

1 **Significant enrichment and diversity of the staphylococcal arginine**
2 **catabolic mobile element ACME in *Staphylococcus epidermidis* isolates**
3 **from subgingival peri-implantitis sites and periodontal pockets**

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25 **subgingival sites, oral cavity, periodontal pockets, *kdp* operon**

26

27 **1 Abstract**

28 *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Staphylococcus epidermidis* are frequent commensals of the
29 nares and skin and are considered transient oral residents. Reports on their prevalence in the
30 oral cavity, periodontal pockets and subgingivally around infected oral implants are
31 conflicting, largely due to methodological limitations.

32 The prevalence of these species in the oral cavities, periodontal pockets and subgingival
33 sites of orally healthy individuals with/without implants and in patients with periodontal
34 disease or infected implants (peri-implantitis) was investigated using selective chromogenic
35 agar and matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometry.

36 *Staphylococcus epidermidis* was predominant in all participant groups investigated. Its
37 prevalence was significantly higher ($P=0.0189$) in periodontal pockets (30%) than
38 subgingival sites of healthy individuals (7.8%), and in subgingival peri-implantitis sites
39 (51.7%) versus subgingival sites around non-infected implants (16.1%) ($P=0.0057$). In
40 contrast, *S. aureus* was recovered from subgingival sites of 0-12.9% of the participant
41 groups, but not from periodontal pockets.

42 The arginine catabolic mobile element (ACME), thought to enhance colonization and
43 survival of *S. aureus*, was detected in 100/179 *S. epidermidis* and 0/83 *S. aureus* isolates
44 screened using multiplex PCR and DNA microarray profiling. Five distinct ACME types,
45 including the recently described types IV and V (I; 14, II; 60, III; 10, IV; 15, V; 1) were
46 identified. ACME-positive *S. epidermidis* were significantly ($P=0.0369$) more prevalent in
47 subgingival peri-implantitis sites (37.9%) than subgingival sites around non-infected
48 implants (12.9%) and also in periodontal pockets (25%) compared to subgingival sites of
49 healthy individuals (4.7%) ($P=0.0167$).

50 To investigate the genetic diversity of ACME, 35 isolates, representative of patient groups,
51 sample sites and ACME types underwent whole genome sequencing from which multilocus
52 sequence types (STs) were identified. Sequencing data permitted ACME types II and IV to
53 be subdivided into subtypes IIa-c and IVa-b, respectively, based on distinct flanking direct
54 repeat sequences. Distinct ACME types were commonly associated with specific STs,
55 rather than health/disease states or recovery sites, suggesting that ACME types/subtypes
56 originated amongst specific *S. epidermidis* lineages. Ninety of the ACME-positive isolates
57 encoded the ACME-arc operon, which likely contributes to oral *S. epidermidis* survival in
58 the nutrient poor, semi-anaerobic, acidic and inflammatory conditions present in
59 periodontal disease and peri-implantitis.

60

61 **2 Introduction**

62 *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Staphylococcus epidermidis* are common commensals of human
63 skin and the nares and are highly proficient at forming biofilms. Both species are
64 significant causes of nosocomial infections associated with indwelling medical devices
65 (Song et al., 2013). It is now widely acknowledged that many of the antimicrobial

66 resistance genes identified in clinical isolates of *S. aureus* were acquired from coagulase
67 negative staphylococci (CoNS) such as *S. epidermidis* by transfer of mobile genetic
68 elements (MGEs) (Otto, 2013). One very significant example of this is the horizontal
69 acquisition by *S. aureus* of staphylococcal cassette chromosome-*mec* (SCC*mec*) elements
70 harboring the methicillin resistance gene *mec* from *S. epidermidis*. To date, 13 different
71 types of SCC*mec* (I-XIII) have been characterized in methicillin-resistant *S. aureus*
72 (MRSA) (www.SCCmec.org) differentiated according to the various combinations of *mec*
73 and cassette chromosome recombinase (*ccr*) gene complexes present (Baig et al., 2018;
74 International Working Group on the Classification of Staphylococcal Cassette
75 Chromosome, 2009; Wu et al., 2015). Many more SCC*mec* variants have been described in
76 species in which methicillin-resistance (MR) is more common, such as *S. epidermidis*
77 (MRSE) and other CoNS (Shore and Coleman, 2013).

78 The staphylococcal arginine catabolic mobile element (ACME) plays a role in colonization
79 of human skin and evasion of host immune responses (Diep et al., 2008; Planet et al.,
80 2013). It is considered an SCC-like element as, like SCC*mec*, it is flanked by homologous
81 inverted and direct repeat sequences (DRs) that integrate into the same *attB* attachment site
82 in the chromosomal *orfX* locus as SCC*mec* (Diep et al., 2006; Ito et al., 2001). Specific
83 clonal lineages of *S. aureus* are known to harbor ACME, most notably the highly
84 successful USA300 clone, which harbors a composite island (CI) composed of SCC*mec*
85 type IVa and ACME type I (Shore et al., 2011). The prevalence of ACME has also been
86 reported to be high in sequence type (ST) 239 MRSA isolates (43.7%) from screening
87 swabs of hospitalized patients in Singapore (Hon et al., 2014) and in ST239-like (as
88 determined by pulsed-field gel electrophoresis) bloodstream MRSA isolates (39%)
89 recovered in Australia (Espedido et al., 2012).

90 Like SCC*mec*, ACME is more prevalent and exhibits greater diversity in *S. epidermidis*.
91 Many studies have identified ACME in multiple STs of the predominant *S. epidermidis*
92 clonal lineages based on multilocus sequence typing (MLST), suggesting that ACME
93 originated in this species (Barbier et al., 2011; Miragaia et al., 2009; Onishi et al., 2013).
94 To date, ACME has been detected in the range of 45.8% - 67.9% in *S. epidermidis* isolates
95 recovered from disparate geographical locations, as well as in carriage and disease isolates
96 (Barbier et al., 2011; Diep et al., 2006; Miragaia et al., 2009; Onishi et al., 2013).

97 The ACME genetic island ranges between 30 and 55 kb in size and is associated with three
98 main gene clusters, the *arc* operon composed of the *arcR/A/D/B/C* genes, the *opp3* operon
99 composed of the *opp3A/B/C/D/E* genes, and the recently revealed *kdp* operon, composed of
100 the *kdpE/D/A/B/C* genes (Diep et al., 2006; O'Connor et al., 2018). These gene clusters
101 encode an arginine deaminase pathway, an oligopeptide permease ABC transporter and a
102 potassium ABC transporter, respectively. These three operons which can be present in
103 ACME are in addition to the native chromosomal *arc*, *opp1* and *opp2*, and *kdp* operons in
104 *S. aureus* (Diep et al., 2008; Price-Whelan et al., 2013; Xue et al., 2011).

105 Five distinct ACME types have been described to date, according to the presence of the *arc*
106 and *opp3* operons (type I), the *arc* operon only (type II), the *opp3* operon only (type III),
107 the *arc* and *kdp* operons (type IV), and all three *arc*, *opp* and *kdp* operons (type V) (Diep et
108 al., 2006; Gill et al., 2005; McManus et al., 2017; O'Connor et al., 2018; Shore et al.,
109 2011). Furthermore, two distinct ACME IV subtypes, IVa and IVb have been described

110 based on distinct combinations of flanking DRs (O'Connor et al., 2018). To date, all five
 111 types and several variants thereof have been described in *S. epidermidis* (Barbier et al.,
 112 2011; McManus et al., 2017; Miragaia et al., 2009; O'Connor et al., 2018; Onishi et al.,
 113 2013; Soroush et al., 2016). In contrast, types I and II and variants thereof have been
 114 detected in *S. aureus*, commonly collocated with other genetic elements such as SCC_{mec} or
 115 SCC-associated genes in CIs and separated from these adjacent elements by DRs (Diep et
 116 al., 2006; Kawaguchiya et al., 2013; Rolo et al., 2012; Shore et al., 2011).

117 Although staphylococci are considered transient members of the oral microflora, these
 118 species are prevalent in the oral cavities of the elderly and in people with dental infections
 119 such as periodontal disease (Friedlander, 2010; Murdoch et al., 2004). Periodontal disease
 120 is an inflammatory condition that can progress from gingivitis in response to dental plaque
 121 and affects the gingiva as well as the supporting periodontal structures (Hajishengallis,
 122 2015). As periodontal disease progresses, enlargement of the gingival crevice occurs and
 123 leads to eventual detachment of the gingival tissue from the tooth resulting in periodontal
 124 pocket formation. Periodontal pockets provide a semi-anaerobic nutrient-rich environment
 125 that is ideal for plaque accumulation by resident oral microflora and is prone to decreases in
 126 pH resulting from physiological processes such as tissue repair (Percival et al., 2014).

