



Could clinical Stenotrophomonas maltophilia be a potential pathogen in clinical setting?

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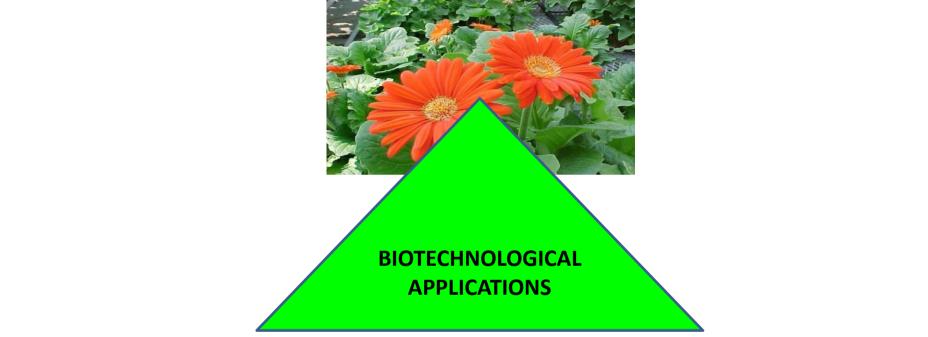
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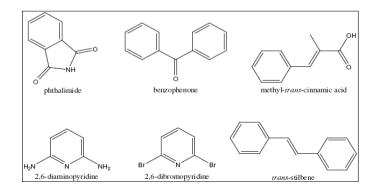
- Stenotrophomonas maltophilia, previously known as Pseudomonas maltophilia or Xanthomonas maltophilia, is ubiquitously found in nature
- Well known environmental microbe with several biotechnological applications.



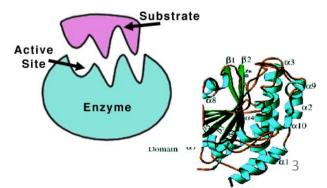
Biocontrol and growth enhancer



Bioremediation and phytoremediation



Secondary metabolite production





STENOTROPHOMONAS MALTOPHILIA

Most worrisome threat among unusual non-fermentative gram negative bacteria in hospitalized patients



Colonizes human and medical devices



Pathogenic determinants and biofilm





SUCCESSFUL NOSOCOMIAL PATHOGEN

Antibiotic resistance



Highly diverse clones





- 1943: First isolated from pleural fluid in 1943 by J. L. Edwards, named as *Bacterium bookeri*
- 1961: Classified as *Pseudomonas maltophilia* by Hugh and Ryschenko when similar strain was isolated in 1958 from an oropharyngeal swab from a patient with an oral carcinoma.
- 1981: Reclassified as *Xanthomonas maltophilia* by Swings and group based on the rRNA cistron homology generated through the DNA-rRNA hybridization techniques.
- 1993: Finalized by Palleroni and Bradbury as *S. maltophilia* since *X. maltophilia* did not match well including the specific 16SrRNA gene
- At present : 8 species
 S. maltophilia, S. nitritireducens, S. rhizophila, S. acidaminiphila, S. koreensis, S. chelatiphaga, S. terrae, S. humi and S. africana.

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CHALLENGES IN COMBATING S. MALTOPHILIA INFECTIONS

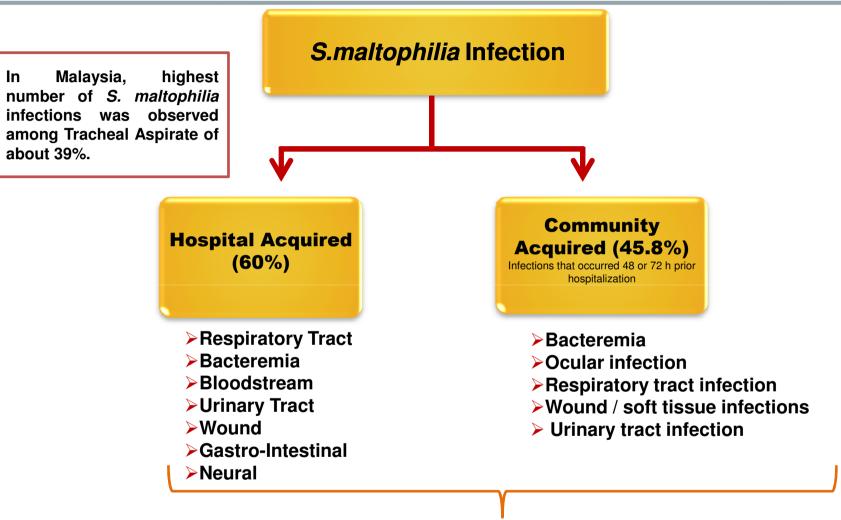
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Management of *S. maltophilia* infections represents a great challenge to clinicians

