## Increased usage of antiseptics is associated with reduced susceptibility in clinical isolates of *S. aureus*

3

# Katherine Hardy <sup>1,2</sup>, Katie Sunnucks <sup>2</sup>, Hannah Gil <sup>2</sup>, Sahida Shabir <sup>3</sup>, Eleftheria Trampari <sup>4</sup>, Peter Hawkey <sup>2,5</sup> and Mark Webber<sup>4</sup>

6

- Public Health England Birmingham Laboratory, Heart of England NHS Foundation Trust,
   Birmingham, UK, B9 5SS
- Institute of Microbiology and Infection, University of Birmingham, Birmingham, UK, B15
   2TT
- Research and Development, Heart of England NHS Foundation Trust, Bordesley Green
   East, Birmingham, UK, B9 5SS
- 13 4. Quadram Institute Bioscience, Norwich Research Park, Norwich, UK, NR4 7UA
- 14 5. University Hospital Birmingham, Birmingham, UK, B15 2TH
- 15
- 16
- 17 Key words:
- 18 Methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*, Chlorhexidine, Octenidine dihydrochloride
- 19

20

#### 22 Abstract

23 Hospital acquired infection is a major cause of morbidity and mortality and regimes to 24 prevent infection are crucial in infection control. These include decolonisation of at-risk patients of carriage of MRSA which is commonly achieved by protocols that include the use 25 26 of chlorhexidine, or octenidine as biocidal agents. There is however no standardised single 27 decolonisation regime agreed upon in the UK or other countries and protocols include a variety of active agents. Antibiotic resistant bacteria cause major problems in hospital 28 medicine and concern has been raised regarding the development of biocide resistance 29 30 which would cause decolonisation regimes to become unreliable. In this study, we 31 assembled a panel of isolates of S. aureus including isolates collected before the 32 development of chlorhexidine and octenidine through to a contemporaneous panel of 33 isolates from a major hospital trust in the UK during a period when the decolonisation regime 34 was altered. We observed significant increases in the MIC and MBC of chlorhexidine in isolates collected from periods of high usage of chlorhexidine. No isolates had a significantly 35 altered MIC or MBC of octenidine apart from those collected after octenidine was introduced 36 37 into the trust where isolates with four-fold decreases in susceptibility emerged. There was no 38 suggestion of cross-resistance between the two biocidal agents. A combination of VNTR, PCR for *gac* genes and whole genome sequencing was used to type isolates and examine 39 possible mechanisms of resistance. The typing data showed no expansion of a single strain 40 41 was associated with decreased biocide tolerance and isolates with increased chlorhexidine 42 MIC and MBCs were found from different clonal complexes; CC8, CC22 and CC30. Biocide susceptibility did not correlate with carriage of *gac* efflux pump genes – carriage of *gacA* and 43 44 gacB was detected but, with one exception was restricted to isolates of CC8. Analysis of genome sequence data for closely related pairs of strains with differential biocide 45 46 susceptibility revealed no common mutations or carriage of accessory elements that 47 correlated with biocide tolerance. Mutations with the NorA or NorB efflux pumps, previously 48 associated with chlorhexidine export were identified suggesting this may be an important 49 mechanism of biocide tolerance. The clinical relevance of decreased biocide tolerance in 50 terms of efficacy of decolonisation therapies remains to be established but we present 51 evidence here that isolates are evolving in the face of biocide challenge in patients and that 52 changes to decolonisation regimes are reflected in changes in susceptibility of isolates. More work is needed to assess the impact of these changes to ensure effective and robust 53 54 decolonisation protocols remain in place.

55

56

#### 57 Introduction

Antiseptics, and especially chlorhexidine, have been used widely as one of the key measures implemented in the control of infections caused by methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) in hospitals. The most widely used approach has been to use antiseptics as part of a decolonisation protocol for patients who are known to be colonised with MRSA in conjunction with nasal mupirocin. However, in some units, especially intensive care units, antiseptics have been used universally for washing of all patients (Climo *et al.*, 2013).

Chlorhexidine, which was first synthesised in 1954 (Davies *et al.*, 1954), is the most widely used antiseptic. It is a cationic biguanide agent that acts by disrupting the bacterial cell membrane. A more recent introduction to clinical practice is Octenidine dihydrochloride, which was synthesised over 30 years later (Sedlock and Bailey, 1985). Like chlorhexidine it is a cationic biguanide agent that has a broad spectrum of activity.