127 The titanium-based oral implant can act as an ideal substrate for staphylococcal-based
 128 biofilm formation (Thurnheer and Belibasakis, 2016), as can the oxygen-depleted
 129 environment of periodontal and peri-implantitis pockets. Dental implants are indwelling
 130 medical devices made of titanium-based alloys that are placed in the bone of the mandible
 131 or maxilla to anchor a prosthetic crown, denture or bridge (Adell, 1981; Branemark et al.,
 132 1983). They consist of a shaft that is placed directly in the jaw bone and stabilized by
 133 subsequent osseointegration, and an abutment onto which a prosthesis is fitted. Similar to
 134 gingivitis, peri-implant mucositis is an inflammatory condition that affects the gingivae
 135 surrounding a dental implant, which can progress to peri-implantitis in which supporting
 136 bone surrounding an implant is gradually lost, potentially resulting in implant failure
 137 (Renvert and Polyzois, 2018).

138 Both of these oral diseases have a similar etiology in that they are both associated with
 139 dental plaque in which a shift from normal resident microflora to more
 140 periodontopathogenic species appears to occur (Nibali et al., 2015).

141 This study investigated the prevalence of *S. epidermidis* and *S. aureus* in the oral cavities,
 142 subgingival sites and periodontal pockets of patients with implants and natural teeth in
 143 states of both health and disease. Isolates recovered were investigated for ACME to
 144 determine if ACME could be a molecular marker for periodontal disease and/or peri-
 145 implantitis. Previous studies investigated the prevalence of ACME in both *S. aureus* and *S.*
 146 *epidermidis* in a range of carriage and infection sites (Barbier et al., 2011; Du et al., 2013;
 147 Miragaia et al., 2009; Onishi et al., 2013), however, to our knowledge, no studies have
 148 investigated the prevalence of ACME among oral staphylococcal isolates from periodontal
 149 pockets or peri-implantitis sites. A selection of the ACME-positive isolates identified in the
 150 present study were further investigated by whole-genome sequencing (WGS) in order to
 151 elucidate the genetic organization of the ACMEs in detail. Such investigations could yield
 152 important information regarding the potential genetic reservoir of ACME that exist among
 153 *S. epidermidis* for potential future spread to MRSA.

154 **3. Materials and methods**155 **3.1 Study group**

156 Ethical approval for this study was granted by the St. James's Hospital and Federated
157 Dublin Voluntary Hospitals Joint Research Ethics Committee (JREC) and the Faculty of
158 Health Sciences Ethics Committee of Trinity College Dublin, Ireland. Prior to enrollment
159 in the study, all participants were provided with comprehensive patient information
160 documentation and all participants included provided written consent. All documentation
161 (including consent forms) provided to patients was pre-approved by the Research Ethics
162 Committees.

163 All participants in the study met the following criteria: they were over 18 years of age, had
164 a minimum of ten natural teeth and were capable of providing informed consent.
165 Participants were excluded from the study if they had any of the following factors: diabetes
166 or asthma, pregnancy or lactation, blood-borne illnesses, steroid treatment within the year
167 or antibiotics within two months prior to sampling. Patients with periodontal disease had a
168 minimum of one periodontal site with a probing depth of greater than 6 mm and bleeding
169 on probing (BOP). Patients with peri-implantitis were partially dentate and had one or more
170 oral implants in place for a minimum of five years, at least one of which showed clinical
171 signs of disease (Holtfreter et al., 2015; Sanz and Chapple, 2012). The study group
172 consisted of 31 orally healthy patients with dental implants, 20 patients with periodontal
173 disease, 21 patients with peri-implantitis and 64 orally healthy participants.

174 **3.2 Sample collection and processing**

175 All clinical sampling was carried out by qualified Dentists at the Dublin Dental University
176 Hospital (DDUH). Sub-gingival sites and periodontal pockets were sampled by inserting a
177 PerioPaper™ gingival fluid collection strip (Oroflow, NY, USA) into the sub-gingival
178 crevice or periodontal pocket for 30 s. Following sampling the collection strips were placed
179 in sterile 2 ml screw-capped tubes (Sarstedt AG & Co., Numbrecht, Germany) containing 1
180 ml of nutrient broth (NB) (Oxoid Ltd., Hampshire, UK). In addition, oral rinse samples
181 were collected by providing participants with sterile 100 ml plastic cups (Sarstedt AG &
182 Co.) containing 25 ml sterile phosphate buffered saline (PBS) and instructing the
183 participant to rinse their mouths with the PBS for 30 s before returning the rinse fluid to the
184 same container. The anterior nares of participants were sampled using nitrogen-gassed VI-
185 packed sterile transport swabs (Sarstedt AG & Co.). Following sampling, all samples were
186 transported immediately to the microbiology laboratory and processed within 4 h. Vials
187 containing PerioPaper™ strips suspended in NB were vortexed at maximum speed for 1
188 min and 100 µl aliquots of the resulting cell suspension were plated onto mannitol salt agar
189 (MSA) and SaSelect™ chromogenic agar (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hertfordshire, UK) agar.
190 Oral rinse samples were processed by transferring a 1 ml aliquot to a sterile 1.5 ml
191 Eppendorf Safe-lock™ microfuge tube (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany) and centrifuged at
192 20,000 × g for 1 min, after which the supernatant was discarded and the resultant pellet was
193 resuspended in 200 µl NB. To isolate staphylococcal colonies, 100 µl aliquots of this cell
194 suspension were plated on MSA and SaSelect™. Nasal swabs were used to lawn the entire
195 surface of MSA and SaSelect™ plates. Inoculated MSA and SaSelect™ plates were
196 incubated at 37°C for 48 h in a static incubator (Gallenkamp, Leicester, UK).

197 **3.3 Culture, identification and storage of isolates**

198 Bacterial isolates were cultured on Columbia blood agar (Fannin Ltd., Dublin, Republic of
199 Ireland) at 37°C for 48 h prior to identification by Vitek MS Matrix-Assisted Laser
200 Desorption Ionization-Time of Flight Mass Spectrometry system (MALDI-TOF MS)
201 (Vitek, bioMérieux Marcy l'Etoile, France) according to the manufacturer's instructions.
202 Multiple isolates were identified and stored from each sample for future analysis. All
203 isolates were stored on Microbank™ storage beads (Pro-Lab Diagnostics, Cheshire, UK) at
204 -80°C.

205 **3.4 DNA isolation and detection of ACME by multiplex PCR and DNA microarray** 206 **profiling**

207 Where possible, a minimum of two isolates were selected as representatives of each
208 individual participant, distinct sample sites and each staphylococcal species recovered and
209 screened by multiplex PCR to detect the presence of ACME.

210 Genomic DNA was extracted from isolates by enzymatic lysis using the buffers and
211 solutions provided with the *S. aureus* Genotyping Kit 2 DNA microarray kit (Alere
212 Technologies GmbH, Jena, Germany) and the DNeasy Blood and Tissue kit (Qiagen,
213 Crawley, West Sussex, UK) according to the manufacturers' instructions.

214 The presence of ACME was detected in isolates by multiplex PCR targeting the *arcA*,
215 *opp3B* and *kdpA* genes harbored by ACME using the previously described *arcA*- and
216 *opp3B*-directed primers (Diep et al., 2006; McManus et al., 2017) and incorporating
217 primers targeting the *kdpA* gene (*kdpF*: 5'-CGGTTTAACTGGTGC GTT-3' and *kdpR*: 5'-
218 GCAATACATACAGCGTAGCC-3') (O'Connor et al., 2018). PCR assays were carried out
219 in 50-µl reaction volumes containing a 200 µM concentration of each deoxynucleoside
220 triphosphate, 1.25 U of GoTaq polymerase (Promega, Madison, WI, USA), 10 µl (1×) of
221 GoTaq FlexiBuffer (Promega), 2.5 µM MgCl₂, 100 pmol of each primer, and 1 ng of the
222 DNA template. Cycling conditions consisted of 94°C for 2 min, followed by 35 cycles of
223 94°C for 30s, 60°C for 30s, 72°C for 45s and followed by a final elongation step of 72°C for
224 10 min. Amplification products (*arcA* product: 724 bp, *opp3B* product 530 bp, *kdpA*
225 product: 241 bp) were separated by electrophoresis in 2% (w/v) agarose (Sigma-Aldrich
226 Ltd., Wicklow, Republic of Ireland) containing 1X GelRed® (Biotium Inc., CA, USA) and
227 visualized using an Alpha Innotech UV transilluminator (Protein Simple, CA, USA).

228 The presence of *mec* and ACME-*arc* genes amongst *S. aureus* and *S. epidermidis* isolates
229 investigated was also detected by DNA microarray profiling using the *S. aureus*
230 Genotyping Kit 2.0 (Alere Technologies GmbH, Jena, Germany) according to the
231 manufacturer's instructions and as described previously (Monecke et al., 2008).

