Comparative genotypes, staphylococcal cassette chromosome mec (SCCmec) genes and

antimicrobial resistance amongst Staphylococcus epidermidis and Staphylococcus

haemolyticus isolates from infections in humans and companion animals

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1 Abstract

2	This study compares the characteristics of Staphylococcus epidermidis (SE) and
3	Staphylococcus haemolyticus (SH) isolates from epidemiologically unrelated infections in
4	humans (Hu) (28 SE-Hu; 8 SH-Hu) and companion animals (CpA) (12 SE-CpA; 13 SH-
5	CpA). All isolates underwent antimicrobial susceptibility testing, multilocus sequence typing
6	and DNA microarray profiling to detect antimicrobial resistance and SCCmec-associated
7	genes. All methicillin-resistant (MR) isolates (33/40 MRSE, 20/21 MRSH) underwent dru
8	typing and mecA allele identification.
9	Isolates were predominantly assigned to sequence types (STs) within a single clonal
10	complex (CC2, MRSE; CC1, MRSH). SCCmec IV predominated among MRSE with ST2-
11	MRSE-IVc common to both Hu (9/22, 40.9%) and CpA (6/11, 54.5%). Identical mecA alleles
12	and nontypeable dru types (dts) were identified in one ST2-MRSE -IVc Hu and CpA isolate,
13	however, all mecA alleles and 2/4 dts detected among 18 ST2-MRSE-IVc isolates were
14	closely related, sharing >96.5% DNA sequence homology.
15	Although only one ST-SCCmec type combination (ST1 with a non-typeable [NT]
16	SCCmec NT9 [class C mec and ccrB4]) was common to four MRSH-Hu and one MRSH-
17	CpA, all MRSH isolates were closely related based on similar STs, SCCmec genes (V/V _T or
18	components thereof), mecA alleles and dts. Overall, 39.6% of MR isolates harbored NT
19	SCCmec elements, and ACME was more common amongst MRSE and CpA isolates.
20	The majority of isolates exhibited multiresistance but differed in the prevalence of
21	specific macrolide, aminoglycoside and trimethoprim resistance genes amongst SE and SH
22	isolates. Resistance to ciprofloxacin, rifampicin, chloramphenicol [fexA, cat-pC221],
23	tetracycline [tet(K)], aminoglycosides [aadD, aphA3] and fusidic acid [fusB] was significantly
24	more common amongst CpA isolates.
25	SE and SH isolates causing infections in Hu and CpA hosts belong predominantly to
26	similar STs within a single lineage, harboring similar but variable SCCmec genes, mecA

27	alleles and dts. Host and staphylococcal species-specific characteristics were identified in
28	relation to antimicrobial resistance genes and phenotypes, SCCmec and ACME.
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48 Introduction

49 clinically relevant coagulase-negative staphylococcal (CoNS) species, Staphylococcus epidermidis and Staphylococcus haemolyticus, are among the leading causes 50 51 of nosocomial infections in humans, particularly in neonates, immunocompromised patients 52 and patients with indwelling and implanted devices [1, 2]. A number of comparative 53 population studies of CoNS species recovered from nasal swabs of domesticated animals. 54 livestock and associated farmers and veterinary personnel [3-5] have indicated that CoNS 55 may be transmitted between these hosts in close contact. To date, detailed comparative 56 population analyses of specific CoNS species recovered from infections in humans and 57 companion animals are lacking. 58 Methicillin resistance (MR) is more common among S. epidermidis and S. 59 haemolyticus isolates from both animals and humans compared to Staphylococcus aureus [6-60 8]. These CoNS are a reservoir of staphylococcal cassette chromosome (SCC) elements for S. 61 aureus, including SCC harboring the MR gene mec (SCCmec) and the SCC-like arginine 62 catabolic mobile element (ACME) [9, 10] which facilities staphylococcal colonization of 63 human skin [11, 12]. Several studies have indicated that a great diversity of SCCmec and 64 ACME-arc associated genes exist among CoNS, and that particular CoNS species may be a 65 reservoir for specific SCCmec elements or genes [13]. Such CoNS often carry non-typeable 66 SCCmec elements with novel cassette chromosome recombinase (ccr) and mec gene 67 complexes, or combinations of these genes, yet unidentified in methicillin resistant S. aureus 68 (MRSA). These combinations may give rise to new SCC*mec* elements in MRSA [10, 13-15]. 69 The direct-repeat unit (dru) region within the SCCmec element has proved useful for tracking 70 the epidemiological spread of different SCC*mec* elements as well as for further discriminating 71 MRSA [16]. 72 In addition to methicillin, resistance to other antimicrobial agents has also been

reported to be more common among CoNS than in *S. aureus* [4, 17-20]. Many of these

resistance genes in CoNS are located on mobile genetic elements (MGEs) and similar genes have been identified in *S. aureus* indicating the horizontal transfer of these genes among staphylococci [15, 21]. To date, only a few studies that examined the antimicrobial resistance patterns among staphylococci differentiated between individual CoNS species, making the prevalence of antimicrobial resistance among individual species difficult to ascertain [3, 4, 22]. Importantly, few studies have investigated the correlation of antimicrobial resistance phenotype and the presence of specific antimicrobial resistance genes in specific CoNS species [23-25]. Lastly, previous studies that investigated the antimicrobial susceptibility of CoNS all utilized different panels of antimicrobial agents to each other, making direct comparisons difficult [5, 20, 22, 26]. In this regard, direct comparison of the antimicrobial resistance phenotypes and associated resistance genes of specific CoNS species recovered from human and animal infections could be highly informative.

Coagulase-negative staphylococci are the third most commonly isolated pathogen from bloodstream infections among patients in Irish hospitals [27]. Despite this, little is known about the molecular epidemiology and population structure of specific CoNS species from patients in Irish hospitals. Although studies have shown similar MRSA strains among humans and companion animals in Ireland [28, 29], there are no published data regarding the epidemiology of CoNS here.