- in vitro susceptibility testing
- lack of clinical trials to determine optimal therapy
- intrinsic resistance to a plethora of antimicrobial agents
- Opportunistic pathogen targets immunocompromised population, prolonged hospitalization, malignancy, immune suppression, and breakdown of muco-cutaneous defense barriers (e.g., following catheterization, artificial implantation, tracheotomy, or peritoneal dialysis
- Different strains behave differently
- Ubiquitously present in the environment
- Source tracing is difficult
- No clear information on virulence factors or pathogenicity
- Debate on colonizer or pathogen



Epidemiology



Radical increase over the past decades (2-4 fold increase)



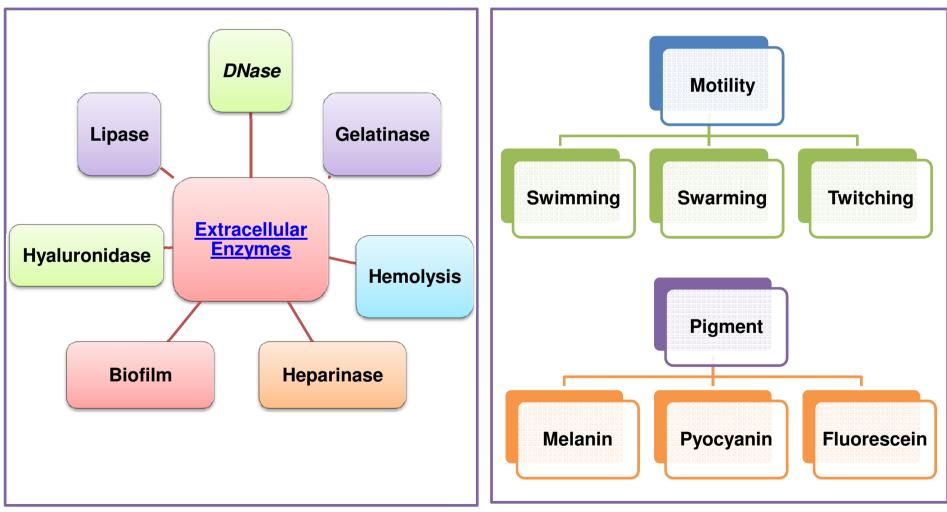
S. MALTOPHILIA COLONIZATION OR PATHOGEN ?

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- The failure to distinguish between colonization and infection has led to the belief that *S. maltophilia* is an organism of limited pathogenic potential that is rarely capable of causing disease in healthy individuals.
- Reports indicate that infection with this organism is associated with significant morbidity and mortality rates particularly in severely compromised patients.
- Its mechanism of pathogenesis is poorly understood