232 **3.5 Molecular characterization of ACME elements by WGS**

233 A total of 35 *S. epidermidis* isolates selected as representatives of each patient group,
234 sample site and ACME type present were subjected to WGS (Table 1). Libraries were
235 prepared using Nextera XT library preparation reagents (Illumina, Eindhoven, The
236 Netherlands) and sequenced using an Illumina MiSeq desktop sequencer. For each isolate,
237 reads were aligned with reference *S. epidermidis* and *S. aureus* genomes containing ACME

238 and/or SCC elements downloaded from Genbank using a Burrows-Wheeler aligner (BWA)
239 (Li and Durbin, 2009) to select the most appropriate reference ACME type to use as a
240 scaffold. *De-novo* assemblies were carried out on the reads for each ACME-harboring
241 isolate using SPAdes version 3.6 (<http://cab.spbu.ru/software/spades/>). For each isolate, the
242 reference genome that exhibited the highest degree of alignment with the relevant reads
243 was used in a further alignment with the annotated contigs from the *de novo* assembly of
244 the relevant isolate. Contigs identified as containing ACME- or SCC*mec*-associated DNA
245 sequences were aligned, annotated and visualized using BioNumerics version 7.6 (Applied
246 Maths, Sint-Martens-Latem, Belgium) and the Artemis sequence viewer (Berriman and
247 Rutherford, 2003).

248 In order to confirm the genetic organization and orientation of contigs, primers were
249 designed using BioNumerics version 7.6 that targeted a minimum distance of 200
250 nucleotides from the contig boundaries. The target specificity of primers was confirmed
251 using BLAST software (<https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>). All primers were supplied
252 by Sigma-Aldrich Ltd. Contig gaps were closed based on PCR-based amplification and
253 Sanger-based sequencing of these regions using the primers listed in Supplementary Table
254 S1. Sanger-based sequencing was carried out commercially by Source BioScience
255 (Waterford, Republic of Ireland).

256 Multiple alignments of the complete nucleotide sequences of the *arc*, *opp3* and *kdp* operons
257 (including intragenic regions) from each isolate investigated were carried out using the
258 Clustal Omega tool (Sievers et al., 2011). The nucleotide sequence from the first to last
259 base of each operon, including any intragenic regions was compared among all isolates
260 investigated in the present study.

261 **3.6 Determination of STs among isolates subjected to WGS**

262 The STs of ACME-harboring *S. epidermidis* isolates subjected to WGS were determined
263 from the WGS data by examination of the nucleotide sequences of the loci used for the
264 consensus *S. epidermidis* MLST scheme (Thomas et al., 2007). Briefly, the relevant
265 nucleotide sequences were gleaned from the WGS data and inputted into the *S. epidermidis*
266 MLST database online (<http://sepidermidis.mlst.net/>) in order to define allelic profiles and
267 STs.

268 **3.7 Statistical analyses**

269 In order to determine if the differences in the prevalence of staphylococcal species and
270 isolates harboring ACME were significant between different sample sites or patient groups,
271 two-tailed Fisher's exact tests were utilized. These analyses were carried out using
272 GraphPad QuickCalcs (<http://www.graphpad.com/quickcalcs/index.cfm>). A *P* value of <
273 0.05 was deemed statistically significant. Statistical power analyses were calculated using
274 the DSS research statistical power calculator tool
275 (<https://www.dssresearch.com/KnowledgeCenter/toolkitcalculators/statisticalpowercalculators.aspx>)
276 with a confidence interval of 5%.

277 **3.8 Nucleotide accession numbers**

278 The Genbank database accession numbers for the nucleotide sequences of the *S.*
279 *epidermidis* ACMEs previously characterized (McManus et al., 2017; O'Connor et al.,
280 2018) and in the present study are listed in Table 1.

281 **4 Results**

282 **4.1 Prevalence of *S. epidermidis* and *S. aureus* in the oral cavity**

283 *Staphylococcus epidermidis* was recovered from the oral rinse samples of 18/20 (90%)
284 patients with periodontal disease, 18/38 (47.4%) patients with peri-implantitis, 25/31
285 (80.6%) orally healthy patients with implants and 44/64 (68.8%) orally healthy participants
286 (Table 2). *Staphylococcus epidermidis* was significantly more prevalent in the oral rinse
287 samples of orally healthy patients with implants than in those with peri-implantitis ($P =$
288 0.0061 , Power = 90%), however the difference in the prevalence of *S. epidermidis* in the
289 oral rinse samples of patients with periodontal disease in comparison to orally healthy
290 participants was not quite statistically significant ($P = 0.081$).

291 The prevalence of *S. aureus* was considerably lower than *S. epidermidis* among all four
292 groups of participants examined, detected in 5/20 (25%) patients with periodontal disease,
293 8/38 (21.1%) patients with peri-implantitis, 15/31 (48.4%) orally healthy patients with
294 implants and 19/64 (29.7%) of orally healthy participants (Table 2). The prevalence of *S.*
295 *aureus* was highest in the oral cavities of healthy patients with oral implants and was
296 significantly more prevalent in the oral rinse samples of this patient group when compared
297 to the corresponding sample sets from patients with peri-implantitis ($P = 0.0219$, Power =
298 77.8%).

299 **4.2 Prevalence of *S. epidermidis* and *S. aureus* in subgingival sites, peri-implant sites 300 and periodontal pockets**

301 *Staphylococcus epidermidis* was recovered from the periodontal pockets of 6/20 (30%)
302 patients with periodontal disease and the peri-implant sites of 15/29 (51.7%) patients with
303 peri-implantitis. In contrast, *S. epidermidis* was only recovered from the subgingival sites
304 of 5/31 (16.1%) orally healthy patients with implants and 5/64 (7.8%) of orally healthy
305 participants (Table 2). *Staphylococcus epidermidis* was significantly more prevalent in the
306 periodontal pockets of patients with periodontal disease than the subgingival sites of orally
307 healthy participants ($P = 0.0189$, Power = 77.1%). Similarly, the prevalence of *S.*
308 *epidermidis* was significantly higher in the subgingival sites of patients with peri-
309 implantitis than similar sites in orally healthy patients with implants ($P = 0.0057$, Power =
310 91.4%).

311 *Staphylococcus aureus* was equally or less prevalent than *S. epidermidis* in the subgingival
312 sites of all participant groups investigated, recovered from none of the periodontal pockets
313 of patients with periodontal disease, 3/29 (10.3%) peri-implant pockets of patients with
314 peri-implantitis, 4/31 (12.9%) of orally healthy patients with implants and 5/64 (7.8%) of
315 orally healthy participants (Table 2). The prevalence of subgingival *S. aureus* was not
316 significantly different in any of the four participant groups investigated.

317 **4.3 Prevalence of ACME among *S. epidermidis* and *S. aureus* isolates recovered**

318 ACME was detected in 100/179 (55.9%) of the *S. epidermidis* isolates recovered from all
319 four participant groups (Table 2). The *mecA* gene was detected in 12/179 (6.7%) isolates;
320 two from patients with periodontal disease, three from patients with peri-implantitis, three
321 from orally healthy patients with implants and four from orally healthy participants. In
322 total, 5/12 of the MRSE isolates identified also harbored ACMEs, predominantly type II.

323 Among the samples from which *S. epidermidis* was recovered, ACME was detected in
324 isolates recovered from the oral rinse samples of 12/20 (60%) patients with periodontal
325 disease, 4/38 (10.5%) patients with peri-implantitis, 19/31 (61.3%) orally healthy patients
326 with implants, and 23/64 (35.9%) orally healthy participants. The prevalence of *S.*
327 *epidermidis* isolates harboring ACME was significantly higher in the oral rinse samples of
328 orally healthy patients with implants than in those of healthy participants ($P = 0.0275$,
329 Power = 76.1%).

330 Although the prevalence of *S. epidermidis* was lower in subgingival sites than in the oral
331 rinse samples of all four participant groups, the proportion of ACME-harboring *S.*
332 *epidermidis* isolates was higher (Table 2). The presence of ACME was detected in *S.*
333 *epidermidis* isolates from the periodontal pockets and subgingival sites of 5/20 (25%) and
334 4/20 (20%) patients with periodontal disease, respectively. Similarly, ACME was detected
335 in 11/29 (37.9%), 4/31 (12.9%) and 3/64 (4.7%) *S. epidermidis* isolates from the
336 subgingival sites of patients with peri-implantitis, healthy patients with dental implants and
337 orally healthy participants, respectively.

338 Isolates harboring ACME were significantly more prevalent in subgingival samples of
339 patients with peri-implantitis than in subgingival samples of orally healthy participants ($P =$
340 0.0001 , Power = 98.4%). Similarly, isolates with ACME were also significantly more
341 prevalent in periodontal pockets of patients with periodontal disease than subgingival sites
342 of orally healthy participants ($P = 0.0167$, Power = 78.5%). Interestingly, the prevalence of
343 ACME-harboring isolates was also significantly higher in the subgingival sites of patients
344 with peri-implantitis than subgingival sites of orally healthy patients with implants ($P =$
345 0.0369 , Power = 72.9%).