Pulsed-field gel electrophoresis (PFGE) has for many years been considered the gold standard for molecular typing of *S. epidermidis* and *S. haemolyticus* during outbreak investigations but is unsuitable for investigating the relatedness of isolates recovered over long periods of time [30, 31]. However, multilocus sequence typing (MLST) schemes have also been developed for investigating the population structures of these species [30, 32]. Despite the identification of a high level of genetic diversity and a large numbers of sequence types (STs) within the *S. epidermidis* population, isolates from human and animal hosts worldwide predominantly belong to clonal complex 2 (CC2) [22, 33]. The application of

MLST to *S. haemolyticus* has had limited success; the only scheme developed revealed that the majority of 48 *S. haemolyticus* isolates investigated belonged to one main lineage, despite being recovered from disparate geographic locations around the world and over a long time period. However, this study included just four veterinary *S. haemolyticus* isolates, two of which were closely related to the human clinical isolates examined by MLST [32].

The potential of companion animals and humans to act as sources of staphylococcal infections for each other, as well as to provide a genetic reservoir for *S. aureus* means that it is essential that their population structure, antimicrobial resistance and molecular characteristics are better understood. The aim of this study was to compare the population structures, the prevalence of SCC*mec* genes, ACME and antimicrobial resistance phenotypes and associated resistance genes, among *S. haemolyticus* and *S. epidermidis* isolates recovered from unrelated infections in both humans and companion animals. The objective was to determine if the population structures of epidemiologically unrelated infection causing isolates of the two species are similar in both human and animal hosts in the absence of direct transmission. This study also investigated the contribution of *S. haemolyticus* and *S. epidermidis* to the staphylococcal gene pool with particular regard to SCC*mec*-associated and antimicrobial resistance genes.

118 Methods

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Isolates. A total of 40 S. epidermidis (SE) isolates, 28 from humans (Hu) and 12 from companion animals (CpA), and 21 S. haemolyticus (SH) isolates, eight Hu and 13 CpA, were investigated (Table 1 and S1 Table). All Hu isolates were recovered from patients in two separate acute hospitals in Dublin, Ireland; eight SE-Hu isolates were associated with neurosurgical meningitis and were recovered from either external ventricular drains (EVDs) in patients with device-related meningitis or from non-EVD cerebrospinal fluid specimens taken by lumbar puncture between 2004 and 2006 [34]. The remaining 20 SE-Hu and the eight SH-Hu isolates were recovered from blood cultures of patients attending a separate acute hospital between 2010 and 2011. The 12 SE-CpA isolates examined were recovered from a cat (n = 1), dogs (n = 10) and a horse (n = 1). The 13 SH-CpA isolates were recovered from a cat (n = 1), dogs (n = 3) and horses (n = 9). These CpA isolates were recovered primarily in animals with wounds or infections attending a tertiary referral veterinary hospital in Dublin between 2004 and 2011 (S1 Table). Isolates were stored on commercially available cryobeads (Microbank, Pro-lab Diagnostics, Cheshire, UK) at -70°C. Confirmation of isolates as S. epidermidis and S. haemolyticus. Isolates were confirmed as either S. epidermidis or S. haemolyticus by PCR amplification and sequencing of the 16S rRNA gene using previously described primers [35]. Sequence analysis was performed using the BioNumerics (version 7.1; Applied Maths, Ghent, Belgium), and ApE (v1.17) software packages. Homology searches were performed using BLAST (http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi) [36]. Antimicrobial susceptibility testing. All isolates were investigated for MR either as described previously [37] using 10 µg and 30 µg cefoxitin disks (Oxoid Ltd., Basingstoke United Kingdom) according to the European Committee on Antimicrobial

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Susceptibility Testing (EUCAST) methodology and interpretive criteria for disk diffusion

tests or using oxacillin broth microdilution assays according to the Clinical Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) methodology for broth microdilution [38, 39]. All isolates underwent antimicrobial susceptibility testing against a panel of 23 antimicrobial agents used for antibiogram-resistogram (AR) typing according to EUCAST methodology and a combination of the interpretive criteria by EUCAST [39], CLSI [38] and Rossney *et al.* [37]. The 23 agents tested were amikacin, ampicillin, cadmium acetate, chloramphenicol, ciprofloxacin, erythromycin, ethidium bromide, fusidic acid, gentamicin, kanamycin, lincomycin, mercuric chloride, mupirocin, neomycin, phenyl mercuric acetate, rifampicin, spectinomycin, streptomycin, sulphonamide, tetracycline, tobramycin, trimethoprim, and vancomycin. All isolates were also tested for clindamycin and linezolid resistance using EUCAST methodology and interpretive criteria. All disc concentrations and interpretive criteria used are listed in S2 Table. The EUCAST and CLSI recommended *S. aureus* reference strains ATCC29213 and ATCC25923 were used as quality control strains for antimicrobial susceptibility testing. Multidrug-resistance (MDR) was defined as resistance to three or more classes of antimicrobial agents.

DNA isolation, PCR and sequencing. Total genomic DNA for use in 16S rDNA sequencing, DNA microarray profiling, MLST, SCC*mec* typing and *dru* typing was extracted using the StaphyType kit (Alere Technologies GmbH, Jena, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Apart from PCR for DNA microarray profiling, all PCRs were performed using GoTaq DNA polymerase (Promega, WI, USA). PCR products were purified using the GenElute PCR clean-up kit (Sigma, Wicklow, Republic of Ireland) or, for MLST, the QIAquick 96 well PCR purification kit (Qiagen, Crawley, UK). All DNA sequencing reactions were carried out commercially by Source BioScience LifeSciences (Waterford, Republic of Ireland).

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DNA microarray profiling. All isolates underwent DNA microarray profiling using the StaphyType kit (Alere) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The DNA microarray detects 333 gene targets including staphylococcal antimicrobial-resistance, virulence, SCCmec and ACME-arc genes [40, 41]. All isolates harboring the mecA gene were subjected to additional DNA microarray profiling using separate mecA allele typing arrays (Alere) designed to identify 15 different mecA alleles as previously described [42]. Using this method, the mecA alleles were designated according to their GenBank accession numbers [42]. The sequences of mecA alleles were compared using the GenBank sequences and the alignment software program Mega 6.0 [43]. **SCC**mec typing. Any isolates found to carry unusual combinations of SCC or SCC*mec* genes using the StaphyType DNA microarray underwent multiplex PCRs to confirm the presence or absence of particular genes. This included previously described multiplex SCCmec typing PCRs to detect the mec gene complexes A-C, the ccr gene complexes ccrAB1-AB4 and ccrC and the joining regions of SCCmec types I-IV [44, 45]. The following S. aureus strains were used as positive controls for SCCmec typing PCRs: phenotype II 43.2 (SCCmec I, ccrAB1) [46], CA05 (SCCmec IV, class B mec, ccrAB2) [47], WIS (class C mec) [48], 07.4/0237 (SCCmec II) [46], JCSC 4744 (IVA) [44], M00/0005.2 (ccrAB4) [49], and E0898 (SCCmec III, class A mec, ccrAB3 ccrC) [49]. All isolates found to carry ccrC underwent multiplex PCR for the ccrC allotypes ccrC2 and ccrC8 to differentiate between SCCmec V (ccrC2) and V_T (ccrC2 and ccrC8), as described previously [50], using the S. aureus clinical isolate M06/0318 (SCCmec V_T) as a positive control strain [51]. All isolates found to harbor SCCmec IV or possible novel SCCmec types with mec and/or ccr genes indicative of SCCmec IV, underwent SCCmec IV subtyping PCR as previously described [52], using the following S. aureus strains as positive controls: CA05 (SCCmec IVa) [47],

