Serveur Académique Lausannois SERVAL serval.unil.ch

Author Manuscript

Faculty of Biology and Medicine Publication

This paper has been peer-reviewed but does not include the final publisher proof-corrections or journal pagination.

Published in final edited form as:

Title: Molecular Microbiology: Diagnostic Principles and Practice, 3rd

Edition

DOI: 10.1128/9781555819071

In the absence of a copyright statement, users should assume that standard copyright protection applies, unless the article contains an explicit statement to the contrary. In case of doubt, contact the journal publisher to verify the copyright status of an article.





8

9

1 "Molecular and Mass Spectrometry Detection and

2 Identification of Causative Agents of Bloodstream

3 Infections"

- 4 Onya Opota^a, Katia Jaton^a, Guy Prod'hom^a and Gilbert Greub^{ab}
- 6 Institute of Microbiology^a and Infectious Diseases Service^b, University of Lausanne and University
- 7 Hospital Center, Lausanne, Switzerland
- 10 Corresponding author:
- 11 Gilbert Greub,
- 12 Institute of Microbiology,
- 13 University of Lausanne and University Hospital Center,
- 14 Bugnon 44, 1010 Lausanne,
- 15 Switzerland.
- 16 Phone +41 (0)21 314 4979
- 17 Fax +41 (0)21 314 4060
- 18 E-mail: Gilbert.Greub@chuv.ch

Sommaire

20	ABSTRACT	4
21	INTRODUCTION	5
22	1. Bloodstream infections	5
23	2. Blood culture-based diagnosis of bloodstream infections	7
24	3. Microbial diagnosis of bloodstream infections directly from blood	8
25 26	MOLECULAR METHODS FOR THE IDENTIFICATION OF PATHOGEN FROM POSITIVE BLOOD CULTURES	10
27	Fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH)	11
28	2. Microarray	12
29	3. Nucleic acid amplification-based methods	14
30	Multiplex PCR	14
31	Rapid PCR-based systems	15
32 33	 Matrix-Assisted Laser Desorption Ionization Time-Of-Flight Mass Spectrometry (MALDI MS) 16 	-TOF
34	Principle of MALDI-TOF MS	16
35	Application of MALDI-TOF MS on positive blood culture bottle	17
36	MOLECULAR METHODS FOR THE DETECTION OF PATHOGENS DIRECTLY FROM BLO	OOD 20
37	1. Broad range PCR	21
38	2. Real-time PCR and Multiplex PCR	23
39	3. PCR-Electrospray Ionization Mass Spectrometry (PCR/ESI-MS)	29
40	Principle, characteristics and performance of PCR/ESI-MS	29
41	Application of PCR/ESI-MS to the diagnosis of BSI directly from blood	31
42 43	MOLECULAR DETECTION OF ANTIMICROBIAL RESISTANCE DURING BLOOD STREATINFECTIONS	
44	1. Rapid PCR Based-methods for resistance detection from positive blood cultures	34
45	Detection of resistance mechanisms of gram-positive bacteria	34
46	Detection of resistance mechanisms of gram-negative bacteria	36
47	2. Resistance detection from positive blood culture using MALDI-TOF MS	37
48	3. Resistance detection directly from whole blood	38
49	CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS	38
50	REFERENCES	43
51	TABLES AND FIGURES	80

ABSTRACT

5455

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

Bloodstream infections (BSI) are severe diseases associated with a high morbidity and mortality, which increases with the delay until the administration of the first appropriate antibiotic. For this reason, empirical treatments, made of broad spectrum antibiotics, are rapidly started when a BSI is suspected on the basis of the clinical and epidemiological data, but this does not exclude any risk of inappropriate initial treatment and make the microbial diagnosis crucial. The time to positivity of blood culture, currently the gold standard to establish the etiology of bloodstream infection can vary from few hours to several days and using conventional (culture-based) methods, one or more days can be necessary to determine the etiologic agent of a BSI. Recent advance in molecular biology have permit to develop new methods to accelerate the microbial diagnosis of BSI. Non-amplified nucleic acid-based methods such as fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH) or microarray can be used on positive blood culture whereas amplified nucleic acid-based methods such as (real-time) PCR or PCR-Electrospray Ionization Mass Spectrometry (PCR/ESI-MS) can be used directly on whole blood. Matrix-Assisted Laser Desorption Ionization Time-Of-Flight Mass Spectrometry (MALDI-TOF MS), based on the analysis of the mass spectrum generated by bacterial proteins can be used on positive blood culture. We will present these technologies and their performance; we will also discuss their advantages and their inconvenient as well as the question that need to be addressed to fully benefit from these new technologies.

72

73

74

75

76

INTRODUCTION

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

77

1. Bloodstream infections

Bloodstream infections (BSI) are severe diseases associated with a high morbidity and mortality, which increases with the delay until the administration of the first appropriate antibiotic (58; 82; 90; 113; 148; 149; 157; 232). For this reason, empiric treatments made of broad range anti-infectious compounds or made of a combination of antimicrobials are started immediately after the sampling of blood bottles. BSIs can be caused by various microorganisms. In the absence of microbiological documentation, a BSI is suspected by the physicians on the basis of clinical symptoms, which trigger the start of empirical treatments. The clinical presentations are multiple and include: fever or hypothermia, increases in heart rate, change in inflammatory variable (C-reactive protein, procalcitonin and white blood cell count increase), organ failure (58; 178). These symptoms are generally non specific and only suggest bloodstream dissemination. Empirical treatments are made of broad spectrum antibiotics on the basis of the clinical and epidemiological data, but this does not exclude any risk of inappropriate initial treatment. Similar to delayed introduction of the first antibiotic treatment, an inadequate treatment is associated with a significant increase of mortality (188; 265). In a recent study there was a nearly 3-fold increase in the risk of mortality when the antimicrobial treatment was inappropriate (28). Pseudomonas aeruginosa or Acinetobacter baumannii that are associated with frequent multi-drug resistant profile are often the microorganisms for which empirical antibiotic coverage are inappropriate. Enterobacteriaceae producing Extended Spectrum Beta-Lactamase (ESBL) such as Escherichia coli or producing inducible cephalosporinase such as Enterobacter cloacae, are also commonly associated with an inadequate empirical treatment (37). The mortality rate of patient suffering of a methicillin resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA)-associated BSI was significantly higher among patients receiving an inappropriate empirical antibiotic treatment (168/342, 49.1%) than among patients receiving an appropriate empirical

antibiotic treatment (56/168, 33.3%) (92; 187). Inadequate treatments can also occur for organisms such as *Enterococcus faecalis* species that are intrinsically resistant to some commonly administered first-line antibiotics such as Ceftriaxone (265). Broad-spectrum molecules also have a detrimental impact on beneficial bacteria that constitute the protective flora and contribute to the emergence of multi-drug resistant strains. Moreover, some of these antimicrobial molecules can also have a toxic effect for the patient (144; 188; 265). The rapid identification of the causative agent of the BSI thus allows the adjustment of the anti-infectious therapy or the reduction of the spectrum (de-escalation) with significant clinical benefits.

BSIs are characterized by a low quantity of circulating microbes. On the basis of plating methods, the bacterial load has been estimated to be around 1 to 10 CFU per ml of blood in adults (105; 132; 133; 243; 251). This method is efficient to determine the amount of bacteria that survived the plating protocol; hence the true number of circulating bacteria is likely underestimated. DNA copies present in the circulation should be even higher as it also includes DNA released by dead bacteria or clumping bacteria as well as DNA from bacteria engulfed in phagocytes. On the basis of quantitative PCR, Bacconi *et al.* have recently estimated that during bacteremia, the blood contains 10³ to 10⁴ bacterial cells per ml (13), which is higher than the analytic sensitivity of most of the available molecular methods.

Hence, the ideal diagnostic method for BSI should be: 1) able to identify a broad range of pathogen, 2) have an analytic sensitivity lower than 10-100 CFU/ml, 3) rapid, 4) quantitative to give an idea of the severity of the infection, 5) give an antibiotic susceptibility profile, 6) associated with low hands-on time and 7) automated (65). These are all potential characteristics that molecular diagnosis methods may fulfil, at least to some extent.

Molecular methods for the diagnosis of BSI refer to nucleic acid-based methods but also to non-nucleic acid-based. PCR based methods that constitute the nucleic acid amplification-based methods can be applied both on positive blood culture and on whole blood. Indeed the PCR step increases the sensitivity

of the detection which makes it suitable for paucibacterial samples such as blood (Figure 1)(174). Nucleic-acid based methods non amplification based such as FISH (fluorescent n situ hybridization) or microarray have limited sensitivity. Hence, they are restricted to positive blood-culture. For the same reason, MALDI-TOF MS (Matrix-Assisted Laser Desorption Ionization Time-Of-Flight Mass Spectrometry) a non-nucleic acid based method that analyse microbial protein mass-spectrum is suitable for diagnosis from positive blood-culture.

In this chapter we will present the molecular methods available for the microbial diagnosis of BSI. We will report and discuss the performance as well as the advantages and the inconvenient of these methods.

2. Blood culture-based diagnosis of bloodstream infections

Blood culture (BC) is currently the gold standard to establish the etiology of bloodstream infection. Blood bottles contain specific liquid broth for growth of bacteria or fungi present in blood. Distinct media are available to grow different microbes (174). BC-based diagnosis has been improved by the use automated incubators that can detect bacterial or fungal growth into blood bottles thanks to associated physicochemical variations. When the automated system detects the growth, visualisation of the microorganism is possible using standard Gram or fluorescent staining (figure 2). The Gram staining can give a first presumptive etiology of the BSI. However, only the final identification of the pathogen and its antibiotic susceptibility testing can insure the adequacy of the ongoing antibiotic treatment. Thus, when a blood culture is detected as positive, diagnostic laboratories have to identify the microbe rapidly and with the highest sensitivity and specificity. However, the time to positivity (TTP) of the blood-culture bottles can vary from few hours to 24-48 hours for fast growing bacteria, and even more for slow growing bacteria or fungi. In addition, it is generally admitted that more than 50% of BSI occur with negative blood culture (57; 79). When the blood culture become positive, using conventional methods, one or more days can be necessary to identify the pathogen and to determine the exact etiology of the BSI (figure 2). These methods include phenotypic characterisation using biochemical and enzymatic tests. Most of these

phenotypic characterizations require a subculture in liquid media or a subculture on solid media to obtain isolated colonies. Finally, BSI involving multiple organisms may also further increase the time to identification of most detection methods.

Inside positive BC, bacteria concentration reaches 1.10⁶ to 2.10⁸ for gram-negative cocci and 2.10⁷ to 1.10⁹ for gram-negative bacilli (42; 229). These concentrations allow the use of amplification-based methods such as PCR and real-time PCR as well as non amplification-based methods such hybridization or MALDI-TOF MS (figure 1).

Blood is a challenging sample for the detection and the identification of pathogens since it contains a low number of microorganisms in comparison to human components (DNA, proteins and cells) (175). These compounds can interfere with the detection or identification by leading to false positive or false negative (inhibition). All these components are transferred into the blood culture at time of the blood sampling. MALDI-TOF MS is a non-nucleic acid based molecular methods that has considerably accelerated and simplified the identification of pathogen from positive culture. MALDI-TOF MS is based on the analysis of the mass spectrum generated by bacterial proteins, mainly house-keeping proteins (figure 3). This technique is now applicable on positive blood culture but still requires a sample preparation step to discard blood and other non-bacterial components.

3. Microbial diagnosis of bloodstream infections directly from blood

The diagnostic of BSI directly from whole blood has been a major concern for medical diagnostic microbiologists. Indeed blood cultures appear to have some intrinsic limitations: 1) approximately fifty percent of BSI are BC negative (57; 79) and 2) in the case of positive BC, the TTP can vary from hours to days 3) BC requires a high quantity of blood that is difficult to obtain from some patients such as pediatric patients 4) an antibiotic treatment is often initiated prior to blood culture. Many technical improvements have been made to increase the performance of detection methods from whole blood but some limitations remained. Nucleic-acid based methods were limited by the need of large volume of

blood due to the low number of CFU per ml associated with the presence of human DNA in excess mainly due to white blood cells DNA (4). In addition, these methods are also sensitive to contaminant - bacterial or fungal DNA – or to the presence of DNA from dead organisms that could lead to false positive results (21; 162; 237; 238). Quantitative analyses are more powerful to interpret such positive results.

To improve the sensitivity of or nucleic acid based methods, the excess of human DNA should be removed. This could be achieved by removing white blood cells before nucleic acid extraction or by selective removal of human DNA after extraction. Nucleic acid based methods, in particular PCR, are sensitive to various inhibition mechanisms. Some of these mechanisms have been characterized but many of them remain unknown (112; 175; 195; 259). Inhibitory compounds can be contained in the sample or they can be the result of the sample preparation process. The blood contains some well known PCR inhibitors such as haemoglobin, bile salts and heme found in erythrocytes (2; 4; 111) as well as in lactoferrin found in leukocytes (4). The inhibition of PCR-based methods by these compounds is due to the release of iron (from heme) that is known to interfere with DNA synthesis (27). Immunoglobulin present in the bloodstream in particular IgG can inhibit PCR by binding single stranded DNA (3). Red blood cells present in blood bottles can also impair non-nucleic acid based methods such as MALDI-TOF MS as they bring a high amount of proteins that would interfere with the quality of the protein mass spectrum. Several protocols are now available for their removal prior MALDI-TOF MS analysis from positive blood bottles (51; 174; 253).

At present, each available molecular method is associated with a specific sample preparation. For the detection of a large number of organisms, the limited sensitivity of broad-range PCR targeting house-keeping genes have been overcame by the use of multiplex PCR or multiple real-time PCR. A recent technology, PCR/ESI-MS (PCR and Electrospray Ionization Mass Spectrometry) is a method that associates PCR and ESI-MS. The PCR allows the specific detection of low amount of bacterial, fungal or viral DNA from whole blood. This technology is associated with the analysis of PCR amplicon by ESI-

MS that determine the base composition rather than the nucleotide sequence. This has been shown to be sufficient for organism identification at the species level. Methods are now developed to remove the excess of non bacterial DNA and or inhibitors (4; 195; 202; 259). Most of these methods are time consuming, require intensive labour and are specific for one type of sample, one type of analysis or one type of device.

MOLECULAR METHODS FOR THE IDENTIFICATION OF PATHOGEN

FROM POSITIVE BLOOD CULTURES

BC is currently the reference method for the identification of pathogens involved in BSI because it is easy to perform and sensitive due to the large volume of blood that could be analysed when multiple blood bottles are collected (174). When a BC is positive, conventional methods including phenotypic characterisation and rRNA gene sequencing have an extremely high specificity. However these methods are time consuming because they require an additional subculture and are challenged by a broad variety of molecular methods. Fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH), the first molecular method that has been developed, is based on the binding of specific probes on pathogens DNA. FISH is a rapid, sensitive and specific method but is dependent on the choice of the probes to be tested. Microarrays allowed the detection and identification of pathogens as well as resistance genes. PCR-based methods allow the rapid detection of a single organism (specific real-time PCR) or multiple organisms (broad-range PCR or multiplex PCR). These methods are highly sensitive to contaminating DNA or PCR inhibitors. MALDI-TOF MS, one of the latest commercialized technologies is presented as a revolution for clinical microbiology laboratories (18). Indeed, MALDI-TOF MS may identify in less than one our most bacterial and fungal agents generally recovered from BCs.