346 In contrast, ACME was not detected in any of the 83 *S. aureus* isolates recovered from oral
347 rinse samples ($n = 56$) and subgingival samples ($n = 27$) investigated.

348 All five previously described ACME types were detected in *S. epidermidis* isolates in the
349 present investigation by multiplex PCR. In all participant groups and anatomical sites
350 sampled, ACME type II was the predominant ACME type, identified in *S. epidermidis*
351 isolates recovered from 53 of the participants investigated. The recently described ACME
352 types IV and V were detected in *S. epidermidis* isolates recovered from 15 and one
353 participants sampled, respectively (Table 2).

354 Pairs of separate *S. epidermidis* isolates recovered from the oral rinse and subgingival
355 samples of four orally healthy patients with implants were found to harbor distinct ACME
356 types (i.e. types I and II or types I and IV). Similarly, a pair of *S. epidermidis* isolates
357 recovered the same periodontal pocket of a patient with periodontal disease harbored
358 ACME types I and II, respectively (Table 2). Furthermore, pairs of separate *S. epidermidis*

359 isolates harboring ACMEs II and III were detected in the same oral rinse sample of one
360 patient with periodontal disease and in two orally healthy participants.

361 A total of 35 *S. epidermidis* isolates selected as representatives of each ACME type, patient
362 group, sample site and ACME type were subjected to WGS in order to elucidate the genetic
363 organization of the ACMEs harbored in detail (Table 1).

364 **4.4 Genetic diversity of ACME type I**

365 Two isolates recovered from the oral rinse samples of a patient with periodontal disease
366 (P14OR1) and an orally healthy patient with implants (I12OR1) were found to harbor
367 ACME type I by multiplex PCR and were subjected to WGS. The STs of these isolates
368 were identified as ST17 and ST7, respectively (Table 1). These STs are double locus
369 variants of each other, differing at the *gtr* and *pyrR* loci by a total of four bp.

370 In both isolates, the ACME type I element was collocated with additional modules in CIs
371 that were 54.3 and 39.9 kb in size, respectively (Fig. 1). Both of the ACME type I elements
372 characterized harbored the *arc* and *opp3* operons, the *speG* gene and were demarcated by
373 DRs B and C (Table 3). In both isolates, ACME type I was located directly downstream
374 of a module composed of the *copA* gene and the *ars* operon, separated by DR B. In isolate
375 I12OR1, this module was demarcated by an additional DR B at the 5' end in *orfX*, whereas
376 in isolate P14OR1 this module was demarcated by DR O at the 5' end and an additional
377 module containing three ORFs was located upstream of the *copA/ars* operon module (Fig.
378 1).

379 **4.5 Genetic diversity of ACME type II**

380 Seventeen isolates harboring ACME type II were identified by multiplex PCR and were
381 further investigated by WGS (Fig. 2). All 17 isolates harbored ACMEs with the *arc* operon
382 only and lacked both the *opp3* and *kdp* operons. Based on the differing combinations of
383 DRs identified at the 5' and 3' ends, the ACME type II elements characterized could be
384 divided into three distinct subtypes (IIa-c) of which ACME type IIb predominated (12/17,
385 70.6%). ACME type IIa was demarcated by the DRs H and C (Table 3) and was
386 identified in 3/17 isolates (Fig. 2; panels B-D), all of which belonged to ST59. ACME type
387 IIb (Fig. 2; panels E-I) was demarcated by the DRs D and C and was identified in 12/17
388 isolates belonging to ST89 ($n = 1$), ST14 ($n = 2$), ST73 ($n = 8$) and a single locus variant of
389 ST73 ($n = 1$). The remaining two isolates harbored ACME type IIc demarcated by the DRs
390 A and E and belonged to ST672 (Fig. 2; panels J and K). Interestingly in the case of the
391 latter two isolates, the *copA* and *ars* operon were internalized within ACME type IIc in
392 both isolates (Fig. 2; panels J and K) and both lacked the internal DR G commonly
393 identified downstream of the *arc* operon in ACME type II. The ACME type IIc-harboring
394 CIs in these isolates were almost identical, differing only by the presence of an ORF
395 upstream of the *sdrH* gene in isolate P14PPP2 (Fig. 2; panel K)

396 Five of the 17 ACME type II structures characterized by WGS existed as modules of larger
397 CIs and were collocated with modules which harbored genes associated with SCC elements
398 such as *ccr* and *mec* (Fig. 2; panels B, C, I, J & K). In each of these five CIs, the ACME

399 type II structure was divided from these SCC-associated modules by DRs *_A*, *_H*, or *_D*
400 (Table 3).

401 Interestingly, in one isolate (217PPP362) two separate and distinct SCC-associated
402 modules were detected in tandem upstream of ACME type IIa (Fig. 2; panel C). The
403 module immediately upstream of ACME type IIa was demarcated by the DRs *_L* and *_H*
404 and harbored the *speG* and *ccrAB4* genes and was collocated immediately downstream of
405 an additional SCC-associated module which harbored the *mecA* and *ccrAB2* genes. The
406 ACME type IIa and IIb structures in the remaining 12/17 isolates investigated had
407 integrated directly into *orfX* in the absence of any adjacent modules and were not
408 components of larger CIs (Fig. 2).

409 The presence of *sdr* genes, members of the serine/aspartate repeat family encoding
410 fibrinogen-binding proteins was detected in modules adjacent to ACME type II in 3/17
411 isolates investigated and was collocated with ACME subtype IIb and IIc identified in the
412 present study.

413 The *speG* gene encoding spermidine acetyltransferase was detected in only one isolate
414 harboring ACME type II, (217PPP362) located in a SCC-associated module upstream of
415 ACME type IIa (Fig. 2; panel C). The *copA* gene was located near the 3' end of all 17
416 ACME type II structures investigated. In all ACME type IIa and IIb structures investigated,
417 this gene was separated from the *arc* operon by DR_*G* and additional open reading frames
418 commonly identified within ACMEs (Fig. 2).

419 **4.6 Genetic diversity of ACME type III**

420 Four isolates harbored ACME type III, all of which were identified as ST329 (Table 2).
421 Three of the ST329 isolates (P16OR1, 204OR1 and I11OR1) have been described
422 previously (McManus et al., 2017). The CI harbored by the fourth isolate (I1PPP121)
423 consisted of two distinct modules separated by DR_*G*. The module at the 5' end harbored
424 two pairs of *ccr* genes, of which *ccrA4* and *ccrB2* were prematurely truncated. This module
425 also harbored the *copA* and *ars* genes, located upstream of ACME type III as previously
426 observed in the other three isolates. The ACME type III harbored by I1PPP121 exhibited a
427 minimum of 99.81% nucleotide identity to the ACME type IIIs harbored by isolates
428 P16OR1, 204OR1 and I11OR1.

429 **4.7 Genetic diversity of ACME types IV and V**

430 Eleven isolates harboring ACME type IV were identified and belonged to ST210 ($n = 1$),
431 ST153 ($n = 6$), ST130 ($n = 1$), ST17 ($n = 1$), ST297 ($n = 1$) and ST 432 ($n = 1$) (Table 1).
432 Nine of these isolates were described recently in a study that first defined ACME types IV
433 and V in *S. epidermidis* (O'Connor et al., 2018). The two additional ST153 isolates (PS7P2
434 and PS23P1) were characterized in the present study and harbored ACME types IVa and
435 IVb, respectively. The ACME type IVa harbored by isolate PS7P2 was identical to those
436 previously described in isolates 120PPC, I9OR1 and I14OR1, and the ACME type IVb
437 harbored by isolate PS23P1 was identical to that previously described in isolate P8OR3
438 (O'Connor et al., 2018). ACME type V was identified in only one isolate, recovered from

439 the subgingival site of a patient with peri-implantitis and has been previously described
 440 (O'Connor et al., 2018).

441 **4.8 Genetic diversity among the *arc*, *opp3* and *kdp* operons harbored by ACME types**
 442 **I-V**

443 **4.8.1 The *arc* operon**

444 The percentage nucleotide identity between all ACME-*arc* operons identified in the present
 445 study, in ACME types I, II, IV and V ranged from 99.06 – 100%. The ACME-*arc* operons
 446 harbored by isolates 200OR2, 32BR, PS7OR and PS8TI (all ACME type IIb) exhibited
 447 100% nucleotide identity to each other, as did that harbored by isolates 120PPC, I9OR1,
 448 I14OR1 (all ACME type IVa). Similarly, the ACME-*arc* operon harbored by P9OR1,
 449 P9PPH12, P9PPH11, P11OR1 and P11PPH21 (all ACME type IIb) exhibited 100%
 450 nucleotide identity with each other (Supplementary Table S2).