- 191 8/63P (SCCmec IVb) [47], JCSC4788 (SCCmec IVc) [53], JCSC4469 (SCCmec IVd) [53],
- 192 M04/0177 (SCCmec IVg) [49] and E1749 (SCCmec IVh) [49].

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PCR-based detection of antimicrobial resistance genes. Isolates 193 194 were subjected to PCR-based detection of antimicrobial resistance genes to confirm (i) the 195 absence of a resistance gene(s) if an isolate exhibited phenotypic resistance to an 196 antimicrobial agent and no corresponding resistance gene was detected using the StaphyType 197 DNA microarray, or (ii) the presence of a resistance gene(s) detected in an isolate using the 198 DNA microarray which did not exhibit phenotypic resistance to the corresponding 199 antimicrobial agent(s). This included PCRs to detect the presence of aacA-aphD, aadD, 200 aphA3, cat-pC221, dfrS1, erm(A), erm(C), ileS2, merA, merB, qacA and qacC. Lastly, PCRs 201 were also performed to detect additional trimethoprim resistance genes (dfrG and dfrK) not 202 detected using the DNA microarray in isolates that exhibited phenotypic resistance to 203 trimethoprim but lacked dfrS1. The oligonucleotide primers used for these PCRs are detailed 204 in S3 Table.

Direct repeat unit (*dru*) **typing.** All methicillin-resistant staphylococcal isolates investigated (n = 55) were subjected to *dru* typing using previously described primers and thermal cycling conditions [16]. The BioNumerics tandem-repeat sequence typing (TRST) plug-in was used for *dru* sequence analysis and assignment of *dru* types (dts). The *dru* region of five MRSE isolates could not be amplified by the originally described *dru* typing primers. For these isolates, the *dru* region was amplified using previously described primers mecAF and ISmecR that extend from *mecA* to IS431 (S3 Table) [46]. Minimum spanning trees (MSTs) were constructed based on the dts identified as previously described [54]. Due to the increased likelihood of recombination amongst *S. epidermidis* and *S. haemolyticus* populations, the bin distance was set to 1%, i.e., the distance between two entries with >99% similarity was 0 (a distance interval of 99 to 100% similarity equals a

distance of 0) on the MST, and the distance between two entries with 98 to 99 % similarity

was 1 (a distance interval of 98 to 99% similarity equals a distance of 1).

218 **MLST.** All isolates were subjected to MLST. A previously described species-specific 219 scheme, including primers and thermal cycling conditions, was used for MLST of S. 220 epidermidis isolates [55]. A S. haemolyticus-specific scheme was used for MLST of S. 221 haemolyticus isolates [32] but primer SH1200R was substituted with a novel primer (SH1200R2 5' -ACCAGGCTTGTCACCATGA-3') and SH1431F was substituted with a 222 223 novel primer (SH1431F2 5' -TCAGACCAACAATTCCCACC -3') to increase amplimer 224 yields. For S. haemolyticus isolates, thermal cycling conditions consisted of an initial 225 denaturation step of 94°C for two min, followed by 35 repeated cycles of 94°C for one min, 226 51°C for 30 s and 72°C for 30 s, and a final elongation step of 72°C for five min. Sequence 227 analysis was performed using the ABI prism Segscape (version 2.6, Applied Biosystems, 228 Foster City, CA) or BioNumerics software. Staphylococcus epidermidis alleles and sequence 229 types (STs) were identified using the S. epidermidis-specific MLST database 230 (http://sepidermidis.mlst.net/) [56]. As there is no publicly available S. haemolyticus MLST 231 database, alleles and STs were assigned identification numbers using our own in-house 232 database (S4 and S5 Tables). For both species, assignment of STs to CCs was performed 233 using the eBURST algorithm, where an ST was only assigned to a CC if it shared at least 6/7 234 MLST loci with at least one other ST within a CC [57]. 235 Statistical analyses. In order to determine if the differences in the prevalence of

antimicrobial resistance genes and phenotypes and ACME were significant between SH and SE isolates or between isolates recovered from Hu and CpA hosts, two-tailed Fisher's exact tests were utilized. These analyses were carried out using GraphPad QuickCalcs (http://www.graphpad.com/quickcalcs/index.cfm).

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240	Nucleotide accession numbers. The nucleotide sequences of the mecA-
241	IS431mec amplimers for MRSE isolates 23767, 28427, 31169, 408 996.1, and BM11 that
242	lacked the dru region have been deposited in the GenBank database under accession numbers
243	KP265311, KP265312, KP265313, KP265314 and KP265315, respectively.