Due to the widespread usage of chlorhexidine, questions have been raised over the 70 71 development of resistance (Wesgate et al., 2016., Oggioni et al., 2013). Determination of chlorhexidine susceptibility has most often relied on data from minimum inhibitory 72 concentration (MIC) determinations. The MIC is however an imperfect method for testing 73 biocide resistance where the lethal rather than inhibitory concentration of the agent is of 74 75 primary importance and needs to be measured. In addition, there is no agreed standardised testing methodology and no national or international agreement regarding an appropriate cut 76 77 off for defining chlorhexidine resistance. However, many studies have often defined isolates 78 with a chlorhexidine MIC ≥4mg/l as resistant (Horner et al., 2012). No definition has been proposed for Octenidine. 79

The mechanisms of action and resistance to biocides including chlorhexidine remain poorly understood, although there are several genes that encode efflux pumps which have been shown to be able to influence biocide susceptibility. Of these, *qacA* is the most commonly associated with reduced susceptibility to chlorhexidine in Staphylococci. However, the presence of *qacA* does not necessarily result in expression of resistance to chlorhexidine and conversely resistance can be expressed without the presence of *qacA* (McGann et al., 2011; Longtin et al., 2011).

87 Most studies that have investigated reduced susceptibility to biocides have studied 88 chlorhexidine. The limited number of studies that have investigated octenidine have looked 89 at the clinical efficacy and have not included susceptibility testing as part of their studies,

90 with the only in vitro study failing to select for resistance to octenidine dihydrochloride (Al 91 Doori et al., 2007; Spencer et al., 2013; Krishna et al., 2010). Unlike octenidine, reduced 92 susceptibility has been described in chlorhexidine, with the prevalence rates varying between studies (Horner et al., 2012). Few longitudinal studies have been reported, but one 93 in Taiwan observed an increase in the percentage of MRSA strains with reduced 94 susceptibility to chlorhexidine from 1.7% to 46.7% from 1990 to 2005 (Wang et al., 2008). 95 Whilst significant increases in the MIC between both MSSA and MRSA isolates from 1989 96 compared to 2000 were observed by Lambert (Lambert, 2004). Warren et al., observed a 97 non-linear increase in the presence of *gacA/B* positive isolates, markedly increasing in years 98 99 five and six of their study, but then decreasing in the following two years (Warren et al., 2016). There have also been case reports of the selection of isolates with an increase in 100 chlorhexidine MIC in patients receiving chlorhexidine as part of a decolonisation regime 101 102 (Johnson et al., 2015).

Despite the reporting of isolates with reduced antiseptic susceptibility, the clinical impact of this is unclear with antiseptics being used at much higher concentrations than the typical MIC or MBC of these isolates. However, there are reports of clinical failures of decolonisation, including both an outbreak of a specific clone of MRSA that had decreased susceptibility to chlorhexidine and the persistence of a hospital clone that carried *qacA* and out-competed a non *qacA* carrying clone (Kampf et al., 2016; Otter et al., 2013; Batra *et al.*, 2010).

110 This study aimed to investigate whether susceptibility to the two most commonly used 111 biocides for the decolonisation of patients colonised with MRSA, chlorhexidine and 112 octenidine dihydrochloride, varied in a unique panel of *S. aureus* strains isolated over an 113 extended period where chlorhexidine use increased and octenidine was introduced.

114

115

#### 116 Materials and Methods

A panel of 157 S. aureus and methicillin resistant S. aureus strains isolated between 1928 117 and 2014 were included in the study (Table 1). This panel includes some of the earliest 118 MRSA isolates from the 1960s and 1970s, from the National Culture Type Collection 119 (NCTC). All MRSA isolates from 2002 onwards were collected from one large NHS trust in 120 the West Midlands of the UK. Since 2002 the hospital has had a policy of prescribing a 5 day 121 122 course of chlorhexidine to decolonise all known MRSA positive patients. In 2014 universal washing of all patients with octenidine dihydrochloride for the duration of their hospital stay 123 124 was implemented, with those patients identified as being colonised/infected with MRSA continuing to receive chlorhexidine. 125