Study1: Extracellular enzyme profile of *S.maltophilia*





Different hydrolytic enzyme assay using plate method

Enzyme	Method	Result	Reference
DNase	 DNase agar test - 0.01% toluidine blue was used to determine DNase production after 72 h of growth at 37°C. Modified DNase tube test was also employed to evaluate the DNase production as described elsewhere. 	 DNase activity was indicated by the formation of a large pink halo around an inoculum spot . Clearing of the genomic DNA band 	(Janda <i>et</i> <i>al</i> ,1981; Neela, <i>et al</i> . 2012)
Gelatinase	Organisms were inoculated on 0.4% gelatin agar. The plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 h followed by which the plates were flooded with mercuric chloride solution.	Appearance of opaque zone around the inoculum	(Frazier <i>et</i> <i>al</i> 1926; Mc and Weaver 1959)
Hemolysis	Trypticase soy agar containing 5% sheep blood was evaluated at room temperature after 24 h of growth.	Appearance of clear zone	(Travassos, <i>et al</i> . 2004)
Heparinase	Heparin was diluted in distilled water to a final concentration of 5 U/ml followed by filter sterilization (0.45 pm) before dispensing 20 µl into 96 well micro titration plate; each well contained 30 µl of the test bacteria, incubated overnight at 37°C. 20 µl of aqueous toluidine blue 0.01% was added to each well.	Blue color indicated positive result, while pink indicated negative	(Riley 1987)
Hyaluronidase	Incorporation of aqueous solutions of hyaluronic acid into Muller Hinton agar supplemented with bovine serum albumin (final concentration, 1%). After being inoculated and incubated for 48 h, each plate was flooded with 2 N acetic acid, which was removed after 10 min.	The appearance of a clear zone around the inoculum.	(Smith and Willett 1968)
Lecithinase	Ten millilitres of the 50% egg yolk was added to 90 ml of sterilized tryptic soya agar and served as the substrate (29).	A white precipitate around or beneath an inoculum spot indicated lecithinase formation.	(Nord, <i>et al</i> 1975; Edberg, <i>et al</i> 1996)
Lipase	Lipase activity was detected by the on Trypticase soy agar plates supplemented with 1% Tween 80.	Appearance of a turbid halo around the inocula	(Rollof, <i>et al.</i> 1987)
Proteinase	Casein hydrolysis and was tested on Mueller–Hinton agar containing 3% (w/v) skimmed milk	The presence of a transparent zone around the inoculum spot	(Burke <i>et al</i> 1991; Edberg <i>et</i>



Study **1** : Extracellular enzyme profile of *S.maltophilia*

		Clinical	Environ	Frequency among clinical isolates (n = 108)							
	C _A	В	c		Tracheal				Wound		
Gelatinase	\mathbf{O}	9	0	Enzymes	Aspirate	Blood	CSF	Sputum	Infection	Urine	
DNase				DNase	42 (100)	37 (94.8)	6 (100)	5 (100)	13 (100)	3 (100)	
2.1.400				Gelatinase	42 (100)	39 (100)	6 (100)	5 (100)	13 (100)	3 (100)	
Lecithinase		\bigcirc	0	Hemolysin	42 (100)	39 (100)	6 (100)	5 (100)	13 (100)	3 (100)	
Ductoinee			6	Heparinase	30 (71.42)	27 (69.2)	4 (66.6)	4 (80)	9 (69.2)	0	
Proteinase				Hyaluronidase	42 (100)	39 (100)	6 (100)	5 (100)	13 (100)	0	
Melanin				Lipase	42 (100)	39 (100)	6 (100)	5 (100)	13 (100)	3 (100)	
Heparinase	000	000	002	Lecithinase	34 (80.95)	17 (43.5)	6 (100)	5 (100)	13 (100)	0	
Swim			\bigcirc	Proteinase	42 (100)	39 (100)	6 (100)	5 (100)	13 (100)	3 (100)	
				Pyocyanin	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Swarm			\bigcirc	Flourescein	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Twitch				Lecithinase	and hepar	inase – si	gnifican	tly associ	ated with in	vasive ori	