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

1. Fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH)

Fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH) is based on the specific binding of fluorescent peptide nucleic acid probes (PNA) to the rRNA – 16S rRNA for bacteria and 18S rRNA for fungi and other eukaryotes. Basically, slides are prepared from a positive blood culture, the fluorescent PNA are applied and unbound PNA are removed by a washing step. Bound fluorescent PNA is generally observed using a fluorescent microscope as flow cytometry detection still need further investigation and development (11). FISH requires a high number of living cells which prevent its use directly on whole blood. Multiples probes that recognize microorganisms at the genus level or at the species level are available. All the solutions are based on multiple probes that detect and distinguish two or three organisms. A first kit of the PNA-FISH system (AdvanDx, Wolburn, MA) allowed the detection of S. aureus and coagulase negative staphylococci (36; 86; 93; 104; 173). A second kit allows the detection of *Enterococcus faecalis* versus Enterococcus faecium and other Enterococcus spp. (OE) (87). E. coli and P. aeruginosa can be detected using a PNA mix or using a mix of three probes that include also K. pneumoniae (183; 189; 220). C. albicans, C. glabrata, C. parapsilosis and C. krusei can also be detected (74; 100; 199; 215; 255). The Quick-FISH system is a more rapid version of the PNA-FISH system. The turnaround time (TAT) is shortened by reducing the hybridization phases to 15 min and by removing the wash step. At present, the QuickFISH system provides kits that detect and distinguish S. aureus/Coagulase negative staphylococci, Enterococcus faecalis/Enterococcus faecium, E. coli/P. aeruginosa (55; 56; 158). The diversity of microorganisms that is currently detected is still limited but these bacterial species represent about 95% of the pathogen involved in BSI. The choice of the probe to be tested will depend on the Gram result, the clinical presentation and the local epidemiology. The sensitivity of the QuickFISH system is 99.5% for the detection of S. aureus and 98.8% for coagulase negative staphylococci, with a combined specificity of 89.5% (55). Martinez et al. reported 97.9% of concordance with conventional detection methods for Gram-positive bacteria and 95.7% for gram-negative bacteria (158). Yeast (C. albicans, C. parapsilosis,

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

252

253

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

C. tropicalis, C. glabrata and C. krusei) can also be identified using probes targeting 26S rRNA sequences (74). Commercial methods give a result in 1.5 to 3 hours with high sensitivity and specificity, but could not replace other detection methods as many significant pathogens are not detected using these probes (table 2) (31; 87; 158; 242).

2. Microarray

Microarrays are based on species-specific or genus-specific DNA probes immobilized on chip on which microorganisms DNA will specifically hybridize. The high-density of the chips allow the use of sequences specific for different pathogens and probes for the detection of virulence factors and/or resistance genes. Species identification is determined by the pattern of hybridization and on the intensity of the signal (47; 179; 254; 264). The analytic sensitivity of microarrays ranges between 10 to 10⁵ CFU/ml depending on the pathogen, which allows their use from positive BC but not directly from blood (254). The Verigene Gram-Positive Blood Culture system and the Verigene gram-negative Blood Culture system (Northbrook, IL, USA) can detect gram-negative or gram-negative microorganisms respectively, as well as associated resistance genes. The time to identification is approximately 2.5 h from positive blood culture bottles (table 2). After being extracted from 350 µl of blood culture from positive vial, the bacterial DNA is suspended in a specific buffer and hybridized on specific synthetic oligonucleotides followed by a second hybridization step involve gold particles. The signal is further amplified via a silver staining process which increases the sensitivity of the system. The reading is automated. The Verigene Gram-Positive Blood Culture system can detect 9 organisms at the species level (Staphylococcus aureus, Staphylococcus epidermidis, Staphylococcus lugdunensis, Streptococcus anginosus group, Streptococcus agalactiae, Streptococcus pneumoniae, Streptococcus pyogenes, Enterococcus faecalis and Enterococcus faecium), 4 genus (Staphylococcus spp., Streptococcus spp., Micrococcus spp. and Listeria spp.) and detect 3 resistance genes (mecA (methicillin), vanA (vancomycin) and vanB (vancomycin). Studies performed on both adult and pediatric patients reported 89.7% to 99% of concordance for the detection

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

from positive BC between the Verigene Gram-Positive Blood Culture system and the traditional method (5; 14; 158; 165; 206; 227; 258). Misidentifications have been reported for Streptococcus spp.. In particular group mitis Streptococcus spp. have been misidentified with S. pneumoniae and S. oralis have been misidentified with S. anginosus (206). Performances of the Verigene system are higher on monobacterial samples. Mixed culture can prevent the identification of one of the pathogen. Buchan et al reported 98.6% of sensitivity and 94.3% of specificity for the detection of the mecA gene in 5999 Staphylococci cultures, and 100% of sensitivity and specificity for the detection the vanA gene in 81 cultures containing Enterococcus faecalis and Enterococcus faecium (26). Samuel et al reported 91% of concordance for mecA and 100% for vanA detection when compared to routine methods (206). In case of mixed population of staphylococci, the resistance gene cannot be associated to a specific pathogen (26). The Verigene Gram-Negative can detect 5 pathogens at the species level (Escherichia coli, Klebsiella pneumoniae, Klebsiella oxytoca, Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Serratia marcescens) and 4 genus (Acinetobacter spp., Citrobacter spp., Enterobacter spp., and Proteus spp.). The Verigene Gram Negative BC assay displays 91 to 100% of agreement for the detection of gram negative pathogens both from adult and pediatric patients (17; 60; 108; 155; 226). Among, the false-negative results, mixed blood cultures have been incriminated; but some of these negative or non called results involved bacteria covered by the chip (60). As for many molecular assays, it is not possible to distinguish E. coli and Shigella spp. (S. dysenteriae, S. flexneri, S. boydii, and S. sonnei). This distinction should be achieved with enzymatic analysis. The Verigene Gram Negative assay can detect 6 resistance genes: the extended-spectrum betalactamase (ESBL) CTX-M and the carbapenemases KPC, NDM, VIM, IMP and OXA groups with 92.3% to 100% of concordance with routine methods (60; 234). Other microarrays for the detection of resistance gene are currently being developed (24).

The performances of microarrays are extremely high for both the detection of pathogen and resistance cassettes when applied to positive blood cultures but supported by a limited number of studies.

3. Nucleic acid amplification-based methods

PCR provide a rapid and specific technology for pathogen identification from positive BC (260). The specificity provided initially by the use of specific primers can be increased in the case of real time PCR, by the use of specific probes. The use of PCR on blood or on hemorrhagic samples, was limited for long-time by the fact that PCR is sensitive to the presence of inhibitory compounds such as haemoglobin contained in erythrocytes (2; 4; 111), lactoferrin contained in leukocytes (4), or immunoglobulin (3). To avoid inhibition, recent methods use new or improved nucleic acid extraction and/or amplification techniques.

Multiplex-PCR increases the time to result as it interrogates several targets (pathogens or resistance genes) at the same time. In addition it can increase both the specificity and the sensitivity of an analysis thanks to the use of multiple targets for the same organism (120; 223). Multiplexing is achieved through the use of several specific primers pairs in the same reaction. Different methods can be applied to identify the amplified sequence(s): 1) the use of specific probes labelled with distinct fluorochromes, 2) the analysis of the probe or the amplification melting curves (69; 72; 257); 3) the amplicon size (electrophoreses); 4) the sequencing of the amplification product. The latest technology, PCR/ESI-MS, is based on the analysis of the amplicon by MS (Figure 5). The latter technique will be discussed in depth in the paragraph on pathogen detection from blood.

Multiplex PCR

The FilmArray system (Idaho Technology, Salt Lake City, UT, USA) using multiple-PCR is a solution that allows the identification of more than 25 pathogens and 4 antibiotic resistance genes from positive BC in 1 h (19). The FilmArray is a closed system that uses multiple-PCR expected to identify 90 to 95% of the pathogens involved in BSI as well as the resistance genes mecA, vanA and vanB and bla_{KPC} . A kit

for the identification of potential bioterrorism agent (*Bacillus anthracis*, *Francisella tularensis* and *Yersinia pestis*) is also available (249).

In a prospective study on 102 blood cultures, the FilmArray system displayed 91% of sensitivity and 77% of specificity when compared to conventional identification methods for the detection of pathogen present in the FilmArray panel only (19). The detection of resistance genes revealed 100% of specificity and 100% of sensitivity in this study. In another study, FilmArray displayed 98.5% of sensitivity and 100% of specificity for the identification of gram-negative bacteria, 96.7% of sensitivity and 93.7% of specificity form gram-negative bacteria and 96% of sensitivity and 98.9% of specificity for the detection of the *mecA* gene. Another study performed on 118 mono-bacterial culture reported 92% of correct identification of the FilmArray system, but mixed cultures gave no results (17). The identification of *Candida albicans* and *Candida glabrata* reached 100% of sensitivity and 99.5% of specificity (6). This is consistent with other study showing high performance of the FilmArray for the identification *C. albicans* and *C. glabrata* (181). The FilmArray can also be applied on other sterile samples such as CSF (184).

Rapid PCR-based systems

The clinical and epidemiological impact of pathogens such as methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) or rifampicin resistance *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* has contributed to the development of methods for the rapid detection of resistance. *S. aureus* is a significant agent of community-acquired and nosocomial infections (256). The mortality rate is increased in patient infected with MRSA in comparison to patient infected with MSSA (methicillin sensitive *S. aureus*) (49; 50; 263). The increased percentage of MRSA in comparison to MSSA has stressed the importance of rapid detections methods of MRSA (71; 77; 169; 170). Several methods based on multiplex real-time PCR are available: the GeneXpert MRSA/SA BC Assay (Cepheid, Sunnyvale, CA) (45; 221), the StaphSR assay (BD GeneOhm, San Diego, CA) (117; 222) and the StaphPlex (Genaco Biomedical Products, Huntsville, AL, USA) (230). The GeneXpert and StaphSR assay are rapid PCR-based systems developed for the detection of *S. aureus*

only in approximately 1.5 h. They require only limited hands-on time and skills. The application of the GeneXpert MRSA on positive blood culture was shown to have an impact on anti-infectious treatments by reducing the use of glycopeptides (46). Alternatively, the StaphPlex system can identify several staphylococci at the species level. The StaphPlex system is based on several PCRs (18 target genes) and microarray analysis for the identification of staphylococci at the species-level, the detection of resistance genes and of the Panton-Valentine leukocidin (PVL). The results are obtained within 5 hours (230). Because these methods are largely aimed to detect resistance genes, they will be presented and discussed in the chapter dedicated to resistance detection.

4. Matrix-Assisted Laser Desorption Ionization Time-Of-Flight Mass Spectrometry (MALDI-TOF MS)

Principle of MALDI-TOF MS

The MALDI-TOF MS (Matrix-Assisted Laser Desorption Ionization Time-Of-Flight Mass Spectrometry) is a method that allows identification of a broad range of microbes at the species or at the genus level from positive culture. The method was first developed to be used on colonies before its application on BC. Microbe identification using MALDI-TOF MS is based on the analysis of the mass spectrum generated by bacterial or fungal component, mainly house-keeping proteins (the ribosomal proteins which are basic are specifically extracted using acidic matrix). This spectrum is a unique fingerprint for each microorganism but displays features shared between genetically related bacteria (44). The comparison of the spectrum with a database of spectrum obtained for characterized organisms allow microbes identification at the species or at the genus level depending of a score assigned by the identification software (52).

MALDI-TOF MS was first used for bacterial identification in 1975 (8). The routine use of mass spectrometry in diagnostic laboratory for the identification of bacteria was proposed in 1996 when correct

Identification has been achieved directly from whole bacteria coming from single colonies (44; 110). Identification of bacteria using the MALDI-TOF MS is divided in three steps: (1) ionization of the sample, (2) separation of proteins in a flight tube (3) generation of a mass spectrum by determination of the mass of the proteins (figure 3). The sample preparation consists in mixing the cells from a bacterial colony, with a crystallizing matrix that will trigger the ionization of the sample achieved by a laser (MALDI). Protein accessibility can be facilitated by a quick formic acid extraction. Ionized proteins are accelerated by an electrostatic field and separated along a flight tube. The separation is due to the time of flight (TOF), a function of the mass and of the charge of the proteins. Protein detections will generate a mass spectrum unique for a defined bacterial strain corresponding to mass-to-charge ratio (m/z) between 1000 and 20000 kDa. However, several peaks are shared between bacteria from the same genus or species and serve as biomarkers for bacterial identification. The identification is performed by comparison of the mass spectrum with a database of spectra obtained from characterized bacterial strains. The software that performed the spectral analysis and the comparison with the database, assign a score for the identification. Depending on the threshold recommended by the furnisher and the in-house algorithm, the identification can be rejected, or accepted either at the species level or only at the genus level.

Application of MALDI-TOF MS on positive blood culture bottle

In clinical microbiology, the MALDI-TOF MS was first used on pure bacterial colonies before its application on positive BC for the diagnostic of BSI (figure 3) (52). The initial analysis on a positive blood culture bottle is a Gram staining. The Gram staining is especially recommended 1) to confirm that the detection is truly due to the presence of a microorganism and 2) give a presumptive etiology of the BSI and 3) to disclose mixed bacteremia. In positive blood cultures, the bacterial concentration is ranging from 10⁶ to 10⁹ CFU/ml, which in theory is sufficient for MALDI-TOF MS identification. However, the presence of high amount of non bacterial material (erythrocytes, nutrient from the growth media) impairs the direct identification from the blood vial.

Application of MALDI-TOF MS after a short subculture

A short subculture (2 to 3 hours) on agar plates can be performed from the positive blood vial to obtain a thin layer of bacteria (174). From this thin layer, the MALDI-TOF MS analysis can be performed (figure 2) (116; 239). Short subcultures are also adequate for AST using automated systems (116). However, this procedure is mainly suitable for fast growing bacteria.

Application of MALDI-TOF MS directly from the blood culture vial via a bacterial pellet

The fasted method is to perform the identification directly from the positive BC (figure 2 and figure 3). The goal is to get rid of non bacterial components present in the bottles such as red blood cells and to concentrate the bacteria. Bacterial concentration can be achieved by centrifugation and erythrocyte lysis by ammonium chloride (51; 193). This generates a pellet that can be identified by MALDI-TOF MS (figure 3). This method allowed the identification of 78.7% of the samples obtained. Moreover, 99% of the MALDI-TOF MS identifications were correct at the species level (193). Alternative erythrocytes lysis techniques can be achieved with formic acid (136). Any methods implying mild detergent that would solubilise erythrocytes membrane but not microbe membrane lead to similar results (83; 163; 168). Alternatively, gel-based separator tubes have proven efficiency in concentrating bacteria and removing red blood cells (224).

MALDI-TOF MS has a major impact on the time to result since it can be achieved directly from positive blood culture, without subculture (61). The sample processing and identification using MALDI-TOF MS takes approximately 1 hour, which makes it time effective for fast growing bacteria as well (136; 193).

The accuracy of the MALDI-TOF MS identification is dependent on extended and correct spectrum database. This database can be implemented with spectrum obtained from clinical isolates. This is applicable for strains for which the MS identification failed and that were identified without any doubt with other methods such as gene sequencing or enzymatic assay. This is also applicable for rare

pathogens that can be identified faster and accurately using MALDI-TOF MS (176; 213). However, some closely related bacterial species such as the different *Streptococcus* species remain difficult to distinguish using MALDI-TOF MS. For instance, group mitis *Streptococcus* are often misidentified as *S. pneumoniae*. *S. pneumoniae* identification should thus be confirmed by phenotypic test such as optochine susceptibility (126; 224; 227). Similarly, the distinction of *E. coli* and *Shigella* sp. is impossible using routine MALDI-TOF MS procedures and requires additional phenotypic confirmation (59; 210). Recently, a new approach based on the analysis of biomarker peaks has been proposed to differentiate these two closely related pathogens (128).

Efficiency and reproducibility of MALDI-TOF MS identification

Even if a mass spectrum can be obtained from a single colony, this biomass represents a significant amount of bacteria. MALDI-TOF MS identification is therefore not applicable directly from blood but is dependent on microorganisms proliferation in BC and on an additional concentration step from the positive BC (174). The requirement of a culture limits the use of the MALDI-TOF for the detection of non-cultivable bacteria.

Proteins used as biomarkers for MALDI-TOF MS identification of bacteria are mainly involved in house-keeping functions (246). Ribosomal proteins contribute to approximately half of the peaks present in the mass spectrum (10; 201). This makes it reproducible and robust as several peaks would be conserved in genetically related bacteria. Nevertheless, experimental conditions can impact the presence and the relative abundance of detected peaks. This is true for both routine identification or for the implementation of the peaks pattern into the in-house database. The culture media, the growth conditions and the age of the colony may impact the spectrum (235). The presence of agar residue or blood proteins in the sample may impact the spectrum quality (52). Quality of the matrix may also influence the spectrum (246).

Importance of the Gram staining and of the subculture

The Gram staining on positive blood culture is still mandatory (i) to confirm the presence of a microbe in the bottles (ii) to validate the identification of the MALDI-TOF MS, which should be congruent with the characteristic provided by the Gram (88) (iii) to disclose polymicrobial infections as the MALDI-TOF MS poorly identify mixed bacterial samples. Mixed infection may also be detected upon subculture, which also remains essential for the antimicrobial susceptibility testing (see later).