451 **4.8.2 The *opp3* operon**

452 The percentage nucleotide identity between all *opp3*-operons identified in the present
 453 study, in ACME types I, III and V ranged from 97.22-100% (Supplementary Table S3).
 454 The *opp3* operon harbored by isolates P16OR1 and P11OR1 (both ACME type III)
 455 exhibited 100% nucleotide identity to each other. The *opp3* operons harbored by ACME
 456 type I exhibited 99.91% to each other and 99.96% nucleotide homology to the *opp3* operon
 457 harbored by the reference ACME type I (Genbank accession number CP000255.1). The
 458 *opp3* operon harbored by the recently described ACME type V (O'Connor et al., 2018)
 459 exhibited 99.22-99.24% and 97.48-97.52% nucleotide identity to those harbored by ACME
 460 types III and I, respectively (Supplemental Table S3).

461 **4.8.3 The *kdp* operon**

462 The *kdp* operon was highly conserved, exhibiting a minimum of 99.86% nucleotide identity
 463 amongst isolates harboring ACME types IV and V. The *kdp* operons harbored by isolates
 464 120PPC, PS30PH, 33BR, 218PP361, PS7P2 and I9OR1 (all ACME type IVa) exhibited
 465 100% nucleotide identity to each other, and to that harbored by PS23P1 (ACME type IVb).
 466 The *kdp* operon harbored by the remaining ACME type IVb isolates, PS36PD and P8OR3
 467 exhibited 99.94% nucleotide identity to each other. The *kdp* operon harbored by ACME
 468 type V exhibited a minimum of 99.86% nucleotide identity to the *kdp* operon harbored by
 469 ACME types IVa and IVb. (Supplementary Table S3).

470 **4.9 Comparison of ACMEs among multiple *S. epidermidis* isolates from the same**
 471 **patients**

472 Three isolates recovered from the periodontal pockets and oral rinse sample of a patient
 473 with periodontal disease (P9) were all identified as ST73 (Table 1) and harbored genetically
 474 identical ACME type IIb structures (Supplementary Figure S1). In contrast, three distinct *S.*
 475 *epidermidis* isolates recovered from the oral rinse, nasal swab and periodontal pocket of a
 476 patient (P14) with periodontal disease were identified as STs 17, 14 and 672, and harbored
 477 ACME types I, IIb and IIc, respectively (Supplementary Figure S1). Similarly, an isolate
 478 identified as ST59 and harboring ACME type IIa was recovered from the periodontal

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479 pocket of a patient with periodontal disease (P11) and was genetically distinct to two other
480 isolates identified as ST73 and harboring ACME type IIb which were recovered from the
481 oral rinse and another periodontal pocket of the same patient.

482 **5. Discussion**483 **5.1 The prevalence of staphylococci in the oral cavity, subgingival sites and periodontal**
484 **pockets**

485 Previous investigations of the prevalence of staphylococcal species in the oral cavity are conflicting
486 and/or ambiguous for several probable reasons. Firstly, studies did not definitively distinguish
487 between distinct CoNS species and *S. aureus* (Leonhardt et al., 1999). Secondly, different studies
488 used semi-discriminatory agar media such as Baird Parker or MSA for primary recovery, which may
489 have resulted in failure to select and further distinguish between morphologically similar colonies of
490 distinct CoNS species (dos Santos et al., 2014; Cuesta et al., 2010; Loberto et al., 2004). Thirdly,
491 several previous studies relied on checkerboard DNA-DNA hybridization techniques for definitive
492 identification of oral staphylococcal species from patients with dental implants, an approach that
493 does not distinguish between viable and dead bacteria (Fürst et al., 2007; Renvert et al., 2008; Salvi
494 et al., 2008). Subsequently, real-time PCR with species-specific primers demonstrated that the
495 previously used DNA:DNA hybridization probes showed cross reactivity between *S. aureus* and *S.*
496 *epidermidis* DNA (Cashin, 2013).

497 Patient sampling and recovery of viable isolates was undertaken using a uniform, systematic
498 methodology for all sample sites and patient groups and identification of both *S. epidermidis* and *S.*
499 *aureus* isolates was determined using robust procedures. The utilization of the chromogenic
500 SaSelect™ medium for primary isolation of oral staphylococci enabled direct visualization and
501 presumptive identification of both *S. epidermidis* and *S. aureus* isolates based on the growth of these
502 species as white/pale pink and pink colonies, respectively. This approach ensured that the
503 differences in the prevalence of *S. epidermidis* and *S. aureus* observed are a true reflection of the
504 patient groups and sample sites investigated.

505 **5.1.1 Staphylococcus epidermidis**

506 *Staphylococcus epidermidis* was detected in the oral cavities of 47.4 - 90% of the four participant
507 groups investigated (Table 2) which was higher than previous studies that reported its recovery from
508 the oral cavities of 27.3% patients with periodontal disease (Loberto et al., 2004) and 41% of orally
509 healthy participants (Ohara-Nemoto et al., 2008).

510 Previous reports of the prevalence of subgingival *S. epidermidis* vary greatly, ranging between 15.9
511 and 64.3% in periodontal pockets (dos Santos et al., 2014; Loberto et al., 2004; Murdoch et al.,
512 2004) and between 42.9-60.7% in the subgingival sites of healthy participants (Murdoch et al.,
513 2004; Ohara-Nemoto et al., 2008), most likely due to different methods used. Data on the
514 subgingival prevalence of *S. epidermidis* in patients with oral implants and/or peri-implantitis are
515 largely lacking or did not undertake definitive identification of this species (Leonhardt et al., 1999).

516 **5.1.2 Staphylococcus aureus**

517 In the present study, *S. aureus* was considerably less prevalent than *S. epidermidis* in the oral
518 cavities of participant groups and was rarely detected in subgingival sites or periodontal pockets
519 (Table 2). The dramatic contrast in the oral prevalence of *S. epidermidis* and *S. aureus* was not
520 surprising, as a negative correlation between the prevalence of these species has been reported
521 previously (Brescò et al., 2017). Previous reports of the prevalence of subgingival *S. aureus* vary
522 greatly, ranging from 13.4 – 68.2% (Cuesta et al., 2010; Zhuang et al., 2014) in periodontal pockets,

523 40-70.4% of peri-implant pockets and 25-44% of healthy subgingival sites around dental implants
 524 (Fürst et al., 2007; Renvert et al., 2008; Salvi et al., 2008). The contrasting results between the
 525 present and previous studies most likely reflects differences in methodology used as discussed
 526 above.

527 **5.2 The prevalence of ACME in *S. epidermidis* and *S. aureus***

528 The prevalence of ACME has previously been investigated amongst *S. epidermidis* populations and
 529 has been reported to range from 40 – 65.4% in MRSE, and from 64.4 – 83% in methicillin
 530 susceptible *S. epidermidis* (Barbier et al., 2011; Du et al., 2013; Miragaia et al., 2009; Onishi et al.,
 531 2013). In the present investigation, only 12/179 (6.7%) of the *S. epidermidis* isolates recovered were
 532 MRSE. This finding correlates with previous studies that reported a higher prevalence of ACME in
 533 methicillin-susceptible *S. epidermidis*. Five of the 12 MRSE isolates identified here harbored
 534 ACMEs, predominantly ACME type II.

535 This is the first investigation into the prevalence of ACME amongst *S. epidermidis* and *S. aureus*
 536 isolates recovered from both above and below the gumline in patients with and without oral disease.
 537 The prevalence of ACME was greater than 50% amongst the populations of *S. epidermidis*
 538 recovered. In contrast, ACME was not detected in any of the *S. aureus* isolates recovered.

539 This study revealed for the first time that the prevalence of ACME-harboring *S. epidermidis* was
 540 significantly higher in subgingival sites of patients with peri-implantitis and periodontal disease in
 541 comparison to healthy individuals ($P = 0.0001$ and $P = 0.0167$, respectively). Furthermore, *S.*
 542 *epidermidis* harboring ACME were significantly more prevalent in the subgingival sites of patients
 543 with peri-implantitis than in orally healthy patients with implants. Together, these results suggest a
 544 strong association of *S. epidermidis* isolates harboring ACME with diseased, semi-anaerobic
 545 subgingival tissue sites. No correlation between specific ACME types or subtypes and specific
 546 disease state or oral site was identified.

547 One of the potential limitations of the present investigation was the number of patients sampled. The
 548 study group was limited to patients attending DDUH who did not have any underlying conditions
 549 and had not received antibiotics in the two months prior to sampling. It is likely that larger
 550 investigations would further support the findings of this study as well as likely identify additional
 551 ACME types. Furthermore, it would be interesting to determine if ACME is more abundant in *S.*
 552 *epidermidis* isolates recovered from other diseased anatomical sites or wounds.