Study **1** : Extracellular enzyme profile of *S.maltophilia*

	Melanin		Biofilm		Motility		Frequency among clinical isolates n=108				
	+ve	-ve	High	Low	Motile	Non- motile		Device Related	Non- Device Related		
Invasiv							Enzymes	(n = 71)	(n = 37)		
e	41	4	9	36	100	0					
(n = 45)	(91.1)	(8.8)	(20)	(80)		Ŭ	DNase	71 (100)	69 (97.1)		
Non- Invasiv e (n =	60 (95.2)	3 (4.7)	11 (17.)	52 (82.5)	100	0	Gelatinase	71 (100)	37 (100)		
		anin		ofilm	Мо	tility	Hemolysin	71 (100)	37 (100)		
	+ve	-ve	High	Low	Motile	Non – motil e	Heparinase	52 (73.2)	23 (62.1)		
							Hyaluronidase	71 (100)	37 (100)		
Device Related (n= 71)	65 (91.5)	6 (8.4)	14 (19.7)	57 (80.2)	100	0	Lipase	71 (100)	37 (100)		
Non-	26		7	20			Lecithinase	49 (69)	27 (73)		
Device Related (n = 37)	36 (97.2)	1 (2.7)	7 (18.9)	30 (81)	100	0	Proteinase	71 (100)	37 (100)		
(1 - 57)							Pyocyanin	0	0		

- Irrespective of Invasive/Non-invasive All Isolates produces factors that destroy cell components.
- Infections are multifactorial events and secreted or non-secreted components contribute equally in pathogenesis.
- Lipase71 (100)37 (100)Lecithinase49 (69)27 (73)Proteinase71 (100)37 (100)Pyocyanin00Pyocyanin00Flourescein00Certain enzymes like lecithinase and lipase
might play important role in certain type of
infections Lining of lungs mainly composed of
lecithin.13Reservoir for bathogenic potential enzymes.13

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RESULTS(Cont.)

Study **1** : Extracellular enzyme profile of *S.maltophilia*

Virulence 5:2, 326-330; February 15, 2014; © 2014 Landes Bioscience

Extracellular enzyme profiling of *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* clinical isolates

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Keywords: Stenotrophomonas maltophilia, virulence factors, hydrolytic enzymes, pathogenicity, nosocomial pathogen, gram-negative

Abbreviations: NETs, neutrophil extracellular traps; DNase, deoxyribonuclease; CSF, cerebrospinal fluid; UV, ultraviolet; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; LB, Luria bertanii; OD, optical density

Stenotrophomonas maltophilia, which is still defined as an organism of limited pathogenicity, has risen prominently as a nosocomial pathogen. Despite the increase in the spectrum of clinical syndromes associated with S. maltophilia, very little is known about the extracellular enzymes profile, pigment production and motility patterns which may have potential roles in pathogenesis. In this study, we screened and compared an array of extracellular enzymes in S. maltophilia collected from invasive and non-invasive clinical specimens by substrate plate assays. We also grouped the isolates as device related and non-device related and compared the enzyme profile. Our study showed all clinical isolates irrespective of source produced substantial levels of enzymes assayed, produced melanin and exhibited swimming and swarming motility pattern. These data suggests clinical isolates of S. maltophilia is a reservoir for pathogenic potential enzymes.

Stenotrophomonas maltophilia plays a major role as an opportunistic pathogen in immunocompromised individuals.

from different anatomical sites are not clear. Therefore, the main aims of the present study were to screen for the production of extracellular enzymes (protease, lipase, lecithinase, gelatinase, deoxyribonuclease [DNase], hyaluronidase, hemolysin) by *S. maltophilia* isolates, to compare the enzyme profiles of invasive (e.g., blood and cerebrospinal fluid) and non-invasive (e.g., sputum, tracheal aspirate, wound infection, and urine) isolates and also in device and non-device related isolates.

A total of 108 *S. maltophilia* clinical isolates collected from patients admitted for various underlying diseases in tertiary care hospitals in the central region of Malaysia were investigated. Isolates were confirmed as *S. maltophilia* by lavender green colonies on blood agar, motility test, and standard biochemical assays such as DNase, catalase and oxidase activities. The isolates were genotypically confirmed by species specific polymerase chain reaction (PCR) that targeted the 23s RNA. The isolates were further reconfirmed using the VITEK® Mass Spectrometry System and an array of 64 biochemical assays. *S. maltophilia*



Study**2**: Prevalence of Putative Virulent Genes in *S. maltophilia* infections.

