/39) were positive for *IS256* ( $p < 0.001$ ) and  
220 all of them belonged to the PJI group. Resistance to gentamicin were not detected in HI  
221 and only in two SF strains.

222 Finally, repetitive virulence gene content was observed in strains with specific STs,  
223 among them: all ST2 strains belong to PJI and was positive for *sesI*, *sdrF*, *ica* operon,  
224 *aap*, *hld*, *IS256* and *agr-I*; ST35, present in the three populations, contained *embp*, *sesI*,  
225 *ica* operon, *aap*, *hld*, ACME and *agr-I* in all strains. In addition, some STs were  
226 associated with *agr* types, such as, ST89, ST35 and ST153 to *agr-I*; ST32 and ST59 to  
227 *agr-II*; and ST640 to *agr-IV* (Figure S2).

## 228 **DISCUSSION**

229 Because *S. epidermidis* is a predominant microorganism in the human skin microbiome,  
230 several studies have focused on the search for genetic markers that can differentiate  
231 commensal from invasive *S. epidermidis* strains in PJIs (B. Hellmark et al. 2013; Bengt  
232 Hellmark, Soderquist, et al. 2013; Méric et al. 2018; Ortega-Peña et al. 2019). Herein,  
233 we present a comparative study of *S. epidermidis* strains of patients with PJIs, healthy  
234 individuals and, as a novelty, a group of strains recovered in the surgery field during a  
235 primary arthroplasty that were not eventually involved in PJIs. We consider that the  
236 latter is a true control because, in addition to being commensal and not causing  
237 infection, these strains are present in a place that could be a route of entry for invasive  
238 strains.

239 Strains from PJI were significantly resistant to more antibiotics than HI and SF (Table  
240 2), as has been already described (Soraya Cherifi et al. 2014; Ortega-Peña et al. 2019;  
241 Salih et al. 2018). (S. Cherifi et al. 2013; B. Hellmark et al. 2013; Rolo, de Lencastre,  
242 and Miragaia 2012). Despite SF strains have undergone antibiotic pressure due to

243 prophylaxis before the arthroplasty, they did not show elevated percentage of resistance  
244 than PJI strains.

245 Results determined the high significance of MRSE (73.9%) in PJI strains than in  
246 commensals. In addition, MRSE rates remained similar to reported in other studies  
247 (Ortega-Peña et al. 2019; Salih et al. 2018)(B. Hellmark et al. 2013; Ortega-Peña et al.  
248 2019; Rolo, de Lencastre, and Miragaia 2012). It highlights MRSE is an important  
249 feature to distinguish invasive from commensal strains (B. Hellmark et al. 2013).

250 The PFGE analysis showed heterogeneity of *S. epidermidis* strains (PJI and SF) that  
251 could be explained by the increment of horizontal gene transfer and mobile genetic  
252 elements during the adaptation to both, community and hospital environments (S.  
253 Cherifi et al. 2013; M. Miragaia et al. 2007). Although six PFGE types were found  
254 containing closely related strains, it was not possible to define cross transmission among  
255 them. Five of them belonged to ST2 and shared some VGs: *ica* operon, *IS256*, *aap*,  
256 *sdrF*, *sesI* and *hld*. PFGE type 27 belonged to ST640 and, in contrast, it was *ica* operon  
257 negative, therefore, biofilm formation seems to be mediated by other VGs such as, *bhp*,  
258 *sdrF* and *embp*.

259 Moreover, the great diversity of STs found, showed that commensal strains were more  
260 divergent than the invasive strains (Figure S1), similar to that found by Du et al. (Du et  
261 al. 2013). ST2 was the most frequent and only occurred in PJI strains; as is well  
262 known, it has been reported that ST2 is the most widespread hospital-associated ST  
263 worldwide (Soraya Cherifi et al. 2014; Du et al. 2013; M. Miragaia et al. 2007; Ortega-  
264 Peña et al. 2019; Salgueiro et al. 2017).

265 ST2 strains besides to being present in PJIs were *ica* operon, *IS256*, *mecA* positive and  
266 multiresistant. The combination of these pathogenicity determinants contributes to the

267 adaptation and survival of pathogenic clones, such as ST2, to specific physiological  
268 conditions during infection, the antibiotic barrier and the host defenses(Christensen and  
269 Brüggemann 2014; Du et al. 2013; Post et al. 2017, Méric 2018).

270 Instead, other STs such as ST5, ST35, ST57 and ST657 were shared between strains of  
271 different groups (Figure 2), which can be considered true opportunistic pathogens,  
272 where strains have the same ability to cause infection (Méric 2018).

273 In this study, significant differences were not detected in biofilm production and the  
274 presence of *icaA*, among invasive and commensal strains; similar to other studies  
275 (Bengt Hellmark, Soderquist, et al. 2013; Méric et al. 2018; Salgueiro et al. n.d.).  
276 Although *icaA* positive strains have been related to strong biofilm producers (Soraya  
277 Cherifi et al. 2014), it was not observed in our study. Thus, from our point of view,  
278 biofilm formation is not a feature to discriminate between commensal and pathogenic  
279 strains.

280 Finally, *embp*, *hld* and ACME were statistically higher in HI. It could be explain due to  
281 the importance of these markers for bacterial survival and increase in the ability of *S.*  
282 *epidermidis* to colonize and spread in different environments (B. Hellmark et al. 2013;  
283 Bengt Hellmark, Soderquist, et al. 2013). Although *agr-I* has been previously associated  
284 with invasive strains (B. Hellmark et al. 2013) we did not observe this predominance.

285 The limitations of our study are those implicit to the sample size, mainly in SF and the  
286 absence of commensal strains from the skin of PJI patients, but the main strength is that  
287 includes a new group of strains to be compared. Until this study, clinical strains were  
288 always compared with those isolated from healthy skin, but never compared to strains  
289 that could reach the surgical field, but had not caused an infection. Development of the

290 infection depends on the strain, the inoculum of microorganisms that have reached the  
291 surgical field, the immune system of the patient and the prophylactic treatment.

292 Despite the low number of strains, our findings suggest that SF behaved similarly to HI  
293 strains. This new group of strains allowed it to be defined as a true control to  
294 discriminate between the commensal and PJI strains.

295 In conclusion, there was no single marker to differentiate invasive from commensal  
296 strains, but the combination of some markers allow to establish differences between  
297 populations: PJIs were caused by *S. epidermidis* strains that belonged more often to the  
298 ST2, were positive for *ica* operon, *IS256*, *sdrF*, *bhp* and *mecA*, whereas the presence of  
299 *embp*, *hld* and ACME was found significant in commensal strains. The development of  
300 rapid tests in the routine laboratory, such as a multiple PCR, which includes these  
301 pathogenicity determinants, could allow rapid differentiation of invasive and  
302 commensal strains into PJIs.