126 In this study both screening and clinical isolates were included. The isolates were grouped 127 into four panels (Table 1) to reflect the usage of octenidine dihydrochloride and chlorhexidine 128 from 1928 to 2014 (Groups 1-4). The first group comprised 15 MSSA isolates from 1928-129 1953 where there was no use of either antiseptic and provides historical context for susceptibility of populations unexposed to antiseptics. The second group contained 54 130 MRSA and 9 MSSA isolates from 1954-2001 where there was low usage of chlorhexidine 131 and no usage of octenidine. The third group contained 1 MSSA and 52 MRSA isolates from 132 133 2002-2012 where chlorhexidine usage was high but octenidine was not used and the final group contained 26 MRSA isolates from 2013-2014 where there was high use of 134 chlorhexidine and octenidine had been introduced. The dominance of MRSA over MSSA 135 isolates reflects routine surveillance practice where MRSA are actively identified in patients 136 on admission but MSSA are not. 137

The minimum inhibitory concentrations (MIC) of each agent were determined using broth microdilution (following recommendations from EUCAST) ranging in concentration from 0.0029µg/ml to 3µg/ml for octenidine dihydrochloride and 0.0625µg/ml to 64µg/ml for chlorhexidine digluconate. Minimum bactericidal concentrations (MBC) were subsequently determined by inoculation of 10 µl of suspensions following determinations of MICs onto LB agar and observing growth after overnight incubation. The presence of *qac*A/B was determined in all samples using multiplex PCR (Vali *et al.*, 2008).

A panel of 99/157 isolates which included all *qacA/B* positive isolates and all isolates from groups 3 and 4 were epidemiologically typed using variable number tandem repeats as previously described (Hardy et al., 2006). A selection of 16 isolates from groups 3 and 4 to include the main circulating clones were also genome sequenced using Illumnina paired end sequencing. Reads were then analysed using the 'nullarbor' pipeline (v1.2; Seemann et al., 2017) using a standard virtual machine on the MRC CLIMB framework. Pan genomes were
generated using 'roary' (v8.0), SNPs called with 'snippy' (v3.0) and antibiotic resistance
genes and mutations identified using 'ARIBA' (v2.8.1). Trees were visualised with
'Phandango'. All packages used default parameters unless stated otherwise.

Data was obtained for the number of packs of chlorhexidine and octenidine dihydrochloride issued by pharmacy in the large teaching Trust from 2008 to 2014 where the MRSA isolates were obtained from. Statistical analysis of changes in susceptibility patterns between groups used chi-squared and Mann-Whitney tests.

158

#### 160 **Results**

## 161 Usage of chlorhexidine and octenidine

The use of chlorhexidine and octenidine was analysed in our hospital showing a decrease in usage of chlorhexidine and an increase in octenidine use across the study period. The usage of chlorhexidine decreased from 7,061 packs being dispensed in 2009 to 5091 in 2014. In contrast, the usage of octenidine dihydrochloride has increased markedly, with none being prescribed in or before 2013, increasing to 18,844 bottles in 2014.

## 167 Biocide susceptibility of isolates

168 The MIC and MBC of chlorhexidine was significantly different between the four groups. 169 Chlorhexidine MICs ranged from 0.5 µg/ml to 32 µg/ml, with a significant increase in the mean MICs over time from group 1 to 3, with then a slight reduction in group 4 compared to 170 group 3 (Figure 1). This increase in mean MIC was a result of a shift of susceptibility of most 171 isolates in the population requiring higher MICs rather than being a result of a small sub-172 173 population of highly resistant isolates. The MBCs of chlorhexidine showed a similar pattern, the percentage of isolates with an MBC >32  $\mu$ g/ml increased from group 1 to 3, with 0, 5.5 174 and 36.5% of isolates having an MBC >32  $\mu$ g/ml in groups 1, 2 and 3 respectively (Figure 3). 175 The differences in MIC and MBC distributions between the groups were not likely to be 176 random according to statistical tests (chi-squared and Mann-Whitney tests both returned p 177 values <0.05 comparing groups 3 and 4 and 1 and 2). 178

The MIC and MBC of octenidine dihydrochloride were both lower than chlorhexidine and ranged from 0.09375  $\mu$ g/ml to 1.5  $\mu$ g/ml. The MBC of octenidine was stable against isolates in groups 1-3 with all isolates being inhibited by 0.0375-0.75  $\mu$ g/ml. Isolates with a markedly decreased susceptibility were however isolated in group 4 after introduction of this agent (Figures 1 and 2). The difference between MIC and MBC values for the final group (4) and other groups was statistically significant (P <0.05).