553 **5.3 The genetic diversity of ACME**

554 Previous investigations of the prevalence and structural diversity of ACME relied on primers
 555 targeting the ACME-*arc* and ACME-*opp3* genes to detect ACME types I-III only (Miragaia et al.,
 556 2009; Onishi et al., 2013). This study is the first to include primers targeting the recently described
 557 ACME-*kdp* operon in a multiplex ACME-typing PCR and therefore the results of this study
 558 accurately reflect the true prevalence of ACME types currently described in *S. epidermidis*, at least
 559 of oral origin. The application of WGS to the characterization of ACME has revealed the additional
 560 ACME types harbored by *S. epidermidis* in addition to the detailed structural diversity of these
 561 ACMEs. It is highly likely that *S. epidermidis* isolates harboring the *opp3* and *kdp* operons and the
 562 *kdp* operon only will also be identified in the future using WGS.

563 Common DRs were often observed amongst multiple ACME types and subtypes (Table 3). Many
 564 distinct DRs have been identified at the 5' end of ACME, which is clearly demarcated by the
 565 integration of this element into *orfX*. The demarcation of the 3' end is less obvious. Previously
 566 described ACMEs terminated at the 3' end by DR_J in ACME type I of *S. aureus* (Genbank
 567 accession number CP000255.1) (Diep et al., 2006) and by DR_C in ACME types II-V of *S.*
 568 *epidermidis* (Gill et al., 2005; McManus et al., 2017; O'Connor et al., 2018), even though an internal
 569 DR_G is present downstream of the *arc* operon in both the reference ACME type II (Genbank
 570 accession number AE015929) and subsequently described in ACME types II (Fig. 2) and IV
 571 (O'Connor et al., 2018). Many of the ACMEs characterized in the present and previous studies were
 572 components of CIs that were separated by multiple DRs, and greatly contributed to the diversity of
 573 these MGEs. Interestingly, the *copA* gene and *ars* operon were commonly detected in various
 574 distinct positions within or adjacent to ACME types I, II, III, and V. These genes were identified
 575 downstream of the ACME type II element in several isolates investigated in the present study (data
 576 not shown) but were internalized within the ACME type IIc structures (Fig. 2). The identification of
 577 multiple DRs in common amongst distinct ACME types and the frequent organizational differences
 578 observed both within and between each ACME type supports previous studies that suggested
 579 ACMEs are assembled in a stepwise, modular fashion (Thurlow et al., 2013). Indeed, ACME
 580 diversity was also observed among separate isolates recovered from the oral cavities of the same
 581 patient (Supplemental Figure S1) in three cases.

582 **5.4 The association of ACME with specific *S. epidermidis* lineages**

583 Isolates harboring ACME type I investigated here were identified as STs 7 and 17 (Table 1), both of
 584 which have been previously assigned to GC6 by Bayesian clustering analysis (Thomas et al., 2014;
 585 Tolo et al., 2016), a GC that is enriched with ACME-harboring isolates and associated with
 586 infection sources. Isolates harboring ACME type II were identified as STs 73 (and a single locus
 587 variant thereof), 59, 89, 14 and 672, four of which have previously been assigned to GC1, a GC
 588 enriched with isolates from non-hospital sources (Thomas et al., 2014; Tolo et al., 2016). Two
 589 isolates harboring ACME type IIc from periodontal pockets of two separate patients were identified
 590 as ST672, however this ST was not previously assigned to a GC. All isolates harboring ACME type
 591 III were recovered from separate patients and all belonged to ST329, previously associated with
 592 GC4. Isolates belonging to GC4 have been associated with a more commensal lifestyle (Thomas et
 593 al., 2014). Isolates harboring ACME type IV were identified as STs 153, 297, 130 and 17, of which
 594 four were previously assigned to GC6. The isolate harboring ACME type V, identified as ST5, also
 595 belonged to GC6.

596 Distinct ACME types were more commonly associated with isolates belonging to identical or
 597 closely related STs, rather than the participant group or sample sites from which each ACME-
 598 harboring isolate was recovered. Indeed, many STs identified amongst isolates recovered from the
 599 oral rinse samples of healthy participants belonged to GC6 (Table 2), a cluster enriched with isolates
 600 from infections (Tolo et al., 2016). These findings strongly suggest that the stepwise accumulation
 601 of ACMEs occurs in specific lineages of *S. epidermidis*, rather than in specific anatomical sites.

602 **5.5 The potential role of ACME in disease**

603 In the present study, the predominant ACME types detected (II and IV) in *S. epidermidis* harbored
 604 the *arc* operon. Researchers have hypothesized that ACME enhances the transmissibility,
 605 colonization and persistence of the MRSA USA300 strain on human skin, contributing to the

606 success of this lineage (Diep et al., 2008; Planet et al., 2013). The arginine deaminase pathway
607 encoded by *arc* is responsible for the breakdown of polyamines, which are largely L-arginine based.
608 This results in the formation of ornithine, ATP, CO₂ and ammonia, the latter of which contributes to
609 the internal pH regulation of staphylococci in acidic conditions (Lindgren et al., 2014; Planet et al.,
610 2013). The contribution of the constitutively expressed *arc* operon is likely to be highly
611 advantageous to staphylococcal survival in the acidic environments present in dental plaque. In
612 addition, the ATP generated is likely beneficial to organisms living in nutrient poor, semi-anaerobic
613 environments such as present in periodontal pockets. Polyamines are associated with biological
614 processes such as wound healing and infection clearance and it is therefore likely that they would be
615 highly associated with oral inflammatory diseases such as periodontal disease and peri-implantitis.
616 The *speG* gene, encoding a spermidine acetyltransferase, is thought to mitigate the lethal effects of
617 polyamines on staphylococci. The exact benefit of the *opp3* operon is unclear but encodes an
618 oligopeptide permease ABC transporter (Diep et al., 2006, 2008). The *speG* gene and *opp3* operon
619 were detected in only eight and seven of the 35 ACMEs characterized, respectively, suggesting that
620 these genes are relatively dispensable for *S. epidermidis* in oral environments (McManus et al.,
621 2017; O'Connor et al., 2018).

622 Interestingly, the *kdp* operon was detected in 12 of the 35 ACMEs characterized by WGS,
623 suggesting that these genes contribute to the survival of *S. epidermidis* in oral environments. This
624 operon encodes a potassium transporter that is important for maintaining intracellular pH
625 homeostasis and metabolic processes in *S. aureus* (Price-Whelan et al., 2013) and likely plays an
626 important role in the adaptation and survival of *S. epidermidis* in dental plaque, which has a
627 significant concentration of K⁺ ions (Margolis and Moreno, 1994).

628 5.6 Conclusions

629 This study revealed the significantly high prevalence of *S. epidermidis* in periodontal pockets and
630 subgingival sites of patients with periodontal disease or peri-implantitis, respectively. There was
631 also a very significant difference in the prevalence of *S. epidermidis* harboring ACME in these
632 diseased subgingival sites and periodontal pockets compared to those recovered from healthy
633 subgingival sites and oral rinse samples (Table 2). As yet, it is unclear if this organism contributes to
634 disease progression directly. The presence of five main ACME types among oral *S. epidermidis*
635 isolates was identified and extensive genetic diversity among these types was revealed using WGS,
636 which would have been overlooked using previously described multiplex PCRs (Miragaia et al.,
637 2009; Onishi et al., 2013). The *arc* and *kdp* operons harbored by the predominant ACME types
638 identified (II and IV) very likely contribute to the survival of oral *S. epidermidis* under diseased and
639 inflammatory conditions such as periodontal disease and peri-implantitis.

640 **6. CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

641 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or
642 financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

643 **7. AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

644 AOC conceived and designed the study, performed the WGS data analysis and drafted the
645 manuscript. BMcM conceived and designed the study and helped with the study co-
646 ordination, WGS data analysis and wrote the manuscript. PMK assisted with bioinformatic
647 analyses. GIB and TEF performed definitive identification of staphylococcal isolates by
648 MALDI_TOF. PJC assisted with laboratory processing and isolation of staphylococcal
649 isolates. MO'S and IP performed clinical sampling of patients and participants included in
650 the study. DC conceived and designed the study, purchased the required materials, assisted
651 with data analysis and drafted the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final
652 manuscript.