MOLECULAR METHODS FOR THE DETECTION OF PATHOGENS

DIRECTLY FROM BLOOD

BSI is initially suspected by clinicians on the basis of clinical signs and symptoms. At this stage the etiological agent is however difficult to suspect as the clinical presentation is generally similar. To accelerate the time to result of microbial diagnosis, molecular methods that can be used directly on whole blood have been proposed. Nevertheless, blood as sample presented many technical limitations: 1) the low quantity of circulating microbes during BSI (1 to 10 CFU per ml), 2) the presence of PCR inhibitor in blood that are not completely removed by current nucleic acid extraction methods (*see Introduction section*), 3) the sensitivity of PCR to contamination; which implies the use of highly pure (nucleic acid free) material and ideally to perform quantitative analyses (211), 4) the ability of PCRs to detect the presence of DNA from both living and dead microbes which makes the interpretation of positive results difficult (BSI *versus* DNAemia and 5) the presence of human DNA in excess.

Different PCR technologies are now available. Broad-range PCRs could be useful, especially when the etiological agent cannot be suspected, but they are often limited by lower sensitivity. Pathogen specific PCRs display higher sensitivity. Real-time PCRs can be multiplexed to detect several targets at the same

time with a good sensitivity. A recent innovation that can also be use directly on whole blood is PCR-ESI-MS that is presented as a universal and fast method.

1. Broad range PCR

The need for a PCR-based universal detection method is stressed by the importance of rapid diagnostic in the setting of critically-ill patients, especially since the etiology of the BSI is difficult to establish on the basis of the clinical presentations. This is the case for neonate patients with the additional difficulty that only small volumes of blood are available, which decreases significantly the sensitivity of BC. Alternatively, such universal and sensitive methods may be used to screen blood samples taken from neutropenic patients or other high risk subjects to early detect the etiological agent of a BSI.

The 16S rRNA gene that displays sufficient level of conservation among bacterial species is the target of in-house PCRs used in many molecular diagnostic laboratories (12; 40; 41; 43; 94). In many organisms, the ribosomal operon is present in multiple copies which increases the sensitivity of PCRs targeting this genomic region. The intergenic spacer is more polymorphic and more species specific. Specific PCR primers are designed on conserved regions that surround highly variable region. Thus, the sequencing of the amplicon allows the identification of the microbe at the genius or at species level. Most of these PCR cannot be used directly on blood because of their limited sensitivity and specificity. However, some studies have reported sensitivity of PCR targeting the 16S rRNA gene ranging from 10 to 2.5.10² CFU per reaction directly from blood (131; 191). Gaibani *et al* have developed a broad-range real-time PCR that targets a 97 base pair sequence of the 23S rRNA gene. This PCR is expected to detect 90% of the bacteria involved in BSI but does not give any identification, since the short fragments amplified do not allow discrimination upon sequencing (89). This real-time PCR can be used on whole blood (100 μl). Its sensitivity is ranging from 10 to 10³ CFU per reactions for *E. coli* and *S. aureus*, depending on the extraction method.

475

476

477

478

479

480

481

482

483

484

485

486

487

488

489

490

491

492

493

494

495

496

497

498

The SepsiTest system (Molzym, Bremen, Germany) is based on broad-range PCR using universal primers that target the 16S rRNA gene for bacterial identification and the 18S rRNA for fungal identification. The amplicon are sequenced and analysed by BLAST to give identification at the species level (=> 99% of identity) or genus level (=> 97%) (134; 250). Of course this cut-off does not apply to all bacterial species and should be used with caution. The analysis is achieved from 1ml of whole blood. After lysis of human cells, the human DNA is degraded by a DNAse. The PCR is achieved using reagent provided by the manufacturer and lead to amplicon of about 450 base pairs. The time to result is approximately 6 hours. Depending on the study, the sensitivity and specificity are variable when compared to BC. A first study performed in critically-ill patients led to 28.6% of sensitivity and 85.3% of specificity of the SepsiTest when BC is used as gold standard (145; 212). In a second study, pathogen could be detected in 26 % (13/50) of the critically-ill patients while SepsiTest could detect pathogens in only 12 % of the patients (212). In a third study, still using BC as gold standard, SepsiTest sensitivity was 21% and specificity was 96% (152). In contrast, high sensitivity and acceptable specificity (87% and 85.5%) was monitored in a multicenter study involving 342 blood samples from 187 patients (250). In a study performed on patients supported by extracorporeal membrane oxygenation, the sensitivity and specificity were 78.6 % and 88.4 % when compared to BC with 97.7% of concordance of positive results (177; 200). In this study, SepsiTest could detect at least a pathogen in 25% of patients with negative BC. For patient with suspected endocarditis, Kuhn et al. reported higher performances of SepsiTest over BC (134). The variable sensitivity and specificity of the SepsiTest when compared to BC needs to be investigated. One specific feature of SepsiTest is that it can be used on sterile samples other than blood with the potential to replace home-made broad-range PCR (96; 200). A limitation of this method is that the extraction is not automated (99). Another important limitation of all these molecular tests is that they do not provide strain for detailed antibiotic susceptibility testing.

The VYOO system (SIRS-Lab, Jena, Germany) is based on multiplex PCRs that can detect 34 bacteria and 7 fungi from 5 ml of whole blood. The system contains several steps, including non-automated steps.

Nucleic acid extraction is assisted by magnetic beads. Then there is a step of enrichment in microbial DNA based on i) the methylation difference between microbes (bacteria and fungi) DNA and the human DNA and ii) the use of chromatography affinity (202). The PCR is achieved on DNA which concentration has to be manually adjusted to 1 µg in 25ul. Two PCRs with a specific pool of primers are required. The amplicons are applied to an electrophoresis in an ethidium bromide stained agarose gel. Pathogen identification is determined on the basis of the band pattern.

In a study performed on 311 blood samples from 245 patients of an ICU of a university hospital analysed in parallel with BC and with the VYOO system, the VYOO system gave 30.1% of positive samples, with a median time to result of 24.2 hours and BC bottle gave 14.5% of positive samples with a median time to positivity of 68 hours with only 40% of correlation between the two methods (22). PCR positive samples correlated well with the level of procalcitonin. Additionally the PCR results from blood were most of the time confirmed by the pathogen identified in the suspected site of infection. Importantly 34% of the patients with positive VYOO test, the anti-infectious therapy was inadequate, including infections that involved VRE, multi-drug resistant staphylococci and fungi (22). In another study, the VYOO gave positive results in 51.4% of samples from patient with BSI, when BC gave 27.7% of positive results (84).

These studies suggest that VYOO is more sensitive than BC, which could be explained by the association of a large starting volume (5 ml) and the enrichment in microbial DNA before amplification. More studies are required but these preliminary performances are promising despite the fact that many steps are not yet automated and that.

2. Real-time PCR and Multiplex PCR

The multiplexing of real-time PCRs allows detecting simultaneously several microbes with a good sensitivity and specificity. This is the technology used for the LightCycler SeptiFast system (Roche Molecular System, Germany), the MagicPlex Sepsis system (Seegene, Seoul, Korea).

524

525

526

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

545

546

Principle of the LightCycler SeptiFast system

The LightCycler SeptiFast system is based on broad-range real-time PCR that can identify 19 pathogens (8 gram-negative bacteria, 6 gram-negative bacteria and 5 fungi) representing approximately 90% of the pathogen responsible for BSI. The SeptiFast can be used directly from whole blood with an overall time to result of about 5 hours (3.5 when associated to an automated extraction system). The targets of the multiplexed broad-range real-time PCR are the internal transcribed spacer (ITS) between the 16S and the 23S ribosomal DNA for bacteria and the ITS between the 18S and the 5.8S ribosomal DNA for fungi. Identification at the species level is determined by the distinct melting curves of the specific probes. The LightCycler can detect 8 gram-negative bacteria detected: E. coli, Klebsiella pneumonia/ Klebsiella oxytoca, Enterobacter cloacae/ Enterobacter aerogenes species, Proteus mirabilis, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Acinetobacter baumannii, Stenotrophomonas maltophilia. Six Gram-positive bacteria can be recognized: S. aureus, coagulase negative staphylococci, Streptococcus pneumoniae, Streptococcus pyogenes, Streptococcus agalactiae / Streptococcus mitis, Enterococcus faecium and Enterococcus faecalis. Six fungi can be detected and identified at the species level: Candida albicans, Candida tropicalis, Candida parapsilosis, Candida glabrata, Candida krusei and Aspergillus fumigatus. Basically, the assay consists of three separated reactions that contain distinct primers and probes mixes to detect respectively gram-negative bacteria, gram-negative bacteria and fungi. The LightCycler SeptiFast is designed for the analysis of 1.5 ml of blood on which a mechanic cell lysis is achieved with the SeptiFast Lys KIT MGRADE and the MagNALyser from Roche diagnostic prior DNA extraction using also a commercial kit provided by the same manufacturer. The assay contains an internal control that consist of a synthetic double-strand DNA, similar to the expected amplicon but with a distinct probe binding site. The analytic sensitivity is ranging from 3 to 30 CFU/ml for bacteria and is 100 CFU/ml for fungi (34; 252). The experimental sensitivity (42.9% to 95%) and specificity (60% to 100%) of the SeptiFast are variable depending on the studies and on the patients characteristics (table 1) (21; 35).

548

549

550

551

552

553

554

555

556

557

558

559

560

561

562

563

564

565

566

567

568

Diagnosis of Infection in febrile neutropenia using the LightCycler SeptiFast

From a group of 86 febrile neutropenic patients representing 141 episodes of fever, BC and SeptiFast detected approximately the same number of microorganisms: 44/141 (31.2 %) and 42/141 (29.8%), respectively. However, the association of BC and SeptiFast increases the rate of documentation from about 30% to 43% (61/141) which might be due to the fact that only 12 organisms where detected by both BC and SeptiFast (139). A similar observation was made by Mancini et al. on a study performed on 103 samples from neutropenic patient with haematological diseases in which 20.4% of the samples were positive with BC and 33% using SeptiFast, with only 83% of correlation between the two methods (154). For Bravo et al., the agreement between BC and SeptiFast was 69% for neutropenic patients and 75% for patients from the intensive care unit (25). All these studies suggest that SeptiFast cannot replace BC but that the two techniques could be complementary (98; 139; 154; 161). Lamoth and colleagues suggested that the low sensitivity of SeptiFast was due i) to organisms absent from the SeptiFast analytic spectrum (40% of false negative) and ii) to the cut-off that decrease the sensitivity for the detection of coagulase negative staphylococci or for streptococci and increased the rate of false negative (139). False negative results obtained for gram-negative cocci might also be explained by the inefficient lysis of these microorganisms (182) or to PCR inhibition in the case of high bacterial load. The adjustment of the experimental procedure and an adequate cut-off might increase the performance of the SeptiFast assay for neutropenic patients (139; 182). In a context of persistent fever, SeptiFast identified new pathogens in 89% of the cases whereas BC identifies 8% of the pathogens (139). Similar results were obtains by von Lilienfeld-Toal et al. (241). In this study all the patients with a probable fungal infection had positive SeptiFast results for Aspergillus fumigatus. This suggests a potential added value of the SeptiFast assay for the detection of fungemia in neutropenic patients (35; 139; 154; 180; 241).

Diagnosis of infectious endocarditis

A study performed on 63 patients with suspected endocarditis revealed a low sensitivity of the SeptiFast when compared to BC (34). Among 19 patients with positive blood culture at their admission, SeptiFast detected 8 bacteria (41% of sensitivity). Twenty-two patients had positive blood culture before their admission but because of efficient antibiotic treatment they had negative blood culture at the time of this study. Among them, SeptiFast detected only 3 bacteria (3/22) (34). In this study, SeptiFast did not detect any microbes for patients without any etiology (100% of specificity) (34). Because the low sensitivity of the SeptiFast was not due to pathogens that are not detected by this system, it could be due as discussed later to a low bacterial load. In another study involving 20 patients with endocarditis, SeptiFast performed on excised cardiac valves, displayed a higher sensitivity (95%), and specificity (100%) than culture (sensitivity 15% and specificity 100%) (81; 147). In patient with suspicion of *Candida* spp. endocarditis, SeptiFast was as sensitive as BC to detect fungal infection (141).

Diagnosis of neonatal sepsis

In a study performed on 1,673 pediatric samples (803 children), the detection rate of infection was higher with the SeptiFast (14.6%) than with BC (10.3%) which corresponded to a sensitivity of 85.0% and a specificity of 93.5% of the SeptiFast (153). The cumulative positive rate of BC and SeptiFast was 16.5%. Another study confirmed a higher sensitivity but a lower specificity of SeptiFast for the detection of lateonset neonatal sepsis (127).

Advantages and inconvenient of the LightCycler SeptiFast system

The performances of the SeptiFast are variable depending on the studies. The overall sensitivity of the SeptiFast is not higher than the sensitivity of BC but together SeptiFast and blood culture increase the rate of microbial documentation of BSI. This suggests that the SeptiFast cannot replace blood cultures but that these two methods are complementary. One of the major advantage of the SeptiFast is the time to result

(<5hours). In a study performed on 114 consecutive patients with clinical evidence of sepsis the mean time to results for SeptiFast was less than 8 hours when BC mean time to positive result was 3.5 days and for negative result 5 days (218). In a study performed on patients of the emergency department with suspected sepsis, Schaub *et al.* Reported a median time to positivity of BC of 16 hours (without the organism identification) (209). SeptiFast might be useful in case of a persistent bacteremia, for instance in neutropenic patient with persistent fever, for which SeptiFast often identified additional pathogens. There are a high number of studies on the performance of the SeptiFast. However, there is a need of interventional studies to clearly determine the clinical impact of this new technology.

One of the limits of the SeptiFast is also the absence of exact quantification. Cut-off can be used for the interpretation of streptococci and coagulase negative staphylococci positive results in particular. This is expected to reduce the number of false positive results but might prevent the detection of low grade infections. In some studies performed in neutropenic patients, the sensitivity of SeptiFast for the detection of coagulase negative streptococci is decreased, which could be due to the fact that the cut-off were established for non-neutropenic patients. In contrast in pediatric studies SeptiFast leads to increasing number of false positive due to coagulase streptococci. Adding quantitative data to the SeptiFast has the potential to predict the severity of the sepsis (266).

The HACEK group of fastidious bacteria (*Haemophilus*, *Actinobacillus*, *Cardiobacterium*, *Eikenella* and *Kingella*) involved in a significant number of blood culture-negative bacteremia is not covered by the SeptiFast. For this reason SeptiFast is not sufficient by itself to diagnose all the bacteremia and alternative methods will still be required to cover the entire bacterial kingdom. Finally, in the context of an increasing number of multi-drug resistance organisms, it is a limitation that SeptiFast does not provide any data on the resistance profile of identified organisms excepted for MRSA but using an additional kit (table 1).

616

617

618

619

620

621

622

623

624

625

626

627

628

629

630

631

632

633

634

The MagicPlex Sepsis system

The MagicPlex Sepsis system (Seegene, Seoul, Korea) is based on multiplexed real-time PCRs that can detect 90 pathogens at the genus level, 25 at the species level (19 bacteria and 6 fungi), and the resistance genes mecA, vanA and vanB directly from whole blood (1 ml). A specific nucleic acid extraction kit is used to enrich in microbial DNA. A first amplification is a screening that provides either (i) an amplicon bank that consists of gram-negative bacteria and fungi or (ii) an amplicon bank that consists of gramnegative bacteria (n=73) and resistance genes conferring resistance to methicillin (mecA) or vancomycin (vanA and vanB). A second step is a screening for bacteria and fungi at the genus level and for the presence of resistance genes (time to result 5 hours). The performance of the MagicPlex system was compared to BC on 267 patients from the intensive careunit, from the haematology department and from the emergency department of a tertiary hospital, which revealed an agreement between the two methods of 73 % with no statistical difference between their sensitivity (30). For patient with antibiotic treatment, the sensitivity of the MagicPlex 65% was lower than the sensitivity of BC (71%); specificity was respectively 92% and 88% for each method. Another study performed on 140 patients with suspected BSI reported 37% of sensitivity and 77% of specificity of the MagicPlex when considering BC as gold standard (152). Additional studies are required to determine the exact potential of this device. This method is limited by the number of pathogen detected at the species level and by the absence of quantification. Another limitation is the absence of automation and the need of a specific extraction method which might makes it

difficult to integrate in an automated molecular diagnostic laboratory.