- Interestingly, there was no correlation between susceptibility to the two agents, i.e. a raised
  chlorhexidine MIC was not likely to be reflected by a raised octendine dihydrochloride MIC in
  the same isolate (tested using Pearson's correlation test).
- 188 The changes in susceptibility to both agents reflected usage data although it was not 189 possible to statistically analyse these changes.

## 190 Typing of isolates

191 VNTR analysis of the isolates revealed CC22 to be the most predominant clonal complex,
192 which is the endemic strain within the UK. The other two clonal complexes represented were
193 CC36 and CC8 (Figure 3).

The phylogenetic analysis failed to identify a specific clone or lineage which showed reduced susceptibility to chlorhexidine (Figure 3). Interestingly, overlaying susceptibility data onto the phylogeny demonstrated several occasions where isolates with the same VNTR profile differed in MIC for both chlorhexidine and octenidine dihydrochloride suggesting the acquisition of decreased susceptibility is not restricted to one clonal complex and that it may be able to evolve independently from various strains (Figure 3).

#### 200 Carriage of *qac* genes

A total of 18/157 (11.4%) of all isolates were positive for carriage of the gacA/B gene, all of 201 202 these were MRSA isolates apart from one MSSA isolate. All of the isolates carrying the 203 gacA/B gene had a chlorhexidine MBC >4µg/ml. The majority of isolates in he collection with 204 the highest MICs and MBCs did not however carry gacA/B. The highest percentage of isolates carrying the *qacA/B* gene were in group 2 (20.6%) as opposed to groups 3 and 4 205 206 where only 5.6% and 7.7% of isolates were carrying gacA/B, gacA/B was not detected in any 207 of the pre 1954 isolates in group 1. VNTR typing of all the gacA/B positive isolates revealed 208 all but one of the qacA/B positive isolates clustered and belonged to CC8 (Figure 3). The 209 other isolate was from the ST22 cluster and no isolates from the ST36 cluster carried a gac 210 gene.

#### 211 Genomic analysis of ST22 isolates

Sixteen strains with related VNTR profiles from groups 3 and four and a range of 212 chlorhexidine MBCs were whole genome sequenced and mechanisms which may contribute 213 to decreased susceptiblity to chlorhexidine were identified. Figure 4 shows the phylogeny of 214 these strains based on a whole genome alignment (produced by ROARY). Comparisons of 215 216 the accessory genome content, resistance genes (by ARIBA) and presence and absence of 217 core genes attempted to identify common changes in those isolates with highest MBCs. 218 There were no common accessory genes identified or carriage of a known resistance mechanism that correlates with biocide resistance. To further try and identify a tolerance 219 mechanism two pairs of strains with four fold differences in susceptibility (by MBC) but which 220 were very closely related according to the phlogeny were compared for changes (strains 3 221 222 vs 7 and strain 2 vs the reference ST22; HO 5096 041, Figure 5). Analysis of these strain pairs found a small number of SNPs between each (5 vs 20 SNPS between each pair, 223

224 respectively), the two more resistant isolates both had changes in either of two homologous 225 efflux pump systems; NorA and NorB. Both have been shown to export multiple agents including biocides (DeMarco et al., 2007). Strain 2 carried a SNP within norB that results in a 226 227 change of the NorB protein of Met314lle. This substitution is adjacent to the predicted translocation pore and may alter the capacity of this strain to export chlorhexidine compared 228 to the reference. Strain 7 had a wild-type norB allele but carried a SNP within norA resulting 229 230 in a change in NorA of Ala362Val. Substitution at this site has previously been shown to improve efflux capacity of the protein for some substrates (Kaatz et al., 1993). None of the 231 other sequenced strains had changes within either system or in their known regulators. 232

#### 234 Discussion

This study has highlighted that the increasing use of chlorhexidine and octenidine dihydrochloride is associated with emergence of reduced susceptibility to each agent in *S. aureus*. As described in previous studies (Wang *et al.*, 2008; Liu *et al.*, 2015) the number of *S. aureus* and especially MRSA isolates demonstrating reduced susceptibility to chlorhexidine increased over time, which in the current study was most marked when the MRSA epidemic was at its peak within the UK.