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- 870

870 **Table 1. Population of *S. epidermidis* isolates subjected to whole genome sequencing**

871

Isolate	Sample site	Patient	ACME type/subtype	ACME/CI size	ST^a	Genbank accession number^b
Participants with periodontal disease (n= 12)						
P8OR3	OR	P8	IVb	54.2	210	MG787414 ^b
P9OR1	OR	P9	IIb	31.1	TBA ^c	MH188462
P9PPH12	SG	P9	IIb	31.1	73	MH188463
P9PPHI1	SG	P9	IIb	31.1	73	MH188464
P11OR1	OR	P11	IIb	31.1	73	MH188465
P11PPH21	SG	P11	IIb	31.1	73	MH188466
P11PPP12	PP	P11	IIa	54.4	59	MH188467
P14OR1	OR	P14	I	54.3	17	MH188468
P14PPP2	PP	P14	IIc	53.9	672	MH188469
P14NS2	NS	P14	IIb	30.7	14	MH188470
P16OR1	OR	P16	III	53.9	329	MF346684 ^b
P19PPP1	PP	P19	IIc	53.5	672	MH188471
Participants with peri-implantitis (n= 9)						
PS36PD	SG	PS36	IVa	40.2	432	MG787422 ^b
PS7OR	OR	PS7	IIb	32	73	MH188472
PS7P2	SG	PS7	IVa	67.8	153	MH188473
PS23P1	SG	PS23	IVb	54.2	153	MH188474
PS30PH	SG	PS30	IVa	68.3	153	MG787421 ^b
PS34PI	SG	PS34	IIb	31.6	14	MH188475
PS8TI	SG	PS8	IIb	32	73	MH188476
PS19PH	SG	PS19	V	116.9	5	MG787423 ^b
PS21NS	NS	PS21	IVa	55.8	297	MG787420 ^b
Orally healthy participants with implants (n= 6)						
I9OR1	OR	I9	IVa	67.8	153	MG787415 ^b
I11OR1	OR	I11	III	45.1	329	MF346685 ^b
I12OR1	OR	I12	I	39.9	7	MH188477
I14OR1	OR	I14	IVa	67.8	153	MG787416 ^b

I23OR2	OR	I23	IIb	48	89	MH188478
I1PPP121	SG	I1	III	66.9	329	MH188479
Orally healthy participants (n= 9)						
120PPC	SG	120	IVa	67.8	153	MG787417 ^b
200OR2	OR	200	IIb	32	73	MH188480
201OR2	OR	201	IIa	27	59	MH188481
204OR1	OR	204	III	65.6	329	MF346683 ^b
217PPP362	SG	217	IIa	74.6	59	MH188482
218PP361	SG	218	IVa	39	130	MG787418 ^b
32BR	OR	32	IIb	32	73	MH188483
33BR	OR	33	IVa	48.8	17	MG787419 ^b

872

873 ^aThe ST of each isolate was determined by uploading the sequence of seven housekeeping
874 genes to the *S. epidermidis* MLST online database (<https://pubmlst.org/sepidermidis/>).

875 ^bThe genetic structure of these ACMEs has been described previously (McManus et al.,
876 2017; O'Connor et al., 2018).

877 ^cThe ST of this isolate is yet to be assigned. This isolate is a single locus variant of ST73,
878 differing at the *gtr* locus by 1bp

879 Abbreviations: ACME; arginine catabolic mobile element, ST; strain type, OR; oral rinse,
880 PP; periodontal pocket, SG; subgingival site.

881 **Table 2. Prevalence of ACME types harbored by *S. epidermidis* from distinct patient groups and anatomical sites**

882

883 Significant differences in the prevalence of *S. epidermidis* between paired sample types from distinct patient groups are indicated by
884 identical numerals in superscript.

Patients (n)	Sample site	Prevalence of <i>S. epidermidis</i> per patient (%)	Prevalence of <i>S. aureus</i> per patient (%)	Number of isolates harboring ACME (%)	Prevalence of <i>S. epidermidis</i> harboring ACME (%)	ACME types identified among <i>S. epidermidis</i> (n= patients)							
						I	II	III	IV	V	I & II	II & III	I & IV
Periodontal disease (20) ^a	OR	18/20 (90)	5/20 (25)	14/27 (51.9)	12/20 (60)	2	5	1	3	0	0	1	0
	PP	6/20 (30) ³	0/20 (0)	6/9 (66.7)	5/20 (25) ⁷	0	3	0	1	0	1	0	0
	SG	4/20 (20)	0/20 (0)	5/6 (83.3)	4/20 (20)	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
Peri-implantitis (29, 38) ^b	OR	18/38 (47.4) ¹	8/38 (21.1) ²	4/15 (26.7)	4/38 ^c (10.5)	0	3	1	0	0	0	0	0
	SG	15/29 (51.7) ⁴	3/29 (10.3)	13/19 (68.4)	11/29 (37.9) ^{6,8}	0	8	1	1	1	0	0	0
Healthy with implants (31)	OR	25/31 (80.6) ¹	15/31 (48.4) ²	24/39 (61.5)	19/31 (61.3) ⁵	3	8	2	3	0	3	0	0
	SG	5/31 (16.1)	4/31 (12.9)	5/9 (55.6)	4/31 (12.9) ⁸	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1
Orally healthy (64)	OR	44/64 (68.8)	19/64 (29.7)	26/50 (52)	23/64 (35.9) ⁵	2	15	1	3	0	0	2	0
	SG	5/64 (7.8) ^{3,4}	5/64 (7.8)	3/5 (60)	3/64 (4.7) ^{6,7}	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	0

885 ^a Subgingival samples were taken from patients with peri-implantitis prior to any dental treatment.

886 ^b Oral rinse samples were recovered from 38 patients with peri-implantitis; subgingival samples were taken from 29 of these patients.

887 ^c Isolates recovered from oral rinse samples of four patients could not be located to be screened for the presence of ACME and thus
888 were not included in statistical analyses.

889 Abbreviations OR, oral rinse; SG, subgingival site; PP, periodontal pocket.

890 **Table 3. Direct repeat sequences (DRs) identified among ACME types investigated**

DR	Sequence (5'-3')	Associated ACME types/subtypes and CIs
DR_A	GAAGCATATCATAAATGA	IIa, IIb, IIc, IVa, V
DR_B	GAAGCGTATCACAAATAA	I, IIa, III ^a , IVa, V
DR_C	GAAGCGTATCGTAAGTGA	I, IIa, IIb, III ^a , IVa, IVb, V
DR_D	GAAGCGTACCACAAATAA	IIa, IIb,
DR_E	GAAGCGTATTAAAGTGAT	IIc
DR_F	GAAAGTTATCATAAGTGA	IVb, V
DR_G	GAAGCGTATAATAAGTAA	IIa, IIb, III ^a , IVa, IVb, V
DR_H	GAAGCGTATCATAAGTGA	IIa
DR_I	GAAGCGTATCATAAATGA	I
DR_J	GAGGCGTATCATAAGTAA	I
DR_L	GAAGCATATCATAAGTGA	IIa, III ^a , V
DR_M	GAAGGGTATCATAAATAA	III ^a
DR_N	GAAGCGTATCACAAATGA	IVa
DR_O	GAAGCATATCATAAATAA	I
DR_P	GAAGCTTATCATAAATGA	I

891 ^aThe DRs _B, _L, _M, _G and _C described in the present study correspond to the DR1_A,
892 DR_1B, DR_2, DR_3 and DR_4 previously described in ACME type III structures
893 (McManus et al., 2017).

894 **FIGURE LEGENDS**895 **Figure 1**

896 Schematic representation of ACME type I elements harbored by two distinct *S. epidermidis*
 897 isolates investigated by WGS. The ACME type I previously described in the MRSA
 898 reference USA300 strain FPR3757 (Genbank accession number CP000255.1) is included
 899 for comparison (A). The size of each ACME is indicated after each strain name. Each gene
 900 or group of genes of interest is differentiated by a different color, i.e. light blue; *opp3*-
 901 operon, red; *arc*-operon, pale green; *cop*-operon, yellow; *ars* operon, dark blue; *ccrAB*
 902 complexes, dark green; *pbp2a*, dark grey; *speG*, light grey; genes encoding hypothetical
 903 proteins, sugar transporters, transposases and other ORFs, previously identified in ACMEs.
 904 The direction of transcription for each ORF is indicated by arrows. The DRs are indicated
 905 in bold font and correspond to DR sequences listed in Table 3.

906 **Figure 2**

907 Schematic representation of ACME II subtypes a-c and ACME type II-harboring CIs
 908 investigated in the present study. The previously described ACME type II CI harbored by
 909 the *S. epidermidis* reference strain ATCC12228 (Genbank accession number AE015929) is
 910 included for reference (A). The size of each ACME is shown after the strain name. Each
 911 gene or group of genes of interest is differentiated by a different color, i.e. red; *arc*-operon,
 912 pale green; mustard; *tetR*, *cop*-operon, yellow; *ars* operon, dark blue; *ccrAB* genes, dark
 913 green; *mecA*, dark grey; *speG*, light grey; genes encoding hypothetical proteins, sugar
 914 transporters, transposases and other ORFs, previously identified in ACMEs. The direction
 915 of transcription for each ORF is indicated by the arrow. The DRs are indicated in bold font
 916 and correspond to each DR sequence listed in Table 3.