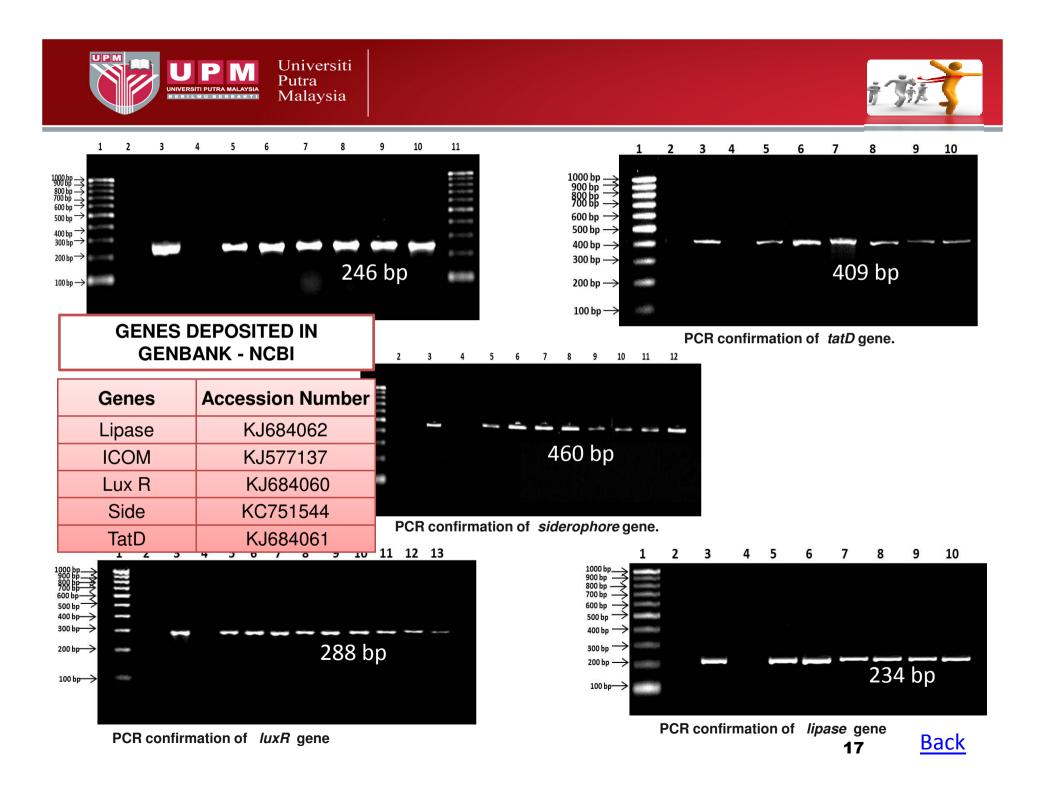
Virulence Genes Identified from closely related species Shares 86 to 90% similarities with *P.aeruginos*. \succ BLAST *S. maltophilia* K279a(Clinical origin) ✓ Positive control: S. maltophilia ATCC 13637 ✓Negative control: P.aeruginosa: ATCC2785; **Primers Designed Electrophoresis PCR Amplification Analysis** Real Time- PCR 15



PCR primers and cycling parameters for virulence genes

Genes	Initial Denaturation	Denaturation	Annealing	Extention	Final Extention	Reference
Lipase	5 min at 95°C	30 s at 95.1ºC	20 s at 64.2ºC	40 s at 72ºC	2 min at 72ºC	This study
ICOM	5 min at 95°C	20 s at 94.1ºC	15 s at 59.9°C	30 s at 72ºC	2 min at 72°C	This study
Lux R	5 min at 95°C	30 s at 95.2ºC	20 s at 59.8ºC	30 s at 72ºC	2 min at 72°C	This study
Side	5 min at 95°C	30 s at 94.4ºC	20 s at 59ºC	40 s at 72ºC	2 min at 72°C	This study
PiliZ	5 min at 95°C	34 s at 95.1ºC	24 s at 64.2ºC	44 s at 72ºC	2 min at 72°C	This study
TatD	5 min at 95°C	30 s at 94.7ºC	20 s at 51.9ºC	40 s at 72ºC	2 min at 72°C	This study
Tox A	5 min at 95°C	30 s at 95.1ºC	20 s at 64.2ºC	40 s at 72ºC	2 min at 72ºC	This study