635

636

638

639

640

641

642

643

644

645

646

647

648

649

650

651

652

653

654

655

656

657

658

659

3. PCR-Electrospray Ionization Mass Spectrometry (PCR/ESI-MS)

Principle, characteristics and performance of PCR/ESI-MS

PCR-Electrospray Ionization Mass Spectrometry (PCR/ESI-MS) is a technology that was initially developed to face bioterrorism threats or to run public health investigations. The aim was to provide a rapid method for the detection and identification of pathogens from various type of sample. The technology had to detect low quantity of a given pathogen even in polymicrobial samples and should include the detection of non cultivable or fastidious microorganisms. In addition, the technology should be able to detect known microorganisms as well as yet unknown pathogen. Molecular diagnosis was chosen as it is fast and broad range. The PCR/ESI-MS approach is based (i) on the amplification of microorganisms DNA by multiple PCRs and (ii) on the identification of the organism(s) at the species or genus level through the analysis of the amplicon by ESI-MS (Electrospray Ionization Mass Spectrometry) (65; 123). Basically, PCR/ESI-MS consists in 5 steps: 1) extraction of the microorganism or sample DNA, 2) amplification of the DNA using multiple pairs of primers, 3) precise determination of the molecular mass of the amplicon(s) using ESI-MS, 4) deduction of the base composition of the amplicon(s) from the exact MW of the amplicon 5) identification of the pathogen(s) by integrating the informations obtained from several amplicon(s) (figure 4) (66; 123). Before being applied to blood (see next paragraph) PCR/ESI-MS was first applied on bacterial colonies and on environmental samples. Practically, DNA amplification is based on multiple broad-range PCRs, which is more sensitive, than a single broad-range PCR based on degenerated primers. The primers are targeting conserved genomic region surrounding polymorphic regions (for instance DNA regions encoding for the 16S or the 23S rRNA). Moreover, these PCRs are devoid of fluorescent dye or probes, which allows high-level of multiplexing. DNA amplification may be performed in 96 well plate using the

661

662

663

664

665

666

667

668

669

670

671

672

673

674

675

676

677

678

679

680

681

682

683

684

following steps: 1) 95°C for 10 min, 2) 8 cycles of 95°C for 30 s, 48°C increasing of 0.9°C at each cycles for 30 s and 72°C for 30 s 3) 37 cycles of 95°C for 15 s, 56°C for 20 s, and 72°C for 20 s 4) final extension of 2 min at 72°C and hold at 4°C hold (73). Major innovation of PCR/ESI-MS is that the pathogen's identification relies only on the base composition (A, C, G and T) of the amplicons (65; 123). The base composition is obtained by the integration of the exact mass of the amplicon, the length of the amplicon, the mass of each base and the complementarily rules of DNA (figure 4). The choice of the PCR targets makes the base composition of one or more amplicon(s) sufficient for pathogen identification. The absence of Sanger sequencing dramatically reduces the time to result(s). Thus, ESI-MS provides the base composition of an amplicon in about 1 minute, the mass of the amplicon being determined by the time of flight (TOF). The base composition of the amplicon(s) is compared to a database providing the identification at the genus or at the species level with a score of probability (Qscore) inferred by an ESI-MS triangulation software relying on multiple amplified regions. The Q-score integrates multiples parameters such as the number of primer pairs that gave an amplicon, the number of potential microorganism, the proximity of the base compositions to reference matches in the database. A set of 9 pairs of primers is used for the coverage of the bacteria kingdom. Four pairs are necessary for Candida species. Four additional pairs of primers have been designed to detect the resistance cassettes mecA, bla_{KPC}, vanA and vanB. Using clinical samples (up to 1.25 ml) other than blood, PCR/ESI-MS displays good sensitivity and specificity. This includes environmental samples as well as clinical samples such as CSF (75; 76; 171) and respiratory tract samples (64; 91; 119). Compared to culture the PCR/ESI-MS correctly identified 95.6% and 81.3% of the strains at genus level and species levels respectively. Among 395 respiratory samples, PCR/ESI-MS displayed 67.6% of agreement at the genus level and 66.6% at the species level with culture. PCR/ESI-MS was able to identify fungi in 20.3% (35/172) of the respiratory specimens with a negative culture suggesting a better sensitivity than culture (217). A commercial kit available for the detection of viruses (38; 39; 48; 107; 135; 142; 185; 228; 231) has been shown to display higher performance than real-time PCR and microarrays (228). PCR/ESI-MS have also

been successful at identifying *Mycobacterium* species at the species level and at determining associated resistance genes using a panel of 8 PCRs (138; 160; 245).

Thus, PCR/ESI-MS represents a universal method that may be applied to bacteria, viruses and fungi and that is expected to also identify any unknown species. Indeed, when primers are designed to identify all known members of characterized groups, they allow the detection of unknown or new emerging pathogens from these groups (138; 203; 204). This provides a potential for the rapid detection of emerging pathogens. In addition, PCR/ESI-MS can detect and identify all different pathogens present in polymicrobial samples with quantitative results. This method can also be used on formalin or paraffin embedded tissue (216).

Finally, PCR/ESI-MS has been extensively used for genotyping and serotyping of bacteria and viruses because of its accuracy to detect single nucleotides variations, which represents a tool for health care epidemiological investigation or outbreak follow-up.(23; 62-64; 67; 101; 102; 159; 190; 207; 214; 245; 262). Such an accuracy of the PCR/ESI-MS naturally relies on a representative database and on its maintenance.

Application of PCR/ESI-MS to the diagnosis of BSI directly from blood

The first instrument that was developed was the TIGER (Triangulation Identification for the Genetic Evaluation of Risk) that allowed the detection of specific organisms even in polymicrobial samples (204). The Ibis T5000 instrument, the first commercial version of TIGER could identify up to 800 pathogens from whole blood (65; 261). When compared to blood culture, PCR/ESI-MS applied on 1 ml of whole blood displayed 50% of efficiency. A second commercial version, namely the PLEX-ID (Abbott), using up to 1.25 ml of blood, has been developed displaying good sensitivity and specificity on most of the samples which includes environmental samples as well as clinical samples such as CSF and sputum as said above (15; 38; 76; 91; 138). The first procedure of the PLEX-ID for whole blood consisted of a mechanic cell lysis, using beads, facilitated by the addition of proteinase K, SDS and eating at 56°C.

710

711

712

713

714

715

716

717

718

719

720

721

722

723

724

725

726

727

728

729

730

731

732

733

734

DNA purification was then achieved with magnetic silica beads and eluted in 250 ul of water at 70°C (137). The PCR is based on 9 pairs of primers for bacteria detection, 4 pairs for *Candida* species and 4 pairs for detection of resistance cassettes (mecA, bla_{KPC} , vanA, vanB). One additional pair of primer corresponds to the extraction control. The PLEX-ID gave 78.6% of agreement with blood culture over 906 specimens taken from adult and pediatric patients (464 with positive blood culture and 442 with negative blood cultures). While 33 culture negative specimens were PLEX-ID positive, 97 culture positive specimens were PLEX-ID negative (137). In this study the estimated sensitivities of PCR/ESI-MS was 85.9% when the estimated sensitivity of BC was 41.2%. To further increase the sensitivity of the detection directly from whole blood a second version of the PLEX-ID that could analyse up to 5 ml of blood has been developed. In this version, the increased sample volume was associated with a DNA extraction method and PCR conditions optimized for whole blood samples (13). Practically, 5 ml of whole blood were lysed in presence of 665 µl of a commercial buffer (100 mM Tris solution containing guanidinium thiocyanate and detergent), 145 µl of BSA 10% containing a pumpkin DNA extraction control), and yttria-stabilized zirconium oxide beads (166). After the removal of lysed red-blood cells by centrifugation the nucleic acid were extracted from the supernatant using silica-coated magnetic beads. Thirty microliters of the eluate were used for the PCR with 25 µl of PCR master mix containing the pool of primers pairs (137). Rather than trying to remove the excess of human DNA, PCR conditions were defined in the context of high concentration of human DNA. This was achieved by testing multiple PCR conditions by modulating Mg²⁺, primers and polymerase concentration and annealing temperature in the presence of 12 µg of human DNA (13; 73). In this background, high primers concentration (750 µM) together with high polymerase concentration (2.2 units per reaction) resulted in a PCR yield of 86% of the yield when 1 µg human DNA was present. Modulating Mg²⁺ concentration or the annealing temperature had only a weak impact on the PCR yield. This procedure was then evaluated in a prospective study involving 331 patients with suspected BSI (13). For each patient 2 blood bottles (one aerobic and one anaerobic) were inoculated with 5 ml of whole blood and an additional blood sample was collected for PCR/ESI-MS analysis from the same venipuncture (137). The PCR/ESI-MS displayed 83% of sensitivity

736

737

738

739

740

741

742

743

744

745

746

747

748

749

750

751

752

753

754

755

756

757

758

759

and 94% of specificity as compared to BC. Interestingly, this corresponded to 35 positive specimens (10.6%) by PCR/ESI-MS and 18 positive by culture (5.4%). In the absence of any method to investigate the discrepant results, a second aliquot was analysed using PCR/ESI-MS, which confirmed almost all the identifications and increased the sensitivity of PCR/ESI-MS to 91% and the specificity to 99%, were (13). The limit of detection of the PCR/ESI-MS method developed by Bacconi et al. is 16 CFU per mL for S. aureus, K. pneumoniae and E. faecium, and 4 CFU per mL for C. albicans. It is generally admitted, based on plating methods, that the number of bacteria circulating during BSI is between 1 and 10 CFU per ml (105; 132; 133; 243; 251). The analysis of the data from the literature performed by Bacconi and colleagues estimated that the amount of bacterial DNA in blood during a BSI vary between 103 to 104 genomes copies per ml (13). This difference could be due to the fact that plating methods reflect the number of cells that survive the procedure rather than the number of circulating cells. Molecular diagnosis directly from blood could detect also free DNA, DNA resulting from dead bacterial cells and bacterial DNA present within phagocytes, which may explain the high performance of the PLEX-ID on whole blood. However, this extremely high sensitivity may lead to contamination by DNA. For this reason, the use of ultra-clean reagents associated with molecular biology laboratory practices is mandatory. PCR/ESI-MS is also a promising tool for the diagnostic of blood culture negative BSI. Indeed, among 464 patients with positive blood cultures and 442 patients with negative blood culture, 33 culture negative cases were detected positive by PCR/ESI-MS and these cases were demonstrated to be true BSI based on the analysis of the clinical presentation (137). Using primers and probe specific of *Ehrlichia chaffeensis* targeting the 16S gene and a genus specific set of primers and probes Eshoo and colleagues reported 18.8% of PCR/ESI-MS positive specimen of whole blood among 213 blood samples from patients with suspicion of ehrlichiosis (73). From the same pool of specimen, PCR/ESI-MS identified Rickettsia

PCR/ESI-MS was designed to detect all pathogens present in a mixed microorganism populations (118; 205). This is also true for polymicrobial blood culture since PCR/ESI-MS could identify 29 bottles with

rickettsii from 4 samples and Neisseria meningitidis from one samples.

mixed populations out of 234 positive BC bottles (125). A quantitative analysis performed using an internal control helps at (i) interpreting results for polymicrobial samples and (ii) identifying true positive versus contaminating organisms (137). Further studies are required to determine if the quantification could also help at defining the severity of the infection.

In conclusion, the PLEX-ID, which provides reliable results in less than 6 hours, is a versatile system that may be directly used on blood starting from 5 ml of samples and that represents a complementary approach to blood cultures.

MOLECULAR DETECTION OF ANTIMICROBIAL RESISTANCE

DURING BLOOD STREAM INFECTIONS

BSI is characterised by a high level of morbidity and mortality that increases with the delay in the introduction of an efficient anti-infectious therapy (58; 82; 90; 113; 148; 149; 157; 232). The rapid identification of the pathogen gives a first indication on the effectiveness of the empiric therapy. However, rapid information on the resistance profile of the agent of a BSI, would allow to better adjust the empirical treatment.

1. Rapid PCR Based-methods for resistance detection from positive blood cultures

Detection of resistance mechanisms of gram-positive bacteria

Staphylococcus aureus is a significant agent of both community-acquired infections and nosocomial infections (256). In recent years, it has been observed an alarming increase of the percentage of methicillin resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA) a drug resistant pathogen associated with significant increase of the mortality (49; 50; 169; 170; 263), which explains that many rapid methods are now

781 available to simultaneously identify S. aureus and detect the mecA gene associated with methicillin resistant (table 1) (71; 77). 782 783 The GeneXpert MRSA/SA BC Assay (Cepheid, Sunnyvale, CA) is a good example of such dual detection 784 method based on real-time PCR for the identification of S. aureus and the detection of the mecA gene. 785 The analysis may be performed directly from positive BC in about 1 hour and was validated both in adult 786 and pediatric patients with BC positive for gram-negative cocci in cluster with 100% of sensitive and 99.5 787 to 100 % of specificity (45; 221). The GeneXpert MRSA/SA BC Assay dramatically reduced the time to 788 detection of S. aureus and has an impact on the detection of MRSA (figure 2) (45; 54; 140; 208). 789 Also based on real-time PCR, another rapid PCR-based assay, the StaphSR assay (BD GeneOhm, San 790 Diego, CA), can identify and differentiate methicillin-susceptible S. aureus (MSSA) and methicillin-791 resistant S. aureus (MRSA) from positive blood cultures in about 1.5 h with an analytical sensitivity of 15 DNA copies per reaction mixture which correspond to 10³ DNA copies per ml (117; 222). The assay was 792 793 validated on BC with a predominance of gram-negative cocci in cluster showing 95.6% -100% of 794 sensitivity and 95.3% - 98.4% specificity for the detection of MRSA (97; 130; 140; 222). Discrepant 795 results are mainly explained by mixed culture or inhibition of the PCR. Negative MRSA detection is also 796 due to MREJ variants that contain the staphylococcal cassette chromosome mec (SCCmec) without the 797 mecA gene (219). 798 The StaphPlex system (Genaco Biomedical Products, Huntsville, AL, USA) is based on multiple PCRs 799 (18 target genes) and microarray analysis for the identification of staphylococci at species-level, for the 800 detection of resistance genes and for the detection of the Panton-Valentine leukocidin (PVL) with a time 801 to result of about 5 hours. The overall accuracy for the detection of staphylococci at the species level from 802 mono-bacterial or poly-bacterial culture was 91.7% when compared to conventional methods (230). The 803 StaphPlex exhibited 100% of sensitivity and 95.5% to 100.0% of specificity for the detection of the mecA 804 gene. Similar results were obtained for the detection of the PVL gene (230).

The FilmArray (Idaho Technology, Salt Lake City, UT, USA) is another PCR-based system that can detect the *S. aureus mecA* gene as well as the *vanA* and *vanB* genes implicated in vancomycin resistance in *Enterococcus* species (16; 192). The FilmArray system exhibits a high sensitivity and specificity (100%) for the detection of the *mecA* gene from *S. aureus* positive culture with (16; 19; 196). Another study reported 96% of sensitivity and 98.9% of specificity for the detection of the *mecA* gene (6). For the detection of the *vanA* and *vanB* genes in *Enterococcus spp.*, Blasche *et al.* reported only 85% of specificity of the FilmArray system when compared to BC (19). In this study, the FilmArray detected a *van* gene in 2 *Enterococcus* strains that where found vancomycin sensitive by culture based methods. The second strain was actually an *Enterococcus casseliflavus* strain bearing the *vanC* gene. During the development of the system, more resistance markers have been successfully tested (19).

The microarray of the Verigene gram-negative system (Northbrook, IL, USA) includes probes for the detection of the *mecA* gene with 98.6% of sensitivity and 94.3% of specificity (26). This system also contains probes for the detection of VRE with 100% of sensitivity and specificity in a prospective study from positive BC (26).

The major weakness of the nucleic acid methods is to assign the resistance gene to the correct microorganism in the case of mixed cultures. This is particularly limiting for the detection of the *mecA* gene in a mix culture of *S. aureus* that would contain contaminating coagulase negative staphylococci for instance (26).

Detection of resistance mechanisms of gram-negative bacteria

Gram-negative bacteria can exhibit resistance mechanisms to multiple antibiotics, representing a major problem for the treatment of infections. In particular *Enterobacteriaceae* have developed multiple resistance mechanisms to cephalosporins, such as ESBL. This had presented the carbapenem as alternative for the treatments of severe infections involving *Enterobacteriaceae* and non-fermentative bacteria such as *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Acinetobacter baumannii*. However, resistance to

carbapenem may also occur. It might be caused by a reduced permeability with loss of porins, by the over-expression of efflux pumps or alternatively by the production of carbapenem degrading enzymes, namely carbapenemases. The emergence of carbapenem resistance strains and their spread worldwide is alarming both from a therapeutic point of view and from an epidemiological point of view. Nucleic acid detection systems are focusing on the bla_{KPC} gene that encode for K. pneumoniae carbapenemase. This is the case of the FilmArray system that includes primers targeting the bla_{KPC} gene (6; 17; 19; 196) and the Verigene gram-negative system that contain probes for the detection of the bla_{KPC} (17). More studies involving KPC positive strains are needed to determine the sensitivity and specificity of these systems. Moreover, future tools should aim at detecting a broader range of genes encoding SBL and/or carbapenemases.