244 Results

245	Methicillin resistance, genotypes and SCC-associated genes
246	among SE isolates. In total, 33/40 (82.5%) SE isolates exhibited MR and carried mecA
247	(Table 1). Twelve STs were identified amongst the MRSE isolates with 22/33 (66.7%) and
248	8/33 (24.2%) isolates belonging to CC2 clusters I and II, respectively (Table 1) [33]. ST2 was
249	common to both MRSE-Hu and -CpA isolates, and this was the predominant ST identified
250	amongst both groups (9/22, 40.9% MRSE-Hu and 9/11, 81.8% MRSE-CpA) (Table 1).
251	Overall 25/33 (75.8%) MRSE isolates were assigned to SCCmec types III, IV and VI.
252	SCCmec IV (most commonly subtype IVc) predominated amongst both MRSE-Hu (13/22,
253	59.1%) and MRSE-CpA (Table 1). Based on DNA microarray analysis and PCR, non-
254	typeable (NT) SCCmec elements, tentatively designated NTs 1-8, were detected among 8/33
255	(24.2%) MRSE (Hu and CpA) isolates, as these lacked, contained additional, or had unusual
256	combinations of mec and/or ccr genes (Table 1). Half of these NT SCCmec elements
257	consisted of class B mec with ccrAB2 indicative of SCCmec IV but they also carried
258	additional <i>ccr</i> genes (NTs 1-4, Table 1) with NTs 1-3 also harboring ACME- <i>arc</i> (Table 1).
259	Three further NTs carried class A mec with unusual combinations of ccr genes or ACME-arc
260	genes (NTs 5, 6 & 8, Table 1). The final NT SCCmec element carried class C mec with
261	ccrAB2, SCCmec IV subtype IVh and ACME-arc genes (NT7, Table 1).
262	Six and four mecA alleles were identified amongst the MRSE-Hu and -CpA isolates,
263	respectively (Table 1), but these shared >99.85% DNA sequence similarity and differed by a
264	maximum of three nucleotide bases. All mecA alleles detected amongst the MRSE-CpA were
265	also detected amongst the MRSE-Hu (Table 1). The mecA allele ABSA010000166 previously
266	detected in S. aureus, S. pseudintermedius and SE was detected in 10/22 (45.5%) MRSE-Hu
267	and 4/11 (36.4%) MRSE-CpA (Table 1). With the exception of one MRSE-CpA isolate

268 harboring SCCmec III, all of the MRSE isolates in which this allele was detected harbored 269 SCCmec IV. 270 Four mecA alleles were detected among isolates of the most prevalent MRSE genotype 271 (ST2-MRSE-IVc) with only one allele (ABSA01000066) common to both hosts (Table 1). 272 The ST2-MRSE-IVc isolates either lacked the *dru* region or were assigned to one of four dts, 273 with non-typeable dts common to Hu and CpA isolates (Table 1). However, two of the 274 remaining ST2-MRSE-IVc dts, dt10h and dt9g, were deemed to be closely related (MST 275 value of 2.5 i.e. 96.5-97 % similarity; S1a Fig.) and were identified from a Hu and CpA host. 276 respectively. 277 Among the MSSE, four of five STs identified belonged to CC2 (Table 1). Only one 278 MSSE-CpA isolate was identified and was distinct from the Hu isolates in terms of ST and 279 the presence of ACME-arc genes. Among the MSSE, two possible novel SCCs (tentatively 280 designated SCCs 1 and 2) were detected consisting of ccrAB2 alone or in combination with 281 ccrAB1 and ACME-arc genes (Table 1). 282 The ACME-arc genes were more common amongst SE-CpA (6/12, 50%) than SE-Hu 283 (4/28, 14.3%) (p = 0.04) (Table 1). Methicillin resistance, genotypes and SCC-associated genes 284 among SH isolates. The majority of SH isolates (20/21, 95.2%) were MR and carried 285 286 mecA (Table 1). Eight STs were identified, seven of which were assigned to a single CC 287 (CC1) (Tables 1 and S4). While ST1 was the most common ST among SH isolates and was 288 the only ST identified in both SH-Hu and -CpA isolates, ST2 was more common among the 289 SH-CpA isolates (Table 1). 290 Previously described SCCmec elements, either SCCmec V or V_T, were detected in only 291 7/20 (35%) MRSH isolates (Table 1). Four NT SCCmec elements were detected and 292 tentatively described as NTs 9-12. With the exception of NT12, all MRSH SCCmec NTs

293 harbored class C mec and various combinations of ccr genes (Table 1). According to 294 microarray analysis, the NT12 isolate carried class B mec and ccrAB2 indicative of SCCmec 295 IV, as well as ccrA1 and was the only SH isolate that harbored the ACME-arc genes. No 296 SCCmec IV subtype was identified by PCR. Multiplex SCCmec typing PCR and sequencing 297 revealed that this isolate harbored ccrAB4, with 100% DNA sequence identity to ccrAB4 in S. 298 haemolyticus (GenBank accession no. AB587081.1) rather than ccrAB2 [58]. This SH ccrAB4 299 allele exhibited 91% and 87% DNA sequence identity to ccrAB4 and ccrAB2 in S. aureus, 300 respectively, which the array ccr primers and probes are based on. The ambiguity in the 301 identification of the ccrAB alleles in this SH isolate using the DNA microarray may be linked 302 to this. Possible novel SCCmec V and V_T subtypes were detected in two additional MRSH-CpA 303 304 isolates which carried the kdp and pls genes in addition to the class C mec and ccrAA and 305 ccrC genes (Table 1). 306 Three mecA alleles were identified among both the MRSH-Hu and -CpA isolates 307 investigated, which shared >99.9% DNA sequence similarity and differed by a maximum of 308 two nucleotide bases. The mecA alleles AY786579 and GQ92039 were detected in 10/20 309 (50%) and 7/20 (35.0%) MRSH, respectively, both being detected in MRSH-Hu and -CpA 310 isolates (Table 1). 311 ST1-MRSH-NT9 was the only common ST and SCCmec type combination detected 312 among both MRSH-Hu (n = 4) and -CpA (n = 1). Two mecA alleles and two dts were detected 313 amongst these five isolates, with only one mecA allele common to Hu and CpA isolates 314 (Table 1). However, the mecA alleles (ABSA01000066 & AY786579; one nucleotide 315 difference) and dts (dt11v & dt11ca; MST value of 2 i.e. 97-98 % similarity, S1b Fig.) were 316 closely related. All of the other ST and SCCmec type combinations were unique to either 317 MRSH-Hu or MRSH-CpA. The SCC*mec* types V or V_T were detected in MRSH-CpA (n = 6) 318 and MRSH-Hu (n = 1), but these isolates were assigned to CC1 and as a singleton,