917 **Figure 3**

918 Schematic representation of ACME type III structure from oral *S. epidermidis* isolate
 919 I1PPP121 characterized in the present study. The previously described ACME type III
 920 structure from an *S. epidermidis* isolate (P16OR1) recovered from an oral rinse sample
 921 from a patient with periodontal disease (McManus et al., 2017) is included for comparison
 922 (A). The size of the ACME characterized is shown after the isolate name. Each gene or
 923 group of genes of interest is differentiated by a different color, i.e., pale green; *cop*-operon,
 924 dark blue; *ccrAB* gene complexes (of which the genes *ccrA4* and *ccrB2* were prematurely
 925 truncated), light blue; *opp3* operon, dark green; *pbp4*, light grey; genes encoding
 926 hypothetical proteins, sugar transporters, transposases and other ORFs, previously
 927 identified in ACMEs. The direction of transcription for each ORF is indicated by the arrow.
 928 The DRs are indicated in bold font and correspond to each DR sequence listed in Table 3.

Figure 1

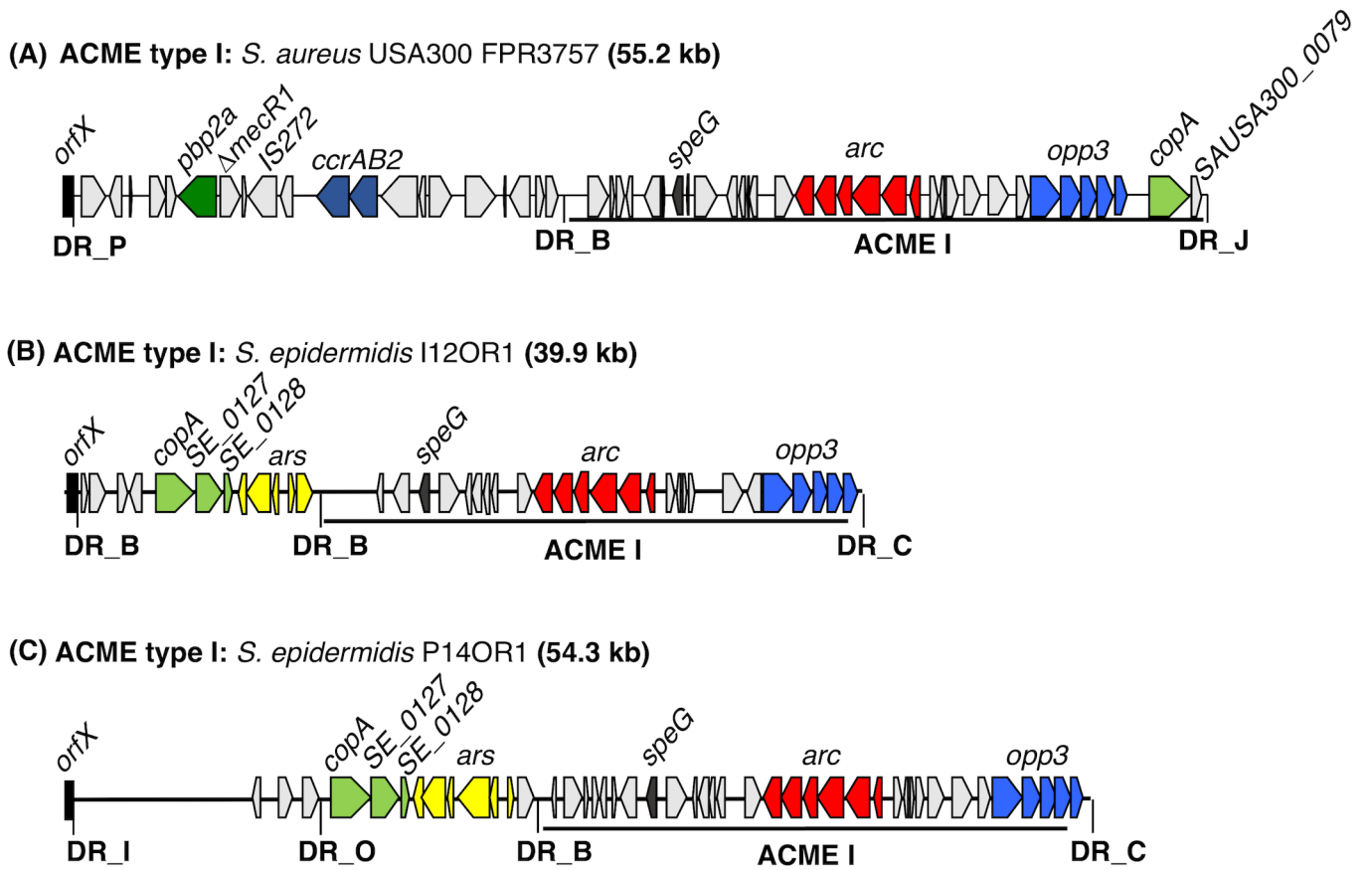
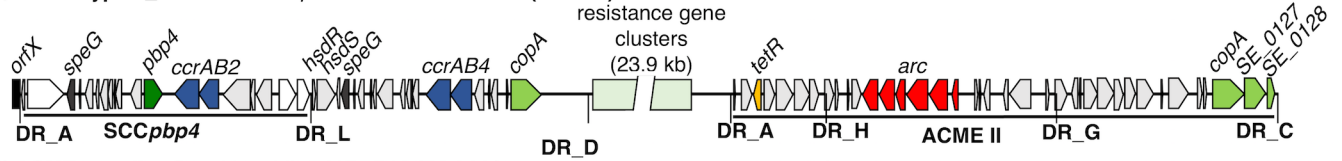
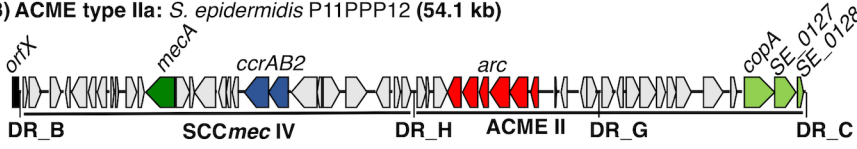


Figure 2

(A) ACME type II_AE015929 *S. epidermidis* ATCC 12228 (92.4 kb)



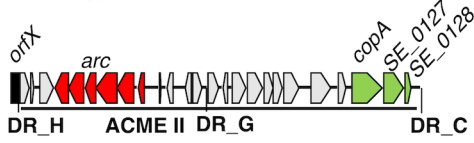
(B) ACME type IIa: *S. epidermidis* P11PPP12 (54.1 kb)



(C) ACME type IIa: *S. epidermidis* 217PPP362 (74.6 kb)



(D) ACME type IIa: *S. epidermidis* 201OR2 (27 kb)



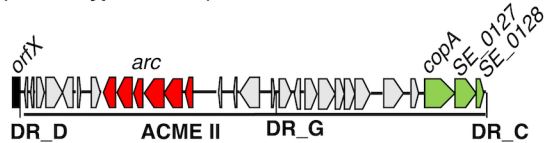
(E) ACME type IIb: *S. epidermidis* P14NS2 (30.7 kb)



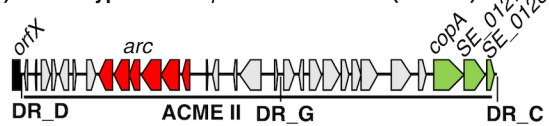
(F) ACME type IIb: *S. epidermidis* P9OR1, P9PPH12, P9PPH11, P11OR1, P11PPH21 (31.1 kb)



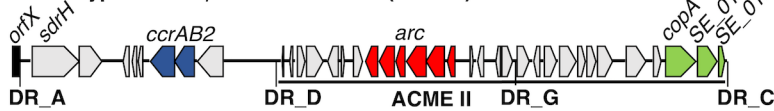
(G) ACME type IIb: *S. epidermidis* 200OR2, 32BR, PS7OR, PS8TI (32 kb)



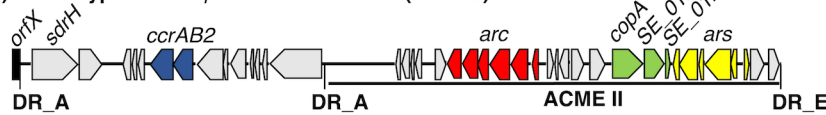
(H) ACME type IIb: *S. epidermidis* PS34PI (31.6 kb)



(I) ACME type IIb: *S. epidermidis* I23OR2 (48.0 kb)



(J) ACME type IIc: *S. epidermidis* P19PPP1 (53.5 kb)



(K) ACME type IIc: *S. epidermidis* P14PPP2 (53.9 kb)

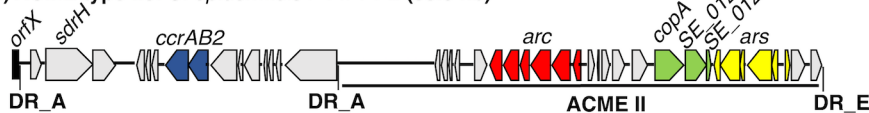


Figure 3

(A) ACME type III: *S. epidermidis* P16OR1 (53.9 kb)



(B) ACME type III: *S. epidermidis* I1PPP121 (66.9 kb)