2. Resistance detection from positive blood culture using MALDI-TOF MS

The use of the MALDI-TOF MS for the detection of resistant strains was first proposed for the distinction between MRSA and MSSA colonies (68). However, recent developments are mainly directed toward gram-negative bacteria in which The MALDI-TOF MS may detect antibiotics degrading proteins such as carbapenemases. Practically a bacterial inoculum is incubated with ertapenem. The MALDI-TOF MS analysis performed on the supernatant is used to determine the shift of two specific peaks associated with the degradation of the carbapenem. This method has been validated on bacterial colonies with 100% of sensitivity and 100% of specific for the detection of carbapenemase producing strains (240). Carvalhaes and colleagues have proposed a method to be used directly from bacterial pellet obtain from positive BC, which is able to identify 72.4% (21/29) of the carbapenemase-producing isolates after 4 h of incubation (33). MALDI-TOF MS represents an alternative for the detection of carbapenemase from positive BC that has the advantage, over PCR, to provide a phenotypic result.

3. Resistance detection directly from whole blood

As said earlier, the detection of resistance genes directly from blood would considerably impact the choice of the therapy. Four primer set of the PLEX-ID system are used to detect the resistance cassettes mecA, vanA and vanB and bla_{KPC} , (70; 247). It has to be noted that the PLEX-ID system can also detect the presence of the S. aureus Panton-Valentine leukocidin toxin (PVL) (247). PCR/ESI-MS was also shown to be successful at identifying the mutations in gyrA and parC genes involved in Acinetobacter baumannii resistance to quinolones (114; 115). In the case of mixed population, quantitative analysis could help at associating a resistance gene to the corresponding pathogen. The MagicPlex system can detect three resistance markers (mecA, vanA, vanB) directly from blood (152). From their study, Carrara $et\ al$. failed to detect six MRSA strains out of ten using the MagicPlex system (30). The VYOO system can detect five resistance genes: mecA, vanA, vanB β -lactamase bla_{SHV} , β -lactamase bla_{CTX-M} . However there is a lack of studies reporting the sensitivity of this method. Finally, the SeptiFast system contains primers for the detection of mecA only (table 1).

Although molecular methods have the ability to detect some resistance genes, more studies are required to determine their performances and their clinical impact. In addition, increasing the number of available resistance markers would be an advantage.

CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Nucleic acid methods have succeeded to overcome most of the obstacle that limited the sensitivity of the detection of pathogen from blood containing sample. The sensitivity and specificity are now adequate for the use in diagnostic laboratory.

One major problem for the determination of the performances of new molecular methods is the fact that BC associated with traditional identification methods remains the gold-standard. In this context, many assays display extremely high analytic sensitivity but limited apparent specificity due to a limited correlation with BC. This could be overcome by the use of other evaluation methods to challenge BC. In their study, Bacconi and colleagues showed that 16S sequencing is not an appropriate method to be used as reference for the evaluation of PCR/ESI-MS. Indeed, only 2 of the 35 samples positive using the PCR/ESI-MS were found positive by 16S sequencing when the sequencing was performed on the same material. Thus one of the limits to develop new methods for the diagnostic of BSI is that blood culture remains the gold standard (13). To compare the performance of blood culture and other methods, clinical presentations and local epidemiology should be taken into account in order to properly investigate discrepant results (13; 137). Nevertheless the poor correlation between conventional BC-based methods and some new molecular methods suggest that different pathogens are detected by these two methods and that these diagnostic tools should be complementary. Moreover BC could not be replaced since the availability of a strain in pure culture is mandatory to precisely test antibiotic susceptibility of bacteria.

Although new molecular methods are really appealing, further studies are still needed to determine their impact on the management of patients with BSI (175). For instance, there is a lack of study that addresses the impact on antibiotic stewardship. While most of the studies try to give with precision the performances of the new molecular methods, it is not yet clear how these methods can be integrated in a molecular laboratory. This is particularly true as none of the method would replace BC. Some practical details have to be investigated. Thus, the number of samples, the number of venipuncture and the frequency of the sampling for molecular diagnostic has to be addressed. Otherwise, informations (routinely provided by the BC) on the likelihood of an infection (such as a possible catheter infection) versus a contamination would be missing.

Molecular methods can also be helpful for organisms that are phenotypically closely related or for rare organisms. However, because some genetically closely related organisms cannot be discriminated on the

basis of molecular methods such as *E. coli/Shigella* (59; 210) or group mitis streptococci/*Streptococcus pneumoniae* (126; 224; 227), phenotypic distinction methods remain crucial. In the same manner the accuracy of many molecular methods is based on their databases, which have to be maintained by adding nucleic acid sequences or mass-spectrum obtained for new clinical isolates or rare organisms. For nucleic acid methods, it is also crucial to achieve a follow-up of the emergence of SNP or mutations (insertion/deletion) that could affect the hybridization of specific primers and probes. One solution would be to rely on multiple targets (sequence or gene) for the identification of a given organism (120; 222).

As already stressed earlier the Gram staining remains mandatory for BC based methods since (i) it can help at disclosing poly-microbial infection, (ii) it serves as a quality control and (iii) it sometimes helps identification thanks to specific phenotypic traits. Nevertheless the presence of a single morphotype on the Gram staining, does not exclude the presence of multiple organisms, since *Enterobacteriaceae* often exhibit a similar Gram staining morphotype.

Regarding poly-microbial identification, the quantification provided by some nucleic-acids based methods, can be helpful at determining the significance of the respective organisms. Another research focus is the attempt to provide clinical scores that would predict the severity of bacteremia (78; 195). The time to positivity of blood BC has been proposed as a criterion for BSI severity (7; 113; 129). Similarly, quantification could provide some insight on the severity of the BSI. Thus, analysis of 250 whole-blood samples from 20 adult patients (13 survivors and 7 nonsurvivors) with culture-proven MRSA showed that the levels of *mecA* DNA was higher in the nonsurvivors (5.48 copies/ml) than in the survivors (4.58 log copies/ml P= 0.003, two-tailed Mann-Whitney U test). This suggested that the level of *mecA* DNA in blood could potentially be used to monitor MRSA bacteremia and evaluate responses to therapy (109). Similarly a positive correlation has been found between the level of *Streptococcus pneumoniae* DNA monitored by real-time PCR and the need of mechanical ventilation, the risk of septic shock and of death (32; 198). Another study performed with the SeptiFast on 94 patients reported that the median cycle threshold (Ct) value was 16.9 for patients with severe septic choc and 20.9 for patients with non-severe

sepsis and that Ct value <17.5 correlated with more positive blood culture and longer hospital stays (80; 266).

The quantification can also help at identifying the presence of a contaminant. In this context, the threshold of the quantitative results becomes an important parameter to limit the number of false positive and false negative results. Molecular solutions devoid of quantitative or at least semi-quantitative analysis will render the interpretation of the positive results difficult. The interpretation of poly-microbial detection as well as mono-bacterial ones is facilitated by the fact that PCR/ESI-MS gives is a quantitative analysis performed using an internal control. This can also helps at identifying true positive versus contaminating organisms (137) and at determining the relevance of each pathogen for mixed infections (75). Further studies are required to determine if the quantification could also help at defining the severity of the infection.

Regarding persisting bacteremia in the context of an ongoing treatment, molecular methods have been able to rapidly detect new organisms that BC could not detect. However, nucleic-acid methods are not adequate for the follow-up of persistent infections because they can detect the persistence of DNA from dead organisms rather than true persisting organism. Therefore, many methods are now being developed to detect only DNA from living organisms (1; 172). This could be of particular interest to monitor the efficiency of an antibiotic treatment (29; 248).

Indication on the presence of resistance genes is an important added value of some molecular methods being especially helpful at identifying risk of treatment failure. Development should focus in the integration of more molecular markers. Molecular diagnosis may also detect the presence of virulence genes, which helps predicting the severity of infection. Thus the StaphPlex system helps identifying staphylococci at the species-level and detect resistance genes as well as the Panton-Valentine leukocidin (PVL), excellent sensitivity (100%) and specificity (>95.5%) (230).

In conclusion, molecular diagnosis has significantly improved the diagnosis of BSI due to the reduction of the time to result and to the high sensitivity and specificity. In particular the MALDI-TOF MS is a revolution for the diagnosis of BSI from positive BC. To impact the management of patients suffering of BSIs, microbiologist and clinicians should imagine new laboratories and algorithms that associate these new culture-independent and culture dependant molecular methods with conventional methods in the aim to get the benefits from both diagnosis methods.

REFERENCES

954	1.	Aellen S, Que YA, Guignard B, Haenni M, Moreillon P. 2006. Detection of live and antibiotic-

- killed bacteria by quantitative real-time PCR of specific fragments of rRNA. Antimicrobial
- 956 agents and chemotherapy 50:1913-20
- 957 2. Akane A, Matsubara K, Nakamura H, Takahashi S, Kimura K. 1994. Identification of the heme
- compound copurified with deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) from bloodstains, a major inhibitor of
- polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification. *Journal of forensic sciences* 39:362-72
- 960 3. Al-Soud WA, Jonsson LJ, Radstrom P. 2000. Identification and characterization of
- 961 immunoglobulin G in blood as a major inhibitor of diagnostic PCR. Journal of clinical
- 962 *microbiology* 38:345-50
- 963 4. Al-Soud WA, Radstrom P. 2001. Purification and characterization of PCR-inhibitory components
- 964 in blood cells. *Journal of clinical microbiology* 39:485-93
- 965 5. Alby K, Daniels LM, Weber DJ, Miller MB. 2013. Development of a treatment algorithm for
- 966 streptococci and enterococci from positive blood cultures identified with the Verigene Gram-
- 967 positive blood culture assay. *Journal of clinical microbiology* 51:3869-71
- 968 6. Altun O, Almuhayawi M, Ullberg M, Ozenci V. 2013. Clinical evaluation of the FilmArray blood
- 969 culture identification panel in identification of bacteria and yeasts from positive blood culture
- 970 bottles. *Journal of clinical microbiology* 51:4130-6
- 971 7. Alvarez R, Vinas-Castillo L, Lepe-Jimenez JA, Garcia-Cabrera E, Cisneros-Herreros JM. 2012.
- Time to positivity of blood culture association with clinical presentation, prognosis and ESBL-
- 973 production in Escherichia coli bacteremia. European journal of clinical microbiology &
- 974 infectious diseases 31:2191-5

- 975 8. Anhalt JP, Fenselau C. 1975. Identification of bacteria using mass spectrometry. *Anal. Chem* 976 47:219–25
- 977 9. Arbique JC, Poyart C, Trieu-Cuot P, Quesne G, Carvalho Mda G, et al. 2004. Accuracy of 978 phenotypic and genotypic testing for identification of Streptococcus pneumoniae and description 979 of Streptococcus pseudopneumoniae sp. nov. *Journal of clinical microbiology* 42:4686-96
- 980 10. Arnold RJ, Karty JA, Ellington AD, Reilly JP. 1999. Monitoring the growth of a bacteria culture 981 by MALDI-MS of whole cells. *Analytical chemistry* 71:1990-6
- Azevedo NF, Jardim T, Almeida C, Cerqueira L, Almeida AJ, et al. 2011. Application of flow cytometry for the identification of Staphylococcus epidermidis by peptide nucleic acid fluorescence in situ hybridization (PNA FISH) in blood samples. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* 100:463-70
- 986 12. Bacchetti De Gregoris T, Aldred N, Clare AS, Burgess JG. 2011. Improvement of phylum- and class-specific primers for real-time PCR quantification of bacterial taxa. *Journal of microbiological methods* 86:351-6
- 989 13. Bacconi A, Richmond GS, Baroldi MA, Laffler TG, Blyn LB, et al. 2014. Improved Sensitivity 990 for Molecular Detection of Bacteria and Candida in Blood. *Journal of clinical microbiology*
- 991 14. Beal SG, Ciurca J, Smith G, John J, Lee F, et al. 2013. Evaluation of the nanosphere verigene 992 gram-positive blood culture assay with the VersaTREK blood culture system and assessment of 993 possible impact on selected patients. *Journal of clinical microbiology* 51:3988-92
- 994 15. Bhatia NS, Farrell JJ, Sampath R, Ranken R, Rounds MA, et al. 2012. Identification of
 995 Streptococcus intermedius central nervous system infection by use of PCR and electrospray
 996 ionization mass spectrometry. *Journal of clinical microbiology* 50:4160-2

997 16. Bhatti MM, Boonlayangoor S, Beavis KG, Tesic V. 2014. Evaluation of FilmArray and Verigene 998 Systems for Rapid Identification of Positive Blood Cultures. Journal of clinical microbiology 999 52:3433-6 1000 17. Bhatti MM, Boonlayangoor S, Beavis KG, Tesic V. 2014. Evaluation of FilmArray and Verigene 1001 Systems in the Rapid Identification of Positive Blood Cultures. Journal of clinical microbiology 1002 18. Bizzini A, Greub G. 2010. Matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization time-of-flight mass 1003 spectrometry, a revolution in clinical microbial identification. Clinical microbiology and infection 1004 16:1614-9 1005 19. Blaschke AJ, Heyrend C, Byington CL, Fisher MA, Barker E, et al. 2012. Rapid identification of 1006 pathogens from positive blood cultures by multiplex polymerase chain reaction using the 1007 FilmArray system. Diagnostic microbiology and infectious disease 74:349-55 1008 20. Bloos F, Bayer O, Sachse S, Straube E, Reinhart K, Kortgen A. 2013. Attributable costs of 1009 patients with candidemia and potential implications of polymerase chain reaction-based pathogen 1010 detection on antifungal therapy in patients with sepsis. Journal of critical care 28:2-8 1011 21. Bloos F, Hinder F, Becker K, Sachse S, Mekontso Dessap A, et al. 2010. A multicenter trial to 1012 compare blood culture with polymerase chain reaction in severe human sepsis. *Intensive care* 1013 medicine 36:241-7 1014 22. Bloos F, Sachse S, Kortgen A, Pletz MW, Lehmann M, et al. 2012. Evaluation of a polymerase 1015 chain reaction assay for pathogen detection in septic patients under routine condition: an

observational study. PloS one 7:e46003

1017	23.	Blyn LB, Hall TA, Libby B, Ranken R, Sampath R, et al. 2008. Rapid detection and molecular
1018		serotyping of adenovirus by use of PCR followed by electrospray ionization mass spectrometry
1019		Journal of clinical microbiology 46:644-51
1020	24.	Braun SD, Monecke S, Thurmer A, Ruppelt A, Makarewicz O, et al. 2014. Rapid identification of
1021		carbapenemase genes in gram-negative bacteria with an oligonucleotide microarray-based assay
1022		PloS one 9:e102232
1023	25.	Bravo D, Blanquer J, Tormo M, Aguilar G, Borras R, et al. 2011. Diagnostic accuracy and
1024		potential clinical value of the LightCycler SeptiFast assay in the management of bloodstream
1025		infections occurring in neutropenic and critically ill patients. International journal of infectious
1026		diseases : IJID 15:e326-31
1027	26.	Buchan BW, Ginocchio CC, Manii R, Cavagnolo R, Pancholi P, et al. 2013. Multiplex
1028		identification of gram-positive bacteria and resistance determinants directly from positive blood
1029		culture broths: evaluation of an automated microarray-based nucleic acid test. PLoS medicine
1030		10:e1001478
1031	27.	Byrnes JJ, Downey KM, Esserman L, So AG. 1975. Mechanism of hemin inhibition of erythroid
1032		cytoplasmic DNA polymerase. Biochemistry 14:796-9
1033	28.	Cain SE, Kohn J, Bookstaver PB, Albrecht H, Al-Hasan MN. 2015. Stratification of the impact of
1034		inappropriate empirical antimicrobial therapy for gram-negative bloodstream infections by
1035		predicted prognosis. Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy 59:245-50
1036	29.	Cangelosi GA, Meschke JS. 2014. Dead or Alive: Molecular Assessment of Microbial Viability