339	Comparison of antimicrobial resistance genes amongst isolates
338	isolates, $tet(M)$ was only detected among the SH isolates $(n = 3)$.
337	2). Although tetracycline resistance encoded by <i>tet</i> (K) was detected among both SH and SE
336	and $dfrK$ were significantly more prevalent ($p = 0.0001$) amongst SH than SE isolates (Table
335	0.05) more common among the SH isolates (Table 2). The trimethoprim resistance genes dfrG
334	mph(C), and aminoglycosides, encoded by $aacA$ - $aphD$ and $aphA3$ were significantly ($p < p$
333	SE than SH isolates (Table 2). In contrast, resistance to macrolides encoded by $msr(A)$ and
332	encoded by $fusB$ and $dfrSI$, respectively, were significantly ($p < 0.05$) more prevalent among
331	SH isolates. Genes encoding resistance to fusidic acid and trimethoprim, primarily
330	Comparison of antimicrobial resistance genes amongst SE and
329	These differences are described below in more detail.
328	resistance and resistance genes detected among Hu and CpA isolates and SE and SH isolates.
327	However, differences were identified in the prevalence of phenotypic antimicrobial
326	antimicrobial agents investigated was detected among both the SE and SH isolates.
325	majority exhibited multidrug resistance (MDR) and resistance to almost all the classes of
324	genes detected among the isolates investigated are shown in Table 2 and S1 Table. The
323	Antimicrobial susceptibility. The antimicrobial resistance phenotypes and
322	harbored a NT SCC element, consisting of ccrAA and ccrA4 (SCC3, Table 1).
321	Only one MSSH isolate was identified (Hu). This isolate was identified as ST1 and
320	SCC <i>mec</i> types V or V_T isolates harbored the GQ902038 <i>mecA</i> allele.
319	respectively, and were assigned to four distinct dts (Table 1 and S1 Fig.). However, all
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Comparison of antimicrobial resistance genes amongst isolates from Hu and CpA hosts. Resistance to aminoglycosides encoded by aadD and aphA3, tetracycline encoded by tet(K) and fusidic acid encoded by fusB, were significantly (p < 0.05) more common among the CpA than Hu isolates (Table 2). Resistance to ciprofloxacin

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343	and rifampicin was also significantly more common in the CpA isolates ($p < 0.05$). Resistance
344	to chloramphenicol was detected in CpA isolates only $(p = 0.001)$ where it was encoded by
345	fexA in SE-CpA isolates and cat-pC221 among SH-CpA isolates (Table 2).

Discussion

Both similarities and differences were detected in the genotypes, SCC/SCC*mec* associated genes, *mecA* alleles and dts amongst both MRSE and MRSH isolates from Hu and CpA infections. A single ST (ST2) predominated among both SE-Hu and SE-CpA isolates. ST1 was the most common ST among SH isolates from Hu and CpA but ST2 was more common among CpA isolates and was not detected in Hu isolates. However, it is important to note that almost all STs identified within each staphylococcal species belonged to a single CC and therefore isolates within these STs are clonally related, including the SH STs 1 and 2 which differed by just two MLST alleles (S4 Table). Furthermore, the majority of MRSE and MRSH harbored a specific SCC*mec* type or components thereof (i.e. CC2 and SCC*mec* IV among the MRSE and CC1 and SCC*mec* V/V_T among the MRSH).

MecA allele and dru typing enhanced discrimination of isolates with the same ST and SCCmec type. However, several MRSE and MRSH –Hu and -CpA isolates with the same ST and SCCmec type but with different mecA alleles or dts were still deemed to be closely related due to a high degree of sequence similarity in the dru and mecA sequences (Table 1 and S1 Fig.). The use of MSTs and the comparison of the DNA sequence similarity of mecA alleles is particularly important in this study as variation may have accumulated within these regions in epidemiologically distinct but genetically related isolates over time. However, the accumulation of variation in mecA and dru in MRSE and MRSH requires further investigation. In the present study, five ST2-SCCmec IVc MRSE isolates (both Hu and CpA) lacked the dru region. This has been reported previously in S. epidermidis and S. aureus, albeit infrequently [59, 60]. It will be important to determine how widespread the absence of a dru region is in each of the staphylococcal species before it is more widely used for investigating these species. The highly clonal nature of the SH population is reflected by identification of closely related STs within a single CC and a limited number of dts. More

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informative methods such as whole-genome sequencing should be used to enhance discrimination of SH isolates.

Similar to previous reports, the present study revealed extensive genetic diversity and yet an enrichment of specific SCCmec types and genes in association with both MRSE and MRSH [13, 22, 61]. Eight distinct NT SCCmec elements were identified among eight MRSE isolates, some of which are similar to previously described NTs in MRSE [5, 61]. It is difficult to determine if the NTs identified in the present study are identical to those described previously due to the different SCCmec typing methods used and the precise genetic organization of these NTs have not been fully determined in either the present or previous studies. This finding correlates with recent research that revealed NT SCCmec elements in 21.3% of MRSE from livestock, farmers and hospital-associated MRSE [5]. In addition, three NTs were identified among the MRSH, one of which (NT10) is similar to a not fully characterized NT previously detected in MRSH [5]. It is important to emphasize that the genetic organization of the currently recognized SCCmec elements I-XI in staphylococci is based on complete nucleotide sequencing of the regions concerned [62-64]. The genetic organization of the NT SCCmec elements identified in this study are currently being investigated by whole-genome sequencing in order to definitively establish their exact relationships to SCCmec elements I-XI.

MecA allele typing provided further evidence of the specific SCC*mec* genes within individual CoNS species. Although the most prevalent *mecA* allele (AY786579) was common to MRSE and MRSH, alleles BA000018 and AB037671, (both previously detected in *S. aureus* [42]) were only detected among MRSE and allele GQ902038 (previously identified *S. aureus*, *S. haemolyticus* and *S. pseudintermedius* [42]) was only detected among MRSH (Table 1) further highlighting the spread of *mecA* among staphylococcal species.

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The ACME-*arc* genes were more common amongst SE isolates and were only detected in one SH-Hu isolate. The latter finding correlates with previous whole-genome sequence analysis of 134 SH isolates from nosocomial infections, which revealed a low prevalence of ACME *arcA* [65]. Other studies suggested that ACME originated in *S. haemolyticus* [66], although the findings of the present and previous study [65] do not support this. Interestingly, among the MRSE isolates, ACME was more common among CpA (50%) than Hu (17.9%) isolates indicating a possible reservoir for ACME among CpA isolates.