241 There have only been a limited number of studies that have investigated reduced susceptibility to chlorhexidine longitudinally and all have been over shorter time periods. 242 Historical isolates included in this study from a period of no antiseptic usage had very low 243 244 MIC and MBC and increases were then observed in groups two and three. Interestingly 245 unlike other longitudinal studies where there have been similar observations we did observe 246 a reduction in the MICs in the fourth time period. This can be correlated with a reduction in 247 the number of MRSA infections within the UK and reduction in chlorhexidine usage in our hospital. 248

We also demonstrate a reduction in susceptibility to octenidine following universal introduction. There have been a limited number of studies investigating the clinical efficacy of octenidine dihydrochloride which whilst being small demonstrated comparable efficacy to chlorhexidine, but did not include susceptibility testing as part of the studies (Spencer *et al.*, 2013; Krishna *et al.*, 2010). The only *in vitro* study failed to select for resistance to octenidine dihydrochloride (Al Doori *et al.*, 2007).

Whilst there has been a demonstrable reduction in susceptibility in isolates in the current 255 256 study and this markedly occurred after the introduction of octenidine into practice the MIC 257 and MBC are still relatively low and significantly below the concentrations that the antiseptics 258 are used at in practice. It is unclear what impact these relatively small changes in tolerance as measured in vitro have in practice. Comparing the MIC values to in use concentrations 259 suggests that it is unlikely that these isolates will affect clinical efficacy, but they have 260 emerged in a real world situation suggesting there is a significant benefit which has been 261 selected in practice. Interestingly, octenidine dihydrochloride was only in use for one year 262 before there was a marked change in the susceptibility of isolates. 263

For both biocides, isolates with decreased susceptibility were not clonal which suggests there has been no emergence of a dominant clone which may have an advantage in the face of either biocide. The fact that isolates with decreased susceptibility are seen in various strain backgrounds suggests that the capacity to develop this phenotype is common to many strains and, presumably results from a change in the *S. aureus* core genome. This differs to previous reports where there has been spread of a dominant clone with reduced susceptibility (Otter *et al.*, 2013).

271 As highlighted by the review by Harbarth and colleagues the increased usage of antiseptics has not been matched by an increase in surveillance, both microbiological and clinical 272 273 (Harbarth et al., 2014). One of the reasons for the lack of surveillance is the lack of both standardised testing methodology and definitions for resistance. The majority of studies have 274 275 utilised MICs, but the methodologies vary and the technique is less applicable for antiseptics 276 where the lethal rather than the inhibitory concentration needs to be measured and MBC 277 testing is more meaningful. As there is no standardised testing methodology there has been no national or international agreement regarding an appropriate cut off for defining 278 resistance. The clinical impact of reduced susceptibility demonstrated in vitro also needs to 279 280 be assessed, with the concentrations of antiseptics measured in vitro are much lower than 281 concentrations of antiseptics achieved in vivo.

Epidemiological typing in this study revealed that isolates with high MICs are spread across 282 VNTR profiles, both in the predominant epidemic clone observed in the UK, ST22 and in 283 284 CC8. When this is compared with the presence of gacA/B there was no correlation with chlorhexidine susceptibility; the majority of *qacA/B* isolates were from CC8. This clonal 285 complex contains ST239 which has previously been described as carrying the *qacA/B* genes 286 and has been associated with clinical failure of chlorhexidine (Batra et al., 2010). Carriage of 287 gacA/B was only seen in one ST22 isolate in our panel, which is the most predominant ST 288 both within the study hospital and in the UK. Despite the lack of carriage of *gacA/B* in ST22. 289 the number of isolates with raised MICs was the same as amongst those from the CC8 290 group, highlighting further the lack of correlation between the presence of gacA/B and 291 292 reduced susceptibility to chlorhexidine.

Consistent with the lack of correlation of *gacAB* carriage and antiseptic susceptibility, a 293 genomic analysis of a subset of strains revealed no common mobile element which 294 associated with chlorhexidine susceptibility. In two pairs of isolates with different 295 chlorhexidine MICs mutations within chromosomal multidrug efflux systems norA or norB 296 were found. NorA and NorB have previously been associated with chlorhexidine tolerance 297 with isolates that over-express these systems demonstrating decreased chlorhexidine 298 299 susceptibility (Liu et al., 2015; Vali et al., 2008, DeMarco et al., 2007) although another study 300 reported only a weak association (Furi et al., 2013). Both norA and norB are part of the core

301 S. aureus genome which is consistent with our observation that decreased susceptibility to 302 chlorhexidine can emerge from multiple lineages and is not conditional on horizontal 303 acquisition of *gacA/B*. Previous studies have focused on expression changes of efflux systems as a mechanism to increase efficiency of export of substrates. Mutation within the 304 structural pump protein of a multidrug efflux system was also recently shown to increase 305 efficiency of export of some substrates at the expense of others (Blair et al., 2015). The 306 substitutions within NorB (adjacent to the translocation pore) and NorA (known to alter pump 307 efficiency for fluoroquinolone export) identified here may reflect adaptation to increase 308 309 efficiency of chlorhexidine export.