Applied and environmental microbiology

- 1038 30. Carrara L, Navarro F, Turbau M, Seres M, Moran I, et al. 2013. Molecular diagnosis of 1039 bloodstream infections with a new dual-priming oligonucleotide-based multiplex PCR assay. 1040 Journal of medical microbiology 62:1673-9 1041 31. Carretto E, Bardaro M, Russello G, Mirra M, Zuelli C, Barbarini D. 2013. Comparison of the 1042 Staphylococcus QuickFISH BC test with the tube coagulase test performed on positive blood 1043 cultures for evaluation and application in a clinical routine setting. Journal of clinical 1044 microbiology 51:131-5 1045 32. Carrol ED, Guiver M, Nkhoma S, Mankhambo LA, Marsh J, et al. 2007. High pneumococcal 1046 DNA loads are associated with mortality in Malawian children with invasive pneumococcal 1047 disease. The Pediatric infectious disease journal 26:416-22 1048 33. Carvalhaes CG, Cayo R, Visconde MF, Barone T, Frigatto EA, et al. 2014. Detection of 1049 carbapenemase activity directly from blood culture vials using MALDI-TOF MS: a quick answer 1050 for the right decision. The Journal of antimicrobial chemotherapy 69:2132-6 1051 34. Casalta JP, Gouriet F, Roux V, Thuny F, Habib G, Raoult D. 2009. Evaluation of the LightCycler 1052 SeptiFast test in the rapid etiologic diagnostic of infectious endocarditis. European journal of 1053 clinical microbiology & infectious diseases 28:569-73 1054 35. Chang SS, Hsieh WH, Liu TS, Lee SH, Wang CH, et al. 2013. Multiplex PCR system for rapid 1055 detection of pathogens in patients with presumed sepsis - a systemic review and meta-analysis. 1056 PloS one 8:e62323
- 1057 36. Chapin K, Musgnug M. 2003. Evaluation of three rapid methods for the direct identification of Staphylococcus aureus from positive blood cultures. *Journal of clinical microbiology* 41:4324-7

- 1059 37. Chaubey VP, Pitout JD, Dalton B, Ross T, Church DL, et al. 2010. Clinical outcome of empiric antimicrobial therapy of bacteremia due to extended-spectrum beta-lactamase producing Escherichia coli and Klebsiella pneumoniae. *BMC research notes* 3:116
- 1062 38. Chen J, Fu Y, Ju L, Miao X, Shen Y, et al. 2014. Detection and identification of viral pathogens 1063 in patients with hand, foot, and mouth disease by multilocus PCR, reverse-transcription PCR and 1064 electrospray ionization mass spectrometry. *Journal of clinical virology*59:115-9
- 1065 39. Chen KF, Rothman RE, Ramachandran P, Blyn L, Sampath R, et al. 2011. Rapid identification viruses from nasal pharyngeal aspirates in acute viral respiratory infections by RT-PCR and electrospray ionization mass spectrometry. *Journal of virological methods* 173:60-6
- 1068 40. Cherkaoui A, Ceroni D, Emonet S, Lefevre Y, Schrenzel J. 2009. Molecular diagnosis of
 1069 Kingella kingae osteoarticular infections by specific real-time PCR assay. *Journal of medical*1070 microbiology 58:65-8
- 1071 41. Cherkaoui A, Emonet S, Ceroni D, Candolfi B, Hibbs J, et al. 2009. Development and validation
 1072 of a modified broad-range 16S rDNA PCR for diagnostic purposes in clinical microbiology.

 1073 *Journal of microbiological methods* 79:227-31
- 1074 42. Christner M, Rohde H, Wolters M, Sobottka I, Wegscheider K, Aepfelbacher M. 2010. Rapid
 1075 identification of bacteria from positive blood culture bottles by use of matrix-assisted laser
 1076 desorption-ionization time of flight mass spectrometry fingerprinting. *Journal of clinical*1077 *microbiology* 48:1584-91
- 1078 43. Clarridge JE, 3rd. 2004. Impact of 16S rRNA gene sequence analysis for identification of bacteria 1079 on clinical microbiology and infectious diseases. *Clinical microbiology reviews* 17:840-62, table 1080 of contents

- 1081 44. Claydon MA, Davey SN, Edwards-Jones V, Gordon DB. 1996. The rapid identification of intact

 1082 microorganisms using mass spectrometry. *Nature biotechnology* 14:1584-6
- 1083 45. Clerc O, Prod'hom G, Senn L, Jaton K, Zanetti G, et al. 2014. Matrix-assisted laser desorption 1084 ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometry and PCR-based rapid diagnosis of Staphylococcus 1085 aureus bacteraemia. *Clinical microbiology and infection* 20:355-60
- 1086 46. Clerc O, Prod'hom G, Vogne C, Bizzini A, Calandra T, Greub G. 2013. Impact of matrix-assisted
 1087 laser desorption ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometry on the clinical management of
 1088 patients with Gram-negative bacteremia: a prospective observational study. *Clinical infectious*1089 diseases 56:1101-7
- 1090 47. Cleven BE, Palka-Santini M, Gielen J, Meembor S, Kronke M, Krut O. 2006. Identification and characterization of bacterial pathogens causing bloodstream infections by DNA microarray.

 1092 *Journal of clinical microbiology* 44:2389-97
- 1093 48. Cordey S, Thomas Y, Suter P, Kaiser L. 2012. Pilot Evaluation of RT-PCR/Electrospray
 1094 Ionization Mass Spectrometry (PLEX-ID/Flu assay) on Influenza-Positive Specimens. *The open*1095 *virology journal* 6:64-7
- 1096 49. Cosgrove SE, Qi Y, Kaye KS, Harbarth S, Karchmer AW, Carmeli Y. 2005. The impact of methicillin resistance in Staphylococcus aureus bacteremia on patient outcomes: mortality, length of stay, and hospital charges. *Infection control and hospital epidemiology: the official journal of the Society of Hospital Epidemiologists of America* 26:166-74
- 1100 50. Cosgrove SE, Sakoulas G, Perencevich EN, Schwaber MJ, Karchmer AW, Carmeli Y. 2003.

 1101 Comparison of mortality associated with methicillin-resistant and methicillin-susceptible

 1102 Staphylococcus aureus bacteremia: a meta-analysis. *Clinical infectious diseases* 36:53-9

- 1103 Croxatto A, Prod'hom G, Durussel C, Greub G. 2014. Preparation of a blood culture pellet for 51. 1104 rapid bacterial identification and antibiotic susceptibility testing. Journal of visualized 1105 experiments: JoVE 1106 52. Croxatto A, Prod'hom G, Greub G. 2012. Applications of MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry in 1107 clinical diagnostic microbiology. FEMS microbiology reviews 36:380-407 1108 53. Dark P, Wilson C, Blackwood B, McAuley DF, Perkins GD, et al. 2012. Accuracy of 1109 LightCycler(R) SeptiFast for the detection and identification of pathogens in the blood of patients 1110 with suspected sepsis: a systematic review protocol. BMJ open 2:e000392 1111 Davies J, Gordon CL, Tong SY, Baird RW, Davis JS. 2012. Impact of results of a rapid 54. 1112 Staphylococcus aureus diagnostic test on prescribing of antibiotics for patients with clustered 1113 gram-positive cocci in blood cultures. Journal of clinical microbiology 50:2056-8 1114 55. Deck MK, Anderson ES, Buckner RJ, Colasante G, Coull JM, et al. 2012. Multicenter evaluation 1115 of the Staphylococcus QuickFISH method for simultaneous identification of Staphylococcus 1116 aureus and coagulase-negative staphylococci directly from blood culture bottles in less than 30 1117 minutes. Journal of clinical microbiology 50:1994-8 1118 56. Deck MK, Anderson ES, Buckner RJ, Colasante G, Davis TE, et al. 2014. Rapid detection of 1119 Enterococcus spp. direct from blood culture bottles using Enterococcus QuickFISH method: a 1120 multicenter investigation. Diagnostic microbiology and infectious disease 78:338-42 1121 57. Dellinger RP, Levy MM, Carlet JM, Bion J, Parker MM, et al. 2008. Surviving Sepsis Campaign:
- international guidelines for management of severe sepsis and septic shock: 2008. *Intensive care medicine* 34:17-60

1144

1124 Dellinger RP, Levy MM, Rhodes A, Annane D, Gerlach H, et al. 2013. Surviving sepsis 58. 1125 campaign: international guidelines for management of severe sepsis and septic shock: 2012. 1126 Critical care medicine 41:580-637 1127 59. Deng J, Fu L, Wang R, Yu N, Ding X, et al. 2014. Comparison of MALDI-TOF MS, gene 1128 sequencing and the Vitek 2 for identification of seventy-three clinical isolates of enteropathogens. 1129 Journal of thoracic disease 6:539-44 1130 60. Dodemont M, De Mendonca R, Nonhoff C, Roisin S, Denis O. 2014. Performance of the 1131 verigene gram-negative blood culture assay for rapid detection of bacteria and resistance 1132 determinants. Journal of clinical microbiology 52:3085-7 1133 61. Drancourt M. 2010. Detection of microorganisms in blood specimens using matrix-assisted laser 1134 desorption ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometry: a review. Clinical microbiology and 1135 infection 16:1620-5 1136 62. Duncan DD, Vogler AJ, Wolcott MJ, Li F, Sarovich DS, et al. 2013. Identification and typing of 1137 Francisella tularensis with a highly automated genotyping assay. Letters in applied microbiology 1138 56:128-34 1139 63. Ecker DJ, Massire C, Blyn LB, Hofstadler SA, Hannis JC, et al. 2009. Molecular genotyping of 1140 microbes by multilocus PCR and mass spectrometry: a new tool for hospital infection control and 1141 public health surveillance. Methods in molecular biology 551:71-87 1142 64. Ecker DJ, Sampath R, Blyn LB, Eshoo MW, Ivy C, et al. 2005. Rapid identification and strain-

typing of respiratory pathogens for epidemic surveillance. Proceedings of the National Academy

of Sciences of the United States of America 102:8012-7

- 1145 65. Ecker DJ, Sampath R, Li H, Massire C, Matthews HE, et al. 2010. New technology for rapid
- molecular diagnosis of bloodstream infections. Expert review of molecular diagnostics 10:399-
- 1147 415
- 1148 66. Ecker DJ, Sampath R, Massire C, Blyn LB, Hall TA, et al. 2008. Ibis T5000: a universal
- biosensor approach for microbiology. *Nature reviews. Microbiology* 6:553-8
- 1150 67. Ecker JA, Massire C, Hall TA, Ranken R, Pennella TT, et al. 2006. Identification of
- Acinetobacter species and genotyping of Acinetobacter baumannii by multilocus PCR and mass
- spectrometry. *Journal of clinical microbiology* 44:2921-32
- 1153 68. Edwards-Jones V, Claydon MA, Evason DJ, Walker J, Fox AJ, Gordon DB. 2000. Rapid
- discrimination between methicillin-sensitive and methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus by
- intact cell mass spectrometry. *Journal of medical microbiology* 49:295-300
- Elenitoba-Johnson KS, Bohling SD, Wittwer CT, King TC. 2001. Multiplex PCR by multicolor
- fluorimetry and fluorescence melting curve analysis. *Nature medicine* 7:249-53
- 1158 70. Endimiani A, Hujer KM, Hujer AM, Sampath R, Ecker DJ, Bonomo RA. 2010. Rapid
- identification of bla KPC-possessing Enterobacteriaceae by PCR/electrospray ionization-mass
- spectrometry. The Journal of antimicrobial chemotherapy 65:1833-4
- 1161 71. Engemann JJ, Carmeli Y, Cosgrove SE, Fowler VG, Bronstein MZ, et al. 2003. Adverse clinical
- and economic outcomes attributable to methicillin resistance among patients with Staphylococcus
- aureus surgical site infection. *Clinical infectious diseases* 36:592-8
- 1164 72. Erali M, Pounder JI, Woods GL, Petti CA, Wittwer CT. 2006. Multiplex single-color PCR with
- amplicon melting analysis for identification of Aspergillus species. *Clinical chemistry* 52:1443-5

- Eshoo MW, Crowder CD, Li H, Matthews HE, Meng S, et al. 2010. Detection and identification of Ehrlichia species in blood by use of PCR and electrospray ionization mass spectrometry.

 Journal of clinical microbiology 48:472-8

 Farina C, Perin S, Andreoni S, Conte M, Fazii P, et al. 2012. Evaluation of the peptide nucleic acid fluorescence in situ hybridisation technology for yeast identification directly from positive blood cultures: an Italian experience. Mycoses 55:388-92
- Farrell JJ, Sampath R, Ecker DJ, Bonomo RA. 2013. "Salvage microbiology": detection of bacteria directly from clinical specimens following initiation of antimicrobial treatment. *PloS one* 8:e66349
- Farrell JJ, Tsung AJ, Flier L, Martinez DL, Beam SB, et al. 2013. PCR and electrospray ionization mass spectrometry for detection of persistent enterococcus faecalis in cerebrospinal fluid following treatment of postoperative ventriculitis. *Journal of clinical microbiology* 51:3464-
- Fatkenheuer G, Preuss M, Salzberger B, Schmeisser N, Cornely OA, et al. 2004. Long-term outcome and quality of care of patients with Staphylococcus aureus bacteremia. *European* journal of clinical microbiology & infectious diseases 23:157-62
- Feldman C, Alanee S, Yu VL, Richards GA, Ortqvist A, et al. 2009. Severity of illness scoring systems in patients with bacteraemic pneumococcal pneumonia: implications for the intensive care unit care. *Clinical microbiology and infection* 15:850-7
- Fenollar F, Raoult D. 2007. Molecular diagnosis of bloodstream infections caused by noncultivable bacteria. *International journal of antimicrobial agents* 30 Suppl 1:S7-15

1187	80.	Fernandez-Cruz A, Marin M, Kestler M, Alcala L, Rodriguez-Creixems M, Bouza E. 2013. The
1188		value of combining blood culture and SeptiFast data for predicting complicated bloodstream
1189		infections caused by Gram-positive bacteria or Candida species. Journal of clinical microbiology
1190		51:1130-6
1191	81.	Fernandez AL, Varela E, Martinez L, Martinez A, Sierra J, et al. 2010. Evaluation of a multiplex
1192		real-time PCR assay for detecting pathogens in cardiac valve tissue in patients with endocarditis.
1193		Revista espanola de cardiologia 63:1205-8
1194	82.	Ferrer R, Martin-Loeches I, Phillips G, Osborn TM, Townsend S, et al. 2014. Empiric antibiotic
1195		treatment reduces mortality in severe sepsis and septic shock from the first hour: results from a
1196		guideline-based performance improvement program*. Critical care medicine 42:1749-55
1197	83.	Ferroni A, Suarez S, Beretti JL, Dauphin B, Bille E, et al. 2010. Real-time identification of
1198		bacteria and Candida species in positive blood culture broths by matrix-assisted laser desorption
1199		ionization-time of flight mass spectrometry. Journal of clinical microbiology 48:1542-8
1200	84.	Fitting C, Parlato M, Adib-Conquy M, Memain N, Philippart F, et al. 2012. DNAemia detection
1201		by multiplex PCR and biomarkers for infection in systemic inflammatory response syndrome
1202		patients. PloS one 7:e38916
1203	85.	Forrest GN. 2007. PNA FISH: present and future impact on patient management. Expert review
1204		of molecular diagnostics 7:231-6
1205	86.	Forrest GN, Mehta S, Weekes E, Lincalis DP, Johnson JK, Venezia RA. 2006. Impact of rapid in
1206		situ hybridization testing on coagulase-negative staphylococci positive blood cultures. The
1207		Journal of antimicrobial chemotherapy 58:154-8