Another difference identified among isolates from Hu and CpA hosts was the presence of specific antimicrobial resistance genes and phenotypes. For example, the prevalence of chloramphenicol (encoded by cat-pC221 in SH-CpA and fexA gene in SE-CpA), ciprofloxacin, rifampicin, tetracycline, fusidic acid and aminoglycoside resistance was significantly higher in CpA isolates (p < 0.05). In contrast, a recent study revealed that resistance to rifampicin, ciprofloxacin and fusidic acid was more common among hospitalassociated SE isolates than among isolates from animals, although the animals investigated were all livestock [5]. As many of these drugs are used in both veterinary and human medicine, the transmission of resistant CoNS between humans and companion animals is clinically important, particularly as levels of pet ownership have increased over recent decades [67]. The increased prevalence of tetracycline and chloramphenicol resistance in CpA isolates may reflect the different ecological niches within different hosts and different selective pressures due to variations in common prescription practices between human and veterinary medicine as well as the overall use of antimicrobials in veterinary medicine [68]. However, it is important to note that all CpA isolates investigated were from the diagnostic laboratory of a tertiary referral veterinary hospital. Animals attending such a hospital in many instances would have received previous antimicrobial treatment from the referral practices.

The results of this study suggest that similar to SCC*mec* types and genes, SE and SH isolates are a reservoir for antimicrobial resistance genes, and in some instances, individual resistance genes are significantly more common among either species. To our knowledge, this study is the first to highlight both SE and SH species- and host- specific significant differences in the prevalence of particular antimicrobial resistance genes and phenotypes, suggestive of specific contributions of these staphylococcal species from different hosts to the staphylococcal gene pool. The trimethoprim resistance gene dfrSI and the fusidic acid resistance gene fusB were significantly more common among SE (p < 0.05), whereas the trimethoprim resistance genes dfrG and dfrK, the aminoglycoside resistance genes aacA-aphD and aphA3 and the macrolide resistance genes msr(A) and mph(C) were significantly more common among SH (p < 0.05), the latter of which is in agreement with previous studies [22].

This study has revealed that despite being epidemiologically unrelated, the populations of SE and SH isolates recovered from infections in both Hu and CpA hosts belong to similar genetic backgrounds and harbor similar SCCmec genes. The findings of the present study suggest that, even in the absence of direct transmission, similar populations of both SE and SH are capable of causing infections in Hu and CpA hosts. Host and species-specific characteristics were also identified in relation to antimicrobial resistance genes and phenotypes, SCCmec and ACME. We have highlighted significant differences in the prevalence of the specific genes encoding resistance to fusidic acid, aminoglycosides, macrolides and trimethoprim amongst SE and SH isolates, and we have shown that SE and SH isolates from CpA hosts may constitute a reservoir for ACME and genes encoding resistance to multiple antimicrobial agents including aminoglycosides, tetracycline, fusidic acid and chloramphenicol. Lastly, dru and mecA allele typing were found to be a useful addition to MLST and SCCmec typing for differentiating closely related isolates, but dts needs to be carefully considered in longer-term studies so that similarities are not overlooked.

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668	Supporting Information
669	S1 Fig. Minimum spanning trees (MSTs) of <i>dru</i> types.
670	S1 Table. Summary of isolate data.
671	S2 Table. Antimicrobial agents and breakpoints.
672	S3 Table. Oligonucleotide primer sequences.
673	S4 Table. Allelic profiles identified by Staphylococcus haemolyticus MLST.
674	S5 Table. Allele sequences identified by <i>Staphylococcus haemolyticus</i> MLST.
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Transparency Declarations

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Table 1. MLST clonal complexes and sequence types and SCCmec- associated genes detected in S. epidermidis and S. haemolyticus isolates recovered from infections in humans and companion animals

MR	CC	ST ^a	SCC/SCCmec type/genes detected ^b	mecA alleles ^d	dru types
phenotype &		[n]	[n]	[<i>n</i>]	[n]
species [n] MRSE [22 Hu, 11 CpA]	2-I	2 [9 Hu, 9 CpA]	IVc [Class B mec (mecA, \(\Delta mecR1, ugpQ \)) dcs & ccrAB2] [6 Hu]	ABSA01000066 [6 Hu]	dt9bd [3 Hu], Non-typeable [2 Hu], dt10h [1Hu]
			IVc [Class B mec (mecA, \(\Delta\text{mecR1}, ugpQ \)) dcs & ccrAB2] [6 CpA]	ABSA01000066 [2 CpA] AY786579 [2 CpA] BA000018 [1 CpA] AB037671 [1 CpA]	dt9g [1 CpA], Non-typeable [1 CpA] dt9bd [1 CpA], dt5l [1 CpA] Non-typeable [1 CpA] Non-typeable [1 CpA]
			III [Class A mec (mecA, mecR1,mecI, ugpQ, xylR) dcs & ccrAB3] [2 Hu]	GU235984 [1 Hu] EU929081 [1 Hu]	dt7ah [1 Hu] dt7ah [1 Hu]
			III [Class A mec (mecA, mecR1,mecI, ugpQ, xylR) dcs & ccrAB3] & ACME-arc [2 CpA]	ABSA01000066 [1 CpA] AY786579 [1 CpA]	dt9bn [1 CpA] dt5l [1 CpA]
			NT6 [Class A mec (mecA, mecI, mecR1, ugpQ, xylR), dcs & ccrAB3, ccrB4, ccrC] [1 Hu]	BA000018 [1 Hu]	dt9a [1 Hu]
			NT8 [Class A mec (mecA, ugpQ, mecI, mecR1, xylR), dcs] & ACME-arc [1 CpA]	AY786579 [1 CpA]	dt8b [1 CpA]
	2-II	6 [1 Hu]	NT3 [Class B mec (mecA, \(\Delta\)mecR1, ugpQ), dcs, kdp & ccrAB2, ccrA3, ccrB4] & ACME-arc [1 Hu]	AY786579 [1 Hu]	dt10ac [1 Hu]
	2-I	35 [2 Hu]	NT1 [Class B mec (mecA, AmecR1, ugpQ) & ccrAB2, ccrC (IVc)] & ACME-arc [1 Hu]	AY786579 [1 Hu]	dt10g [1 Hu]
			NT2 [Class B mec (mecA, \(\Delta\)mecR1, ugpQ), dcs & ccrAB2, ccrA1 (IVa)] & ACME-arc [1 Hu]	EU929081 [1 Hu]	dt9g [1 Hu]
	2-II	69 [1 CpA]	NT7 [Class C mec (mecA, ugpQ), dcs & ccrAB2 (IVh)] & ACME-arc [1 CpA]	BA000018 [1 CpA]	dt10a [1 CpA]
	2-II	83 [2 Hu]	${ m IV^c}$ [Class B mec ($mecA$, $\Delta mecR1$, $ugpQ$) dcs & $ccrAB2$] [1 Hu]	GU235984 [1 Hu]	dt8am [1 Hu]
			NT4 [Class B mec ($mecA$, $\Delta mecR1$, $ugpQ$) & $ccrAB2$, $ccrAB4$] [1 Hu]	AY786579 [1 Hu]	dt11b [1 Hu]
	2-II	85 [1 Hu]	${ m IV^c}$ [Class B mec ($mecA$, $\triangle mecR1$, $ugpQ$) dcs & $ccrAB2$] & ACME- arc [1 Hu]	ABSA01000066 [1 Hu]	dt10a [1 Hu]