There is an obvious need for more research in this area to provide better surveillance data from larger populations and geographical regimes, and to understand the mechanisms of action and resistance to antiseptics better. The significance and clinical impact of the emergence of isolates with decreased susceptibility to decolonisation regimes remains uncertain. However, the introduction of chlorhexidine and octenidine dihydrochloride has changed the susceptibility of the *S. aureus* population compared to pre-biocide times and they are therefore having an ecological impact. The consequences of this remain unclear.

- 317
- 318
- 319

320

321

## 323 References

- Al-Doori Z, Goroncy-Bermes P, Gemmel IC, Morrison D. (2007) Low-level exposure
   of MRSA to octenidine dihydrochloride does not select for resistance. *J Antimicrob Chemother*: 59:1280-1282
- Batra R, Cooper BS, Whiteley, C. (2010) Efficacy and limitation of a chlorhexidine
   based decolonisation strategy in preventing transmission of methicillin-resistant
   Staphylococcus aureus in an intensive care unit. *Clin infect Dis.* 50: 210-7
- Blair JM, Bavro VN, Ricci V, Modi N, Cacciotto P, Kleinekathöfer U, Ruggerone P,
   Vargiu AV, Baylay AJ, Smith HE, Brandon Y, Galloway D, Piddock LJ. (2015) AcrB
   drug-binding pocket substitution confers clinically relevant resistance and altered
   substrate specificity. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 112(11):3511-6.
- Climo MW, Yokoe DS, Warren DK. (2013) Effect of daily chlorhexidine bathing on
   hospital acquired infection. *N Engl J Med*; 368:8; pp. 533-542.
- 5. Davies GE, Francis J, Martin AR, Rose FL, Swain G. (1954) 1:6-Di-4'chlorophenyldiguanidohexane (hibitane); laboratory investigation of a new
  antibacterial agent of high potency. *Br J Pharmacol Chemother*. 9(2):192-6.
- DeMarco CE, Cushing LA, Frempong-Manso E, Seo SM, Jaravaza TA, Kaatz GW.
   (2007) Efflux-related resistance to norfloxacin, dyes, and biocides in bloodstream
   isolates of Staphylococcus aureus. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 51(9):3235-9.
- Furi L, Ciusa ML, Knight D, Di Lorenzo V, Tocci N, Cirasola D, Aragones L, Coelho JR, Freitas AT, Marchi E, Moce L, Visa P, Northwood JB, Viti C, Borghi E, Orefici G;
  BIOHYPO Consortium, Morrissey I, Oggioni MR. (2013) Evaluation of reduced susceptibility to quaternary ammonium compounds and bisbiguanides in clinical isolates and laboratory-generated mutants of Staphylococcus aureus. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 57(8):3488-97.
- Harbarth, S., Tuan, Soh S., Horner, C. and Wilcox, M.H. (2014) Is reduced
   susceptibility to disinfectants and antiseptics a risk in healthcare settings? A
   point/counterpoint review. *J Hosp Infect;* 87(4), pp. 194-202.
- Hardy KJ, Oppenheim BA, Gossain S, Gao F, Hawkey PM. (2006) Use of variations
   in staphylococcal interspersed repeat units for molecular typing of methicillin resistant Staphylococcus aureus strains. *J Clin Microbiol*. Jan;44(1):271-3.
- 10. Horner C, Mawer D, Wilcox M. (2012) Reduced susceptibility to chlorhexidine in
   staphylococci: is it increasing and does it matter? *J Antimicrob Chemother*, 67: pp.
   2547-2559
- 357 11. Johnson RC, Schlett CD, Crawford K, Lanier JB, Merrell DS, Ellis MW. (2015)
   358 Recurrent Methicillin-Resistant Staphylococcus aureus Cutaneous Abscesses and

359 Selection of Reduced Chlorhexidine Susceptibility during Chlorhexidine Use. *J Clin* 360 *Microbiol.* 53(11):3677-82.