1208	87.	Forrest GN, Roghmann MC, Toombs LS, Johnson JK, Weekes E, et al. 2008. Peptide nucleic
1209		acid fluorescent in situ hybridization for hospital-acquired enterococcal bacteremia: delivering
1210		earlier effective antimicrobial therapy. Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy 52:3558-63
1211	88.	Fuglsang-Damgaard D, Nielsen CH, Mandrup E, Fuursted K. 2011. The use of Gram stain and
1212		matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometry on positive blood
1213		culture: synergy between new and old technology. APMIS: acta pathologica, microbiologica, et
1214		immunologica Scandinavica 119:681-8
1215	89.	Gaibani P, Mariconti M, Bua G, Bonora S, Sassera D, et al. 2013. Development of a broad-range
1216		23S rDNA real-time PCR assay for the detection and quantification of pathogenic bacteria in
1217		human whole blood and plasma specimens. BioMed research international 2013:264651
1218	90.	Garey KW, Rege M, Pai MP, Mingo DE, Suda KJ, et al. 2006. Time to initiation of fluconazole
1219		therapy impacts mortality in patients with candidemia: a multi-institutional study. Clinical
1220		infectious diseases 43:25-31
1221	91.	Gariani K, Rougemont M, Renzi G, Hibbs J, Emonet S, Schrenzel J. 2014. Fulminant atypical
1222		Cryptococcus neoformans pneumonia confirmed by PLEX-ID. International journal of infectious
1223		diseases : IJID 22:17-8
1224	92.	Goldberg E, Paul M, Talker O, Samra Z, Raskin M, et al. 2010. Co-trimoxazole versus
1225		vancomycin for the treatment of methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus bacteraemia: a
1226		retrospective cohort study. The Journal of antimicrobial chemotherapy 65:1779-83
1227	93.	Gonzalez V, Padilla E, Gimenez M, Vilaplana C, Perez A, et al. 2004. Rapid diagnosis of
1228		Staphylococcus aureus bacteremia using S aureus PNA FISH European journal of clinical

microbiology & infectious diseases 23:396-8

1230	94.	Greub G, Lepidi H, Rovery C, Casalta JP, Habib G, et al. 2005. Diagnosis of infectious
1231		endocarditis in patients undergoing valve surgery. The American journal of medicine 118:230-8
1232	95.	Grif K, Fille M, Wurzner R, Weiss G, Lorenz I, et al. 2012. Rapid detection of bloodstream
1233		pathogens by real-time PCR in patients with sepsis. Wiener klinische Wochenschrift 124:266-70
1234	96.	Grif K, Heller I, Prodinger WM, Lechleitner K, Lass-Florl C, Orth D. 2012. Improvement of
1235		detection of bacterial pathogens in normally sterile body sites with a focus on orthopedic samples
1236		by use of a commercial 16S rRNA broad-range PCR and sequence analysis. Journal of clinical
1237		microbiology 50:2250-4
1238	97.	Grobner S, Dion M, Plante M, Kempf VA. 2009. Evaluation of the BD GeneOhm StaphSR assay
1239		for detection of methicillin-resistant and methicillin-susceptible Staphylococcus aureus isolates
1240		from spiked positive blood culture bottles. Journal of clinical microbiology 47:1689-94
1241	98.	Guido M, Quattrocchi M, Zizza A, Pasanisi G, Pavone V, et al. 2012. Molecular approaches in
1242		the diagnosis of sepsis in neutropenic patients with haematological malignances. Journal of
1243		preventive medicine and hygiene 53:104-8
1244	99.	Haag H, Locher F, Nolte O. 2013. Molecular diagnosis of microbial aetiologies using SepsiTest
1245		in the daily routine of a diagnostic laboratory. Diagnostic microbiology and infectious disease
1246		76:413-8
1247	100.	Hall L, Le Febre KM, Deml SM, Wohlfiel SL, Wengenack NL. 2012. Evaluation of the Yeast
1248		Traffic Light PNA FISH probes for identification of Candida species from positive blood
12/10		cultures Journal of clinical microbiology 50:1446-8

1250 101. Hall TA, Sampath R, Blyn LB, Ranken R, Ivy C, et al. 2009. Rapid molecular genotyping and 1251 clonal complex assignment of Staphylococcus aureus isolates by PCR coupled to electrospray 1252 ionization-mass spectrometry. Journal of clinical microbiology 47:1733-41 1253 102. Hannis JC, Manalili SM, Hall TA, Ranken R, White N, et al. 2008. High-resolution genotyping 1254 of Campylobacter species by use of PCR and high-throughput mass spectrometry. Journal of 1255 clinical microbiology 46:1220-5 1256 103. Harris DM, Hata DJ. 2013. Rapid identification of bacteria and Candida using PNA-FISH from 1257 blood and peritoneal fluid cultures: a retrospective clinical study. Annals of clinical microbiology 1258 and antimicrobials 12:2 1259 104. Hartmann H, Stender H, Schafer A, Autenrieth IB, Kempf VA. 2005. Rapid identification of 1260 Staphylococcus aureus in blood cultures by a combination of fluorescence in situ hybridization 1261 using peptide nucleic acid probes and flow cytometry. Journal of clinical microbiology 43:4855-7 1262 105. Henry NK, McLimans CA, Wright AJ, Thompson RL, Wilson WR, Washington JA, 2nd. 1983. 1263 Microbiological and clinical evaluation of the isolator lysis-centrifugation blood culture tube. 1264 Journal of clinical microbiology 17:864-9 1265 106. Hensley DM, Tapia R, Encina Y. 2009. An evaluation of the advandx Staphylococcus 1266 aureus/CNS PNA FISH assay. Clinical laboratory science: journal of the American Society for 1267 Medical Technology 22:30-3 1268 107. Heo NY, Lim YS, An J, Ko SY, Oh HB. 2012. Multiplex polymerase chain reaction test for the 1269 diagnosis of acute viral hepatitis A. Clinical and molecular hepatology 18:397-403 1270 108. Hill JT, Tran KD, Barton KL, Labreche MJ, Sharp SE. 2014. Evaluation of the Nanosphere-1271 Verigene BC-GN for the direct identification of Gram negative bacilli and antibiotic resistance

1272		markers from positive blood cultures and the potential impact for more rapid antibiotic
1273		interventions. Journal of clinical microbiology
1274	109.	Ho YC, Chang SC, Lin SR, Wang WK. 2009. High levels of mecA DNA detected by a
1275		quantitative real-time PCR assay are associated with mortality in patients with methicillin-
1276		resistant Staphylococcus aureus bacteremia. Journal of clinical microbiology 47:1443-51
1277	110.	Holland RD, Wilkes JG, Rafii F, Sutherland JB, Persons CC, et al. 1996. Rapid identification of
1278		intact whole bacteria based on spectral patterns using matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization
1279		with time-of-flight mass spectrometry. Rapid communications in mass spectrometry: RCM
1280		10:1227-32
1281	111.	Hoorfar J, Wolffs P, Radstrom P. 2004. Diagnostic PCR: validation and sample preparation are
1282		two sides of the same coin. APMIS: acta pathologica, microbiologica, et immunologica
1283		Scandinavica 112:808-14
1284	112.	Horz HP, Scheer S, Vianna ME, Conrads G. 2010. New methods for selective isolation of
1285		bacterial DNA from human clinical specimens. Anaerobe 16:47-53
1286	113.	Huang L, Zhang YY, Sun LY. 2013. Time to positivity of blood culture can predict different
1287		Candida species instead of pathogen concentration in candidemia. European journal of clinical
1288		microbiology & infectious diseases 32:917-22
1289	114.	Hujer KM, Hujer AM, Endimiani A, Thomson JM, Adams MD, et al. 2009. Rapid determination
1290		of quinolone resistance in Acinetobacter spp. Journal of clinical microbiology 47:1436-42
1291	115.	Hujer KM, Hujer AM, Hulten EA, Bajaksouzian S, Adams JM, et al. 2006. Analysis of antibiotic
1292		resistance genes in multidrug-resistant Acinetobacter sp isolates from military and civilian

1293 patients treated at the Walter Reed Army Medical Center, Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy 50:4114-23 1294 1295 Idelevich EA, Schule I, Grunastel B, Wullenweber J, Peters G, Becker K. 2014. Rapid 116. 1296 identification of microorganisms from positive blood cultures by MALDI-TOF mass 1297 spectrometry subsequent to very short-term incubation on solid medium. Clinical microbiology 1298 and infection 20:1001-6 1299 117. Ishikawa H, Kutsukake E, Chiba K, Fukui T, Matsumoto T. 2011. The performance of the BD 1300 geneOhm MRSA assay for MRSA isolated from clinical patients in Japan, including the effects of specimen contamination and ways to improve it. Journal of infection and chemotherapy: 1301 official journal of the Japan Society of Chemotherapy 17:214-8 1302 1303 118. Jacob D, Sauer U, Housley R, Washington C, Sannes-Lowery K, et al. 2012. Rapid and high-1304 throughput detection of highly pathogenic bacteria by Ibis PLEX-ID technology. PloS one 1305 7:e39928 1306 119. Jacobs MR, Bajaksouzian S, Bonomo RA, Good CE, Windau AR, et al. 2009. Occurrence, 1307 distribution, and origins of Streptococcus pneumoniae Serotype 6C, a recently recognized serotype. *Journal of clinical microbiology* 47:64-72 1308 1309 120. Jaton K, Ninet B, Bille J, Greub G. 2010. False-negative PCR result due to gene polymorphism: 1310 the example of Neisseria meningitidis. Journal of clinical microbiology 48:4590-1 1311 121. Jeng K, Gaydos CA, Blyn LB, Yang S, Won H, et al. 2012. Comparative analysis of two broad-1312 range PCR assays for pathogen detection in positive-blood-culture bottles: PCR-high-resolution 1313 melting analysis versus PCR-mass spectrometry. *Journal of clinical microbiology* 50:3287-92

1314	122.	Jordana-Liuch E, Carolan HE, Gimenez M, Sampath R, Ecker DJ, et al. 2013. Rapid diagnosis of
1315		bloodstream infections with PCR followed by mass spectrometry. PloS one 8:e62108
1316	123.	Jordana-Lluch E, Gimenez M, Quesada MD, Ausina V, Martro E. 2014. Improving the diagnosis
1317		of bloodstream infections: PCR coupled with mass spectrometry. BioMed research international
1318		2014:501214
1319	124.	Josefson P, Stralin K, Ohlin A, Ennefors T, Dragsten B, et al. 2011. Evaluation of a commercial
1320		multiplex PCR test (SeptiFast) in the etiological diagnosis of community-onset bloodstream
1321		infections. European journal of clinical microbiology & infectious diseases 30:1127-34
1322	125.	Kaleta EJ, Clark AE, Johnson DR, Gamage DC, Wysocki VH, et al. 2011. Use of PCR coupled
1323		with electrospray ionization mass spectrometry for rapid identification of bacterial and yeast
1324		bloodstream pathogens from blood culture bottles. <i>Journal of clinical microbiology</i> 49:345-53
1325	126.	Karpanoja P, Harju I, Rantakokko-Jalava K, Haanpera M, Sarkkinen H. 2014. Evaluation of two
1326		matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization-time of flight mass spectrometry systems for
1327		identification of viridans group streptococci. European journal of clinical microbiology &
1328		infectious diseases 33:779-88
1329	127.	Kasper DC, Altiok I, Mechtler TP, Bohm J, Straub J, et al. 2013. Molecular detection of late-
1330		onset neonatal sepsis in premature infants using small blood volumes: proof-of-concept.
1331		Neonatology 103:268-73
1332	128.	Khot PD, Fisher MA. 2013. Novel approach for differentiating Shigella species and Escherichia
1333		coli by matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization-time of flight mass spectrometry. Journal of
1334		clinical microbiology 51:3711-6

1335	129.	Kim J, Gregson DB, Ross T, Laupland KB. 2010. Time to blood culture positivity in
1336		Staphylococcus aureus bacteremia: association with 30-day mortality. The Journal of infection
1337		61:197-204
1338	130.	Kimura T, Komori T, Hirose Y, Kurahashi S, Yamada Y, et al. 2009. Evaluation of the MRSA
1339		rapid detection assay (BD GeneOhm MRSA detection kit) by a real-time PCR. Rinsho byori. The
1340		Japanese journal of clinical pathology 57:425-30
1341	131.	Kramski M, Gaeguta AJ, Lichtfuss GF, Rajasuriar R, Crowe SM, et al. 2011. Novel sensitive
1342		real-time PCR for quantification of bacterial 16S rRNA genes in plasma of HIV-infected patients
1343		as a marker for microbial translocation. Journal of clinical microbiology 49:3691-3
1344	132.	Kreger BE, Craven DE, Carling PC, McCabe WR. 1980. Gram-negative bacteremia. III.
1345		Reassessment of etiology, epidemiology and ecology in 612 patients. The American journal of
1346		medicine 68:332-43
1347	133.	Kreger BE, Craven DE, McCabe WR. 1980. Gram-negative bacteremia. IV. Re-evaluation of
1348		clinical features and treatment in 612 patients. The American journal of medicine 68:344-55
1349	134.	Kuhn C, Disque C, Muhl H, Orszag P, Stiesch M, Haverich A. 2011. Evaluation of commercial
1350		universal rRNA gene PCR plus sequencing tests for identification of bacteria and fungi associated
1351		with infectious endocarditis. Journal of clinical microbiology 49:2919-23
1352	135.	L AM, Hardick J, Jeng K, Gaydos CA. 2013. Evaluation of the Pan Influenza detection kit
1353		utilizing the PLEX-ID and influenza samples from the 2011 respiratory season. Journal of
1354		virological methods 193:173-6
1355	136.	La Scola B, Raoult D. 2009. Direct identification of bacteria in positive blood culture bottles by
1356		matrix-assisted laser desorption ionisation time-of-flight mass spectrometry. <i>PloS one</i> 4:e8041

1357 137. Laffler TG, Cummins LL, McClain CM, Quinn CD, Toro MA, et al. 2013. Enhanced diagnostic 1358 yields of bacteremia and candidemia in blood specimens by PCR-electrospray ionization mass 1359 spectrometry. Journal of clinical microbiology 51:3535-41 1360 138. Lai C, Lam W, Lee MP. 2014. A case of Mycobacterium sherrisii pneumonia diagnosed by 1361 PCR/ESI-MS method. International journal of infectious diseases: IJID 25:119-21 1362 139. Lamoth F, Jaton K, Prod'hom G, Senn L, Bille J, et al. 2010. Multiplex blood PCR in 1363 combination with blood cultures for improvement of microbiological documentation of infection 1364 in febrile neutropenia. Journal of clinical microbiology 48:3510-6 1365 Laudat P, Demondion E, Jouannet C, Charron J, Chillou C, et al. 2012. [Detection of 140. 1366 Staphylococcus aureus resistant to methicillin (MRSA) by molecular biology (Cepheid 1367 GeneXpert IL, GeneOhm BD, Roche LightCycler, Hyplex Evigene I2A) versus screening by 1368 culture: Economic and practical strategy for the laboratory]. Pathologie-biologie 60:208-13 1369 141. Lefort A, Chartier L, Sendid B, Wolff M, Mainardi JL, et al. 2012. Diagnosis, management and 1370 outcome of Candida endocarditis. Clinical microbiology and infection 18:E99-E109 1371 142. Legoff J, Feghoul L, Mercier-Delarue S, Dalle JH, Scieux C, et al. 2013. Broad-range PCR-1372 electrospray ionization mass spectrometry for detection and typing of adenovirus and other 1373 opportunistic viruses in stem cell transplant patients. Journal of clinical microbiology 51:4186-92 1374 143. Lehmann LE, Hauser S, Malinka T, Klaschik S, Weber SU, et al. 2011. Rapid qualitative urinary 1375 tract infection pathogen identification by SeptiFast real-time PCR. PloS one 6:e17146 1376 Leibovici L, Shraga I, Drucker M, Konigsberger H, Samra Z, Pitlik SD. 1998. The benefit of 144. 1377 appropriate empirical antibiotic treatment in patients with bloodstream infection. Journal of 1378 internal medicine 244:379-86

1379 145. Leitner E, Kessler HH, Spindelboeck W, Hoenigl M, Putz-Bankuti C, et al. 2013. Comparison of 1380 two molecular assays with conventional blood culture for diagnosis of sepsis. Journal of 1381 *microbiological methods* 92:253-5 1382 146. Leli C, Cardaccia A, D'Alo F, Ferri C, Bistoni F, Mencacci A. 2014. A prediction model for real-1383 time PCR results in blood samples from febrile patients with suspected sepsis. Journal of medical 1384 microbiology 63:649-58 1385 147. Leli C, Moretti A, Pasticci MB, Cenci E, Bistoni F, Mencacci A. 2014. A commercially available 1386 multiplex real-time PCR for detection of pathogens in cardiac valves from patients with infective 1387 endocarditis. Diagnostic microbiology and infectious disease 79:98-101 1388 148. Levy MM, Artigas A, Phillips GS, Rhodes A, Beale R, et al. 2012. Outcomes of the Surviving 1389 Sepsis Campaign in intensive care units in the USA and Europe: a prospective cohort study. The Lancet infectious diseases 12:919-24 1390 1391 149. Levy MM, Dellinger RP, Townsend SR, Linde-Zwirble WT, Marshall JC, et al. 2010. The 1392 Surviving Sepsis Campaign: results of an international guideline-based performance 1393 improvement program targeting severe sepsis. Critical care medicine 38:367-74 1394 150. Liesenfeld O, Lehman L, Hunfeld KP, Kost G. 2014. Molecular diagnosis of sepsis: New aspects 1395 and recent developments. European journal of microbiology & immunology 4:1-25 1396 151. Lindholm L, Sarkkinen H. 2004. Direct identification of gram-positive cocci from routine blood 1397 cultures by using AccuProbe tests. Journal of clinical microbiology 42:5609-13 1398 Loonen AJ, de Jager CP, Tosserams J, Kusters R, Hilbink M, et al. 2014. Biomarkers and 152. 1399 molecular analysis to improve bloodstream infection diagnostics in an emergency care unit. PloS 1400 one 9:e87315