	S	264 [1 Hu]	VI [class B mec ($mecA$, $\Delta mecR1$, $ugpQ$), $ccrAB4$] [1 Hu]	AB037671 [1 Hu]	dt10a [1 Hu]
	9	490 [1 Hu]	NT5 [mecA, mecI, mecR1, ugpQ, dcs & ccrAB1] [1 Hu]	BA000018 [1 Hu]	dt8f [1 Hu]
	2-I	592 [2 Hu]	IV ^c [Class B mec ($mecA$, $\Delta mecRI$, $ugpQ$) dcs & $ccrAB2$] [1 Hu] IVc [Class B mec ($mecA$, $\Delta mecRI$, $ugpQ$) dcs & $ccrAB2$] [1 Hu]	ABSA01000066 [2 Hu]	dt9bd [2 Hu]
MSSE [6 Hu, 1 CpA]	2-I	35 [2 Hu]	SCC1 [ccrAB2] [2 Hu]	NA [2 Hu]	NA [2 Hu]
(* · · / · · r)	2-II	152 [1 Hu]	None [1 Hu]	NA [1 Hu]	NA [1 Hu]
	2-II	166 [1 CpA]	SCC 2 [ccrB1 & ccrAB2] & ACME-arc [1 CpA]	NA [1 CpA]	NA [1 CpA]
	2-II	256 [1 Hu]	SCC1 [ccrAB2] [1 Hu]	NA [1 Hu]	NA [1 Hu]
	13	357 [2 Hu]	None [2 Hu]	NA [2 Hu]	NA [2 Hu]
MRSH [7 Hu, 13 CpA]	1	1 [5 Hu, 3 CpA]	NT9 [class C mec (mecA, ugpQ), ccrB4] [4 Hu, 1 CpA]	ABSA01000066 [2 Hu] AY786579 [2 Hu, 1CpA]	dt11v [2 Hu] dt11v [2 Hu], dt11ca [1 CpA]
			NT12 [class B mec (mecA, AmecR1, ugpQ), ccrAB4, ccrA1, dcs] & ACME-arc [1 Hu]	AY786579 [1 Hu]	dt10a [1 Hu]
			$V_T[Class\ C\ mec\ (mecA,\ ugpQ),\ pls,\ kdp\ \&\ ccrAA,\ ccrC\ (ccrC2\ \&\ ccrC8)]\ [1\ CpA]$ $V_T[Class\ C\ mec\ (mecA,\ ugpQ)\ \&\ ccrAA,\ ccrC\ (ccrC2\ \&\ ccrC8)]\ [1\ CpA]$	GQ902038 [1 CpA] GQ902038 [1 CpA]	dt10a [1 CpA] dt11cu [1 CpA]
	1	2 [5 CpA]	NT10 [class C mec (mecA, ugpQ)] [4 CpA]	AY786579 [4 CpA]	dtlla [4 CpA]
			NT11 [class C mec (mecA, ugpQ), ccrA3, ccrB4] [1 CpA]	AY786579 [1 CpA]	dt9bd [1 CpA]
	1	3 [2 CpA]	V_T [Class C $mec(mecA, ugpQ)$ & $ccrAA, ccrC(ccrC2$ & $ccrC8)$] [2 CpA]	GQ902038 [2 CpA]	dt11a [2 CpA]
	1	4 [1 CpA]	V [Class C mec (mecA, ugpQ), pls, kdp & ccrAA, ccrC (ccrC2 only)] [1 CpA]	GQ902038 [1 CpA]	dt11a [1 CpA]
	1	5 [1 CpA]	NT10 [class C mec (mecA, ugpQ)] [1 CpA]	BA000018 [1 CpA]	dt11a [1 CpA]
	1	6 [1 CpA]	V_T [Class C mec ($mecA$, $ugpQ$) & $ccrAA$, $ccrC$ ($ccrC2$ & $ccrC8$)] [1 CpA]	GQ902038 [1 CpA]	dt11a [1 CpA]
	1	8 [1 Hu]	NT9 [class C mec (mecA, ugpQ), ccrB4] [1 Hu]	AY786579 [1 Hu]	dt11v [1 Hu]
	S	9 [1 Hu]	V [Class C mec (mecA, ugpQ) & ccrAA, ccrC (ccrC2)] [1 Hu]	GQ902038 [1 Hu]	dt5i [1 Hu]
MSSH [1 Hu]	1	1 [1 Hu]	SCC 3 [ccrAA, ccrA4] [1 Hu]	NA [1 Hu]	NA [1 Hu]

- 697 ^a Sequence types (STs) were determined using species-specific multilocus sequence typing (MLST) schemes as previously described [32,
- 698 55].

- 699 ^b Genes commonly associated with SCC*mec* elements were detected using the StaphyType DNA array kit (Alere Technologies GmbH,
- Jena, Germany). Any isolates found to carry unusual combinations of SCC or SCCmec genes using the DNA microarray were further
- 701 characterized using multiplex PCRs as previously described [44, 45, 50, 52].
- 702 ^c These isolates could not be subtyped by PCR [52] despite harboring *mec* and/or *ccr* genes indicative of SCC*mec* IV.
- 703 d MR isolates were subjected to DNA microarray analysis to detect the alleles of mecA present as previously described [42]. The mecA
- alleles detected are described according to their GenBank accession numbers.
- Abbreviations: Hu, Human; CpA, Companion animal; MR, Methicillin resistance, CC, Clonal complex; ST, Sequence type; SCC,
- 706 staphylococcal cassette chromosome; dt, dru type; MRSE, methicillin-resistant S. epidermidis; MSSE, methicillin-susceptible S.
- 707 epidermidis; MRSH, methicillin-resistant S. haemolyticus; MSSH, methicillin-susceptible S. haemolyticus; ACME, arginine catabolic
- mobile element; NT, Non-typeable SCC*mec* type; S, singleton; NA, Not applicable.