- 361 12. Kaatz GW, Seo SM, Ruble CA. (1993) Efflux-mediated fluoroquinolone resistance is
   362 Staphylococcus aureus. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 37(5):1086-1094.
- 13. Kampf G. (2016) Acquired resistance to chlorhexidine is it time to establish an
   'antiseptic stewardship' initiative? *J Hosp Infect*. 94(3):213-227.
- 365 14. Krishna BV and Gibb AP. (2010) Use of octenidine dihydrochloride in methicillin
   366 resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* decolonisation regimens: a literature review. *J Hosp* 367 *Infect.* 74: pp. 199-203
- 15. Lambert RJ. (2004) Comparative analysis of antibiotic and antimicrobial biocide
   susceptibility data in clinical isolates of methicillin-sensitive Staphylococcus aureus,
   methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus and Pseudomonas aeruginosa between
   1989 and 2000. *J Appl Microbiol*. 97(4):699-711.
- 16. Liu Q, Zhao H, Han L, Shu W, Wu Q, Ni Y. (2015) Frequency of biocide-resistant
  genes and susceptibility to chlorhexidine in high-level mupirocin-resistant, methicillinresistant Staphylococcus aureus (MuH MRSA). *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis.* 2015
  Aug;82(4):278-83.
- 17. Longtin J, Seah C, Siebert K. (2011) Distribution of antiseptic resistance genes qacA,
   qacB, and smr in methicillin resistant Staphylococcus aureus isolated in Toronto,
   Canada from 2005 to 2009. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 55: 2999-3001.
- 18. McGann O, Kwak YI, Summers A. (2011) Detection of qacA/B in clinical isolates of
   methicillin resistant Staphylococcus aureus from a regional healthcare network in the
   eastern United States. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol*. 32:1116-9.
- 19. Oggioni MR, Furi L, Coelho JR, Maillard JY, Martínez JL. (2013) Recent advances in
   the potential interconnection between antimicrobial resistance to biocides and
   antibiotics. *Expert Rev Anti Infect Ther*. 11(4):363-6
- 20. Otter JA, Patel A, Cliff PR, Halligan EP, Tosas O, Edgeworth JD. (2013) Selection for
   qacA carriage in CC22, but not CC30, methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus
   bloodstream infection isolates during a successful institutional infection control
   programme. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 68(5):992-9.
- 389 21. Sedlock DM, Bailey DM. (1985) Microbicidal activity of octenidine hydrochloride, a
   390 new alkanediylbis [pyridine] germicidal agent. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*.
   391 28(6):786-90.
- 392 22. Seemann T, Goncalves da Silva A, Bulach DM, Schultz MB, Kwong JC, Howden BP.
   393 (2011) Nullarbor. *Available from <u>https://github.com/tseemann/nullarbor</u>*

394 23. Spencer C, Orr D, Hallam S, Tillmanns E. (2013) Daily bathing with octenidine on an
 intensive care unit is associated with a lower carriage rate of meticillin-resistant
 Staphylococcus aureus. *J Hosp Infect*. 83(2):156-9.

- 24. Vali L, Davies SE, Lai LL, Dave J, Amyes SG. (2008) Frequency of biocide
  resistance genes, antibiotic resistance and the effect of chlorhexidine exposure on
  clinical methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus isolates. *J Antimicrob Chemother*.
  61(3):524-32.
- 25. Wang J, Sheng WH. and Wang JL. (2008) Longitudinal analysis of chlorhexidine
  susceptibilities of nosocomial methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates at
  a teaching hospital in Taiwan. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 62: pp.514-517.
- 404 26. Warren DK, Prager M, Munigala S, Wallace MA, Kennedy CR, Bommarito KM,
  405 Mazuski JE, Burnham CA. (2016) Prevalence of qacA/B Genes and Mupirocin
  406 Resistance Among Methicillin-Resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA) Isolates in
  407 the Setting of Chlorhexidine Bathing Without Mupirocin. *Infect Control Hosp*408 *Epidemiol.* 37(5):590-7.
- 409 27. Wesgate R, Grasha P, Maillard JY. (2016) Use of a predictive protocol to measure
  410 the antimicrobial resistance risks associated with biocidal product usage. *Am J Infect*411 *Control.* 44(4):458-64.