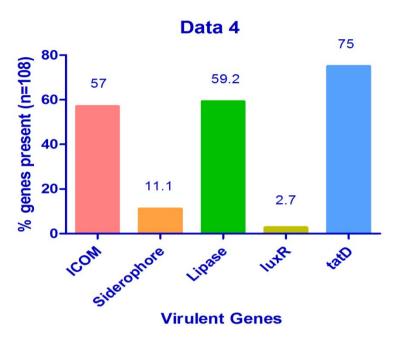




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Virulent gene profile in <i>S.maltophilia</i> isolates									
	ICOM	SID	LUX R	LIPAS E	ΤΟΧ Α	PILI Z	TAT D		
Blood (n = 39)	23(59)	4 (10.3)	1 (2.6)	24 (61.5)	0.0	0.0	30 (76.9)		
CSF(n = 6)	6 (100)	0.0	0.0	3 (50)	0.0	0.0	3 (50)		
Sputum (n = 5)	2 (40)	0.0	0.0	2 (40)	0.0	0.0	4 (80)		
Tracheal Aspirate	23	7		3					
(n = 42)	(54.8)	(16.7)	2 (4.8)	(54.8)	0.0	0.0	28 (66.7)		
Wound Swabs				9					
(n = 13)	6 (46.2)	1 (7.7)	0.0	(69.2)	0.0	0.0	13(100)		
Urine (n = 3)	2(66.7)	0.0	0.0	3 (100)	0.0	0.0	3(100)		



- Iron essential for metabolism.
- Lipase correlated to pulmonary infection.
- > DNase evades host immune response.

59.2% Isolates (n = 108) has Lipase.

- Hydrolyzes Lipid rich pulmonary tissues
- Triggers Inflammatory response

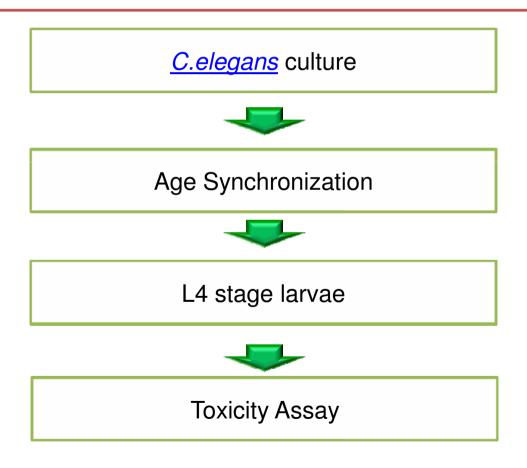
[Lanon et al. . 1992]

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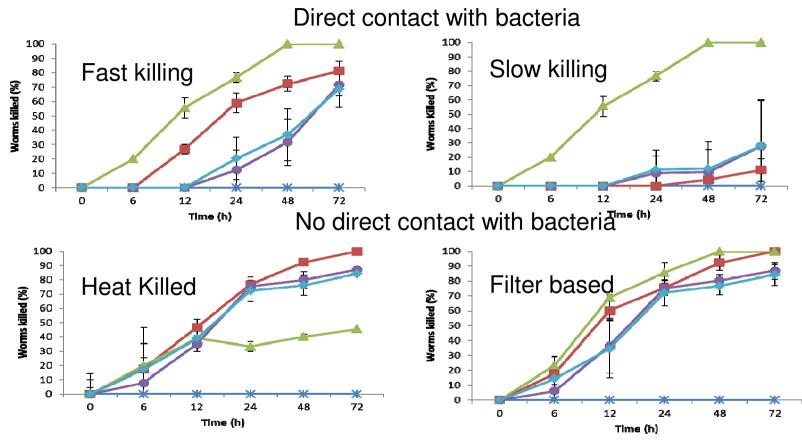