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Table 2. Prevalence of antimicrobial resistance genes and phenotypic resistance to antimicrobial agents among *S. epidermidis* and *S. haemolyticus* isolates from humans and companion animals^a

Class of antimicrobial	Resistance Relevant		No. of isolates (%)			
agents	gene detected	resistance phenotype detected ^a	SE-Hu (<i>n</i> = 28)	SE-CpA (<i>n</i> = 12)	SH-Hu (<i>n</i> = 8)	SH-CpA $(n = 13)$
Aminoglycosides	aacA-aphD ^b	Ak, Gn, Kn, Tb ^b	12 (42.9)	8 (66.7)	7 (75)	12 (92)
	$aadD^{b}$	Ak, Kn, Nn, Tb ^b	2 (7.1)	4 (33.3)	2 (25)	6 (46.2)
	aphA3	Kn, Nm	0 (0)	3 (25)	1 (12.5)	6 (46.2)
	N/A ^c	Sp, St	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Antiseptics,	$qacA^d$	Eb^d	23 (82.1)	9 (75)	5 (62.5)	7 (53.8)
disinfectants and intercalating dyes	$qacC^d$	Eb^d	3 (10.7)	0 (0)	1 (12.5)	2 (15.4)
Beta-lactams (excluding methicillin)	blaZ	Ap	28 (100)	11 (91.7)	7 (87.5)	13 (100)
Chloramphenicol	cat-pC221	Cl	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	5 (38.4)
	fexA	Cl	0 (0)	2 (16.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Fluoroquinolones	N/A ^c	Ср	16 (57.1)	10 (83.3)	6 (75)	12 (82.3)
Fusidic acid	fusB ^e	Fd ^e	18 (64.3)	11 (91.7)	0 (0)	9 (69.2)
	fusC	Fd	3 (10.7)	0 (0)	1 (12.5)	0 (0)
Glycopeptides	vanA, B, Z	Vn	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Lincosamides	lnu(A)	Da & Ln	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (15.4)
Lincosamides,	vga	Da & Ln	2 (7.1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	4 (30.8)
pleuromutilins and streptogramin A/B	vga(A)	Da & Ln	2 (7.1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
compounds	vga(B)	Da & Ln	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Linezolid	cfr	Lz	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Macrolides	msr(A)	Er	13 (46.4)	6 (50)	7 (87.5)	12 (92.3)
	mph(C)	Er	5 (17.9)	1 (8.3)	7 (87.5)	12 (92.3)
Macrolides	erm(A)	Da, Er & Ln	2 (7.1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
lincosamides & streptogramin B compounds	erm(B) $erm(C)^f$	Da, Er & Ln Da, Er & Ln	0 (0) 9 (32.1)	1 (8.3) 8 (66.7)	0 (0) 2 (25)	1 (7.7) 4 (30.8)
Mercury	merA & merB	Mc, Pma	4 (14.3)	2 (16.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Mupirocin	ileS2	Mp	9 (32.1)	1 (8.3)	0 (0)	1 (7.7)

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Rifampicin	N/A ^d	Rf	21 (75.0)	10 (83.3)	2 (25)	12 (92.3)
Streptogramin A compounds	vat(B)	Ln	2 (7.1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Sulphonamide	N/A ^c	Su	21 (75.0)	8 (66.7)	7 (87.5)	11 (84.6)
Tetracycline	tet(M)	Te	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (23.1)
	tet(K)	Te	2 (7.1)	5 (41.7)	0 (0)	10 (76.9)
Trimethoprim	dfrS1 ^g	Тр	24 (85.7)	9 (75)	2 (25)	1 (7.7)
	dfrG	Тр	1 (3.6)	0 (0)	7 (87.5)	9 (69.2)
	dfrK	Тр	1 (3.6)	2 (16.7)	7 (87.5)	9 (69.2)
	Total no. MDR ^h		27	12	7	13

^aFull resistance profiles for all isolates are shown in S1 Table. Antimicrobial resistance patterns were determined by testing the susceptibility of isolates to a panel of 25 antimicrobial agents including amikacin (Ak), ampicillin (Ap), cadimium acetate (Cd), chloramphenicol (Cl), ciprofloxacin (Cp), clindamycin (Da), ethidium bromide (Eb), erythromycin (Er), fusidic acid (Fd), gentamicin (Gn), kanamycin (Kn), lincomycin (Ln), linezolid (Lz), mercuric chloride (Mc), mupirocin (Mp), neomycin (Nm), phenyl mercuric acetate (Pma), rifampicin (Rf), spectinomycin (Sp), streptomycin (St), sulphonamide (Su), tetracycline (Te), tobramycin (Tb), trimethoprim (Tp) and vancomycin (Vn). bNot all isolates harboring the aadD or aphA3 genes exhibited phenotypic resistance to all of the relevant aminoglycosides. Of the 40 isolates harboring aacA-aphD, only five exhibited amikacin resistance. The aadD gene was detected in 14 isolates, four of which were amikacin-resistant; three of these 14 isolates exhibited only kanamycin and tobramycin resistance. ^cN/A, not applicable as resistance to each of these agents is mediated by mutations, or by genes not detected by the DNA microarray. The presence of these mutations or genes were not determined in these isolates in the present study. Ten of the isolates harboring qacA and two of the isolates harboring qacC exhibited susceptibility to quaternary ammonium compounds. eThe fusB gene was detected in one isolate which lacked the appropriate resistance phenotype. ^fOf the 23 isolates harboring erm(C), all exhibited erythromycin resistance, however 13 of these isolates were susceptible to lincomycin. ^gThe dfrS1 gene was detected in eight isolates which lacked the appropriate resistance phenotype. ^hMDR, Multidrug-resistance, defined as resistance to three or more classes of antimicrobial agents.

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