412

## 414 Table

Years		<b>(1)</b> 1928-1953	<b>(2)</b> 1954-2001	<b>(3)</b> 2002-2012	<b>(4)</b> 2013-2014
Biocide Usage	Chlorhexidine	None	Minimal	Significant	Significant
	Octenidine	None	None	None	Significant
Isolates	MSSA	15	9	1	0
	MRSA	0	54	52	26

415 Table 1: Number of MRSA and MSSA isolates included in each period and corresponding416 biocide usage.

## 418 Figures

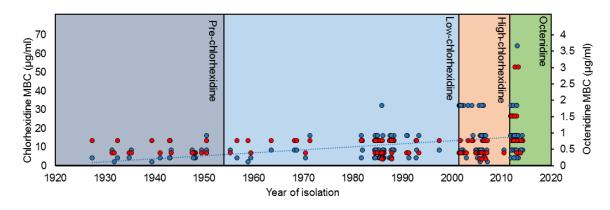
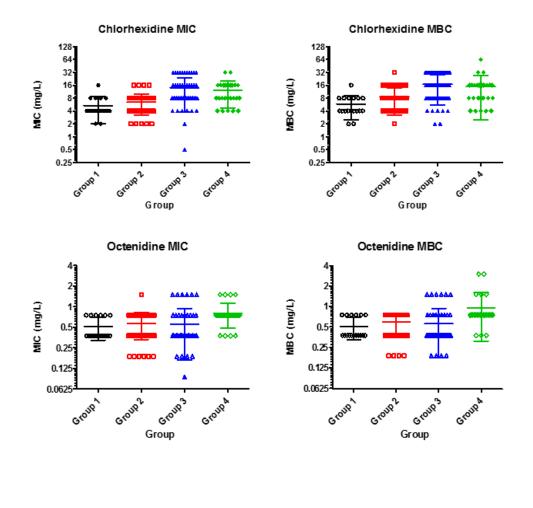


Figure 1. Timeline of mean MBC of chlorhexidine (blue circles) and octenidine (red circles)
against isolates. The shaded boxes represent different periods of biocide usage. A trendline
(blue, linear) is shown for chlorhexidine but not octenidine where isolates with decreased
susceptibility only emerged in the final period.



**Figure 2.** Mean MIC and MBC of *S. aureus* isolates to chlorhexidine and octenidine.

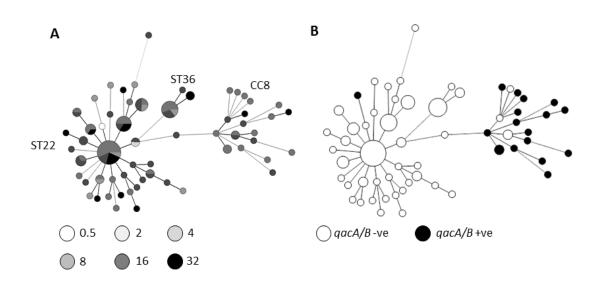
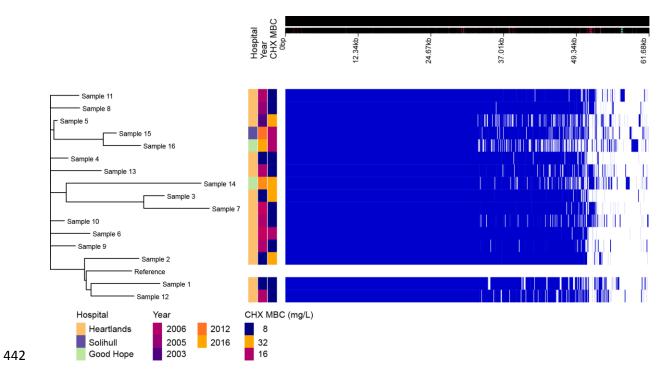




Figure 3. A minimum spanning tree of isolates based in VNTR profile. Sizes of circles
reflect number of isolates Panel A shows isolates shaded by MIC of chlorhexidine (μg/ml) as
per key below the tree. Panel B shows isolates found to carry *qacA/B* (black circles).

bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/226738; this version posted November 29, 2017. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder. All rights reserved. No reuse allowed without permission.



443 **Figure 4**. Visualisation of pan-genome analysis by ROARY of 16 isolates. Hospital and year

444 of isolation are indicated as well as chlorhexidine MBC.