Study3: *C.elegans* as an *In vivo* model of infection



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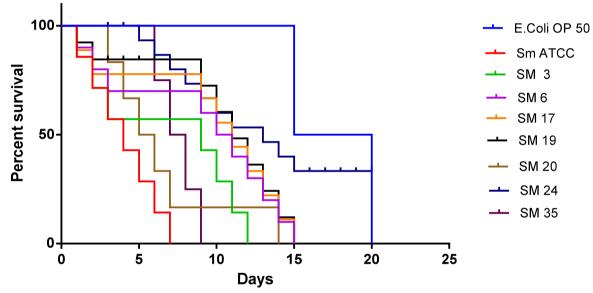


Different methods employed in *C. elegans* killing. *C. elegans* killing assay using: (a) the fast killing method, (b) slow killing method, (c) heat-killed method and (d) filter-based method. Vertical bar represents SD. Experiments were conducted in triplicate. *, *E. coli* OP50 strain; ■, *S. maltophilia* ATCC 13637; ▲, *P. aeruginosa* ATCC 27853; ●, invasive strains; ◆, noninvasive strains



RESULTS (Cont.)

Survival Proportion of C.elegans



Survival curve analysis of *C.elegans* using graphpad prism software version 6.

- > Clinical isolates of *S.maltophilia* are detrimental
- > Different methods of infecting the *C.elegans* with test bacteria Different Time point.
- Filter based and Heat killed method complete killing of *C.elegans* at 24hr.
- Clinical isolates of S.maltophilia effectively kills the nematodes Filter based and Heat killed compared to fast and slow killing

RESULTS (Cont.)

Correspondence

Stenotrophomonas maltophilia: pathogenesis model using Caenorhabditis elegans

Stenotrophomonas maltophilia plays an important role as an opportunistic pathogen in immunocompromised individuals. Despite its clinical 3 implications, information regarding its pathogenicity remains unclear. Various methods have been employed to demonstrate that this bacterium is pathogenic. However, the debate as to whether S. maltophilia is a true pathogen or a colonizer still continues, as effective killing was not seen in earlier experiments with different animal models of infection (Denton and Kerr, 1998; Adamak et al., 2011; Pompilio et al., 2011). A study using a murine lung infection model illustrated that different strains of mice exhibited different outcomes after S. maltophilia infection (Rouf et al., 2011). Strains such as A/J and DBA/2 were permissive for clinical isolates of S. maltophilia and showed higher levels of pro-inflammatory 1.000000

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elegans, especially the mouth, by producing biofilm (Darby et al., 2002; Joshua et al., 2003). Burkholderia species tend to kill C. elegans either by infection or intoxication, or even by both methods (Darby, 2005).

Sixty-nine isolates of S. maltophilia obtained from various clinical sources such as tracheal aspirate, urine and pus were investigated. All isolates previously identified to the species level by phenotypic methods were reconfirmed genotypically as S. maltophilia by speciesspecific PCR using primers (SM1 5'-CAGCCTGCGAAAAGTA-3' and 5'-SM4 TTAAGCTTGCCACGAACAG-3') as described by Whitby et al. (2000). These clinical strains were further classified as invasive or non-invasive based on the anatomical site of isolation. Invasive strains included in the study were those that were isolated from sterile sites such as peripheral blood and cerebrospinal fluid

performing a timed egg-laving experiment using fluorodeoxyuridine treatment of gravid adults, hatching of the eggs 6 overnight in M9 minimal medium and plating first larval stage worms onto lawns of E. coli on NGM plates (Sutphin & Kaeberlein, 2009). Synchronized worms were grown to the fourth larval stage or young adult stage at 25 °C for use in the killing assays.

The in vivo killing efficiency of S. maltophilia was evaluated by four different methods: a classical fast killing assay, a fast killing assay using a nitrocellulose filter, a slow killing assay and a virulence assay using heat-killed strains. The classical fast killing assay was conducted according to the method of Mahajan-Miklos et al. (1999) where 50 µl of the bacterial test culture grown overnight in LB broth were spread on NGM plates containing 0.15 M corbitol. For the killing accay using a







Final Conclusion

- From this study we conclude that *S.maltophilia* is a serious nosocomial pathogen due to the facts that they harbour virulent factors such as the extracellular enzymes and gene products that have deleterious effect.
- Lethal to nematodes makes this bacterium a potent nosocomial pathogen with high virulence potential.



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