1401	153.	Lucignano B, Ranno S, Liesenfeld O, Pizzorno B, Putignani L, et al. 2011. Multiplex PCR allows
1402		rapid and accurate diagnosis of bloodstream infections in newborns and children with suspected
1403		sepsis. Journal of clinical microbiology 49:2252-8
1404	154.	Mancini N, Clerici D, Diotti R, Perotti M, Ghidoli N, et al. 2008. Molecular diagnosis of sepsis in
1405		neutropenic patients with haematological malignancies. Journal of medical microbiology 57:601-
1406		4
1407	155.	Mancini N, Infurnari L, Ghidoli N, Valzano G, Clementi N, et al. 2014. Potential impact of a
1408		microarray-based nucleic acid assay for rapid detection of Gram-negative bacteria and resistance
1409		markers in positive blood cultures. Journal of clinical microbiology 52:1242-5
1410	156.	March-Rossello GA, Munoz-Moreno MF, Garcia-Loygorri-Jordan de Urries MC, Bratos-Perez
1411		MA. 2013. A differential centrifugation protocol and validation criterion for enhancing mass
1412		spectrometry (MALDI-TOF) results in microbial identification using blood culture growth
1413		bottles. European journal of clinical microbiology & infectious diseases 32:699-704
1414	157.	Marshall JC, Dellinger RP, Levy M. 2010. The Surviving Sepsis Campaign: a history and a
1415		perspective. Surgical infections 11:275-81
1416	158.	Martinez RM, Bauerle ER, Fang FC, Butler-Wu SM. 2014. Evaluation of three rapid diagnostic
1417		methods for direct identification of microorganisms in positive blood cultures. Journal of clinical
1418		microbiology 52:2521-9
1419	159.	Massire C, Gertz RE, Jr., Svoboda P, Levert K, Reed MS, et al. 2012. Concurrent serotyping and
1420		genotyping of pneumococci by use of PCR and electrospray ionization mass spectrometry.
1421		Journal of clinical microbiology 50:2018-25

1422	160.	Massire C, Ivy CA, Lovari R, Kurepina N, Li H, et al. 2011. Simultaneous identification of
1423		mycobacterial isolates to the species level and determination of tuberculosis drug resistance by
1424		PCR followed by electrospray ionization mass spectrometry. Journal of clinical microbiology
1425		49:908-17
1426	161.	Mauro MV, Cavalcanti P, Perugini D, Noto A, Sperli D, Giraldi C. 2012. Diagnostic utility of
1427		LightCycler SeptiFast and procalcitonin assays in the diagnosis of bloodstream infection in
1428		immunocompromised patients. Diagnostic microbiology and infectious disease 73:308-11
1429	162.	McLaughlin RW, Vali H, Lau PC, Palfree RG, De Ciccio A, et al. 2002. Are there naturally
1430		occurring pleomorphic bacteria in the blood of healthy humans? Journal of clinical microbiology
1431		40:4771-5
1432	163.	Meex C, Neuville F, Descy J, Huynen P, Hayette MP, et al. 2012. Direct identification of bacteria
1433		from BacT/ALERT anaerobic positive blood cultures by MALDI-TOF MS: MALDI Sepsityper
1434		kit versus an in-house saponin method for bacterial extraction. Journal of medical microbiology
1435		61:1511-6
1436	164.	Mencacci A, Leli C, Cardaccia A, Montagna P, Moretti A, et al. 2011. Comparison of
1437		conventional culture with SeptiFast real-time PCR for microbial pathogen detection in clinical
1438		specimens other than blood. Journal of medical microbiology 60:1774-8
1439	165.	Mestas J, Polanco CM, Felsenstein S, Dien Bard J. 2014. Performance of the Verigene Gram-
1440		positive blood culture assay for direct detection of Gram-positive organisms and resistance
1441		markers in a pediatric hospital. Journal of clinical microbiology 52:283-7
1442	166.	Metzgar D, Frinder M, Lovari R, Toleno D, Massire C, et al. 2013. Broad-spectrum biosensor
1443		capable of detecting and identifying diverse bacterial and Candida species in blood. Journal of
1444		clinical microbiology 51:2670-8

1445 167. Morgan MA, Marlowe E, Novak-Weekly S, Miller JM, Painter TM, et al. 2011. A 1.5 hour 1446 procedure for identification of Enterococcus Species directly from blood cultures. Journal of 1447 visualized experiments : JoVE 1448 168. Moussaoui W, Jaulhac B, Hoffmann AM, Ludes B, Kostrzewa M, et al. 2010. Matrix-assisted 1449 laser desorption ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometry identifies 90% of bacteria directly 1450 from blood culture vials. Clinical microbiology and infection 16:1631-8 1451 169. Naber CK. 2009. Staphylococcus aureus bacteremia: epidemiology, pathophysiology, and 1452 management strategies. Clinical infectious diseases 48 Suppl 4:S231-7 1453 Naber CK, Baddour LM, Giamarellos-Bourboulis EJ, Gould IM, Herrmann M, et al. 2009. 170. 1454 Clinical consensus conference: survey on Gram-positive bloodstream infections with a focus on 1455 Staphylococcus aureus. Clinical infectious diseases 48 Suppl 4:S260-70 1456 171. Nagalingam S, Lisgaris M, Rodriguez B, Jacobs MR, Lederman M, et al. 2014. Identification of 1457 Occult Fusobacterium nucleatum Central Nervous System Infection Using PCR Electrospray 1458 Ionization Mass Spectrometry (PCR/ESI-MS). Journal of clinical microbiology 1459 Navarro E, Segura JC, Castano MJ, Solera J. 2006. Use of real-time quantitative polymerase 172. 1460 chain reaction to monitor the evolution of Brucella melitensis DNA load during therapy and posttherapy follow-up in patients with brucellosis. Clinical infectious diseases 42:1266-73 1461 1462 173. Oliveira K, Procop GW, Wilson D, Coull J, Stender H. 2002. Rapid identification of 1463 Staphylococcus aureus directly from blood cultures by fluorescence in situ hybridization with 1464 peptide nucleic acid probes. Journal of clinical microbiology 40:247-51 1465 174. Opota O, Croxatto A, Prod'hom G, Greub G. 2015. Blood Culture-Based Diagnosis of 1466 Bacteremia: State of the Art. Clinical microbiology and infection

1467 175. Opota O, Jaton K, Greub G. 2015. Microbial diagnosis of bloodstream infection: towards 1468 molecular diagnosis directly from blood Clinical Microbiology and Infection 1469 Opota O, Ney B, Zanetti G, Jaton K, Greub G, Prod'hom G. 2014. Bacteremia caused by 176. 1470 Comamonas kerstersii in a patient with diverticulosis. Journal of clinical microbiology 52:1009-1471 12 1472 177. Orszag P, Disque C, Keim S, Lorenz MG, Wiesner O, et al. 2014. Monitoring of patients 1473 supported by extracorporeal membrane oxygenation for systemic infections by broad-range rRNA 1474 gene PCR amplification and sequence analysis. Journal of clinical microbiology 52:307-11 1475 Osborn TM, Phillips G, Lemeshow S, Townsend S, Schorr CA, et al. 2014. Sepsis Severity 178. 1476 Score: An Internationally Derived Scoring System From the Surviving Sepsis Campaign 1477 Database. Critical care medicine 1478 179. Palka-Santini M, Putzfeld S, Cleven BE, Kronke M, Krut O. 2007. Rapid identification, virulence 1479 analysis and resistance profiling of Staphylococcus aureus by gene segment-based DNA 1480 microarrays: application to blood culture post-processing. Journal of microbiological methods 1481 68:468-77 1482 180. Palomares JC, Bernal S, Marin M, Holgado VP, Castro C, et al. 2011. Molecular diagnosis of 1483 Aspergillus fumigatus endocarditis. Diagnostic microbiology and infectious disease 70:534-7 1484 181. Paolucci M, Foschi C, Tamburini MV, Ambretti S, Lazzarotto T, Landini MP. 2014. Comparison 1485 between MALDI-TOF MS and FilmArray Blood Culture Identification panel for rapid 1486 identification of yeast from positive blood culture. Journal of microbiological methods 104:92-3

1487	182.	Paolucci M, Stanzani M, Melchionda F, Tolomelli G, Castellani G, et al. 2013. Routine use of a
1488		real-time polymerase chain reaction method for detection of bloodstream infections in
1489		neutropaenic patients. Diagnostic microbiology and infectious disease 75:130-4
1490	183.	Parcell BJ, Orange GV. 2013. PNA-FISH assays for early targeted bacteraemia treatment.
1491		Journal of microbiological methods 95:253-5
1492	184.	Pardo J, Klinker KP, Borgert SJ, Butler BM, Rand KH, Iovine NM. 2014. Detection of Neisseria
1493		meningitidis from negative blood cultures and cerebrospinal fluid with the FilmArray blood
1494		culture identification panel. Journal of clinical microbiology 52:2262-4
1495	185.	Park Y, Kim BS, Choi KH, Shin DH, Lee MJ, et al. 2012. A novel multiplex real-time PCR assay
1496		for the concurrent detection of hepatitis A, B and C viruses in patients with acute hepatitis. PloS
1497		one 7:e49106
1497 1498	186.	one 7:e49106 Pasqualini L, Mencacci A, Leli C, Montagna P, Cardaccia A, et al. 2012. Diagnostic performance
	186.	
1498	186.	Pasqualini L, Mencacci A, Leli C, Montagna P, Cardaccia A, et al. 2012. Diagnostic performance
1498 1499	186. 187.	Pasqualini L, Mencacci A, Leli C, Montagna P, Cardaccia A, et al. 2012. Diagnostic performance of a multiple real-time PCR assay in patients with suspected sepsis hospitalized in an internal
1498 1499 1500		Pasqualini L, Mencacci A, Leli C, Montagna P, Cardaccia A, et al. 2012. Diagnostic performance of a multiple real-time PCR assay in patients with suspected sepsis hospitalized in an internal medicine ward. <i>Journal of clinical microbiology</i> 50:1285-8
1498 1499 1500		Pasqualini L, Mencacci A, Leli C, Montagna P, Cardaccia A, et al. 2012. Diagnostic performance of a multiple real-time PCR assay in patients with suspected sepsis hospitalized in an internal medicine ward. <i>Journal of clinical microbiology</i> 50:1285-8 Paul M, Kariv G, Goldberg E, Raskin M, Shaked H, et al. 2010. Importance of appropriate
1498 1499 1500 1501 1502		Pasqualini L, Mencacci A, Leli C, Montagna P, Cardaccia A, et al. 2012. Diagnostic performance of a multiple real-time PCR assay in patients with suspected sepsis hospitalized in an internal medicine ward. <i>Journal of clinical microbiology</i> 50:1285-8 Paul M, Kariv G, Goldberg E, Raskin M, Shaked H, et al. 2010. Importance of appropriate empirical antibiotic therapy for methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus bacteraemia. <i>The</i>
1498 1499 1500 1501 1502 1503	187.	Pasqualini L, Mencacci A, Leli C, Montagna P, Cardaccia A, et al. 2012. Diagnostic performance of a multiple real-time PCR assay in patients with suspected sepsis hospitalized in an internal medicine ward. <i>Journal of clinical microbiology</i> 50:1285-8 Paul M, Kariv G, Goldberg E, Raskin M, Shaked H, et al. 2010. Importance of appropriate empirical antibiotic therapy for methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus bacteraemia. <i>The Journal of antimicrobial chemotherapy</i> 65:2658-65

1507	189.	Peleg AY, Thanun Y, Flandaca MJ, D Agata EM, Venkataraman L, et al. 2009. Utility of peptide
1508		nucleic acid fluorescence in situ hybridization for rapid detection of Acinetobacter spp. and
1509		Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Journal of clinical microbiology 47:830-2
1510	190.	Pierce SE, Bell RL, Hellberg RS, Cheng CM, Chen KS, et al. 2012. Detection and Identification
1511		of Salmonella enterica, Escherichia coli, and Shigella spp. via PCR-electrospray ionization mass
1512		spectrometry: isolate testing and analysis of food samples. Applied and environmental
1513		microbiology 78:8403-11
1514	191.	Pingle MR, Granger K, Feinberg P, Shatsky R, Sterling B, et al. 2007. Multiplexed identification
1515		of blood-borne bacterial pathogens by use of a novel 16S rRNA gene PCR-ligase detection
1516		reaction-capillary electrophoresis assay. Journal of clinical microbiology 45:1927-35
1517	192.	Pkhakadze T, Dmitrienko OA. 2013. [The evaluation of effectiveness of application of automated
1518		system of polymerase chain reaction to detect meticillin-resistant and meticillin-sensitive
1519		Staphylococcus aureus in clinical material from trauma orthopedic patients]. Klinicheskaia
1520		laboratornaia diagnostika:48-51
1521	193.	Prod'hom G, Bizzini A, Durussel C, Bille J, Greub G. 2010. Matrix-assisted laser desorption
1522		ionization-time of flight mass spectrometry for direct bacterial identification from positive blood
1523		culture pellets. Journal of clinical microbiology 48:1481-3
1524	194.	Prod'hom G, Durussel C, Greub G. 2013. A simple blood-culture bacterial pellet preparation for
1525		faster accurate direct bacterial identification and antibiotic susceptibility testing with the VITEK
1526		2 system. Journal of medical microbiology 62:773-7
1527	195.	Radstrom P, Knutsson R, Wolffs P, Lovenklev M, Lofstrom C. 2004. Pre-PCR processing:
1528		strategies to generate PCR-compatible samples. Molecular biotechnology 26:133-46

1529	196.	Rand KH, Delano JP. 2014. Direct identification of bacteria in positive blood cultures:
1530		comparison of two rapid methods, FilmArray and mass spectrometry. Diagnostic microbiology
1531		and infectious disease 79:293-7
1532	197.	Rath PM, Saner F, Paul A, Lehmann N, Steinmann E, et al. 2012. Multiplex PCR for rapid and
1533		improved diagnosis of bloodstream infections in liver transplant recipients. Journal of clinical
1534		microbiology 50:2069-71
1535	198.	Rello J, Lisboa T, Lujan M, Gallego M, Kee C, et al. 2009. Severity of pneumococcal pneumonia
1536		associated with genomic bacterial load. Chest 136:832-40
1537	199.	Rigby S, Procop GW, Haase G, Wilson D, Hall G, et al. 2002. Fluorescence in situ hybridization
1538		with peptide nucleic acid probes for rapid identification of Candida albicans directly from blood
1539		culture bottles. Journal of clinical microbiology 40:2182-6
1540	200.	Rogina P, Skvarc M, Stubljar D, Kofol R, Kaasch A. 2014. Diagnostic Utility of Broad Range
1541		Bacterial 16S rRNA Gene PCR with Degradation of Human and Free Bacterial DNA in
1542		Bloodstream Infection Is More Sensitive Than an In-House Developed PCR without Degradation
1543		of Human and Free Bacterial DNA. Mediators of inflammation 2014:108592
1544	201.	Ryzhov V, Fenselau C. 2001. Characterization of the protein subset desorbed by MALDI from
1545		whole bacterial cells. Analytical chemistry 73:746-50
1546	202.	Sachse S, Straube E, Lehmann M, Bauer M, Russwurm S, Schmidt KH. 2009. Truncated human
1547		cytidylate-phosphate-deoxyguanylate-binding protein for improved nucleic acid amplification
1548		technique-based detection of bacterial species in human samples. Journal of clinical microbiology
1549		47:1050-7

1550	203.	Sampath R, Hall TA, Massire C, Li F, Blyn LB, et al. 2007. Rapid identification of emerging
1551		infectious agents using PCR and electrospray ionization mass spectrometry. Annals of the New
1552		York Academy of Sciences 1102:109-20
1553	204.	Sampath R, Hofstadler SA, Blyn LB, Eshoo MW, Hall TA, et al. 2005. Rapid identification of
1554		emerging pathogens: coronavirus. Emerging infectious diseases 11:373-9
1555	205.	Sampath R, Mulholland N, Blyn LB, Massire C, Whitehouse CA, et al. 2012. Comprehensive
1556		biothreat cluster identification by PCR/electrospray-ionization mass spectrometry. PloS one
1557		7:e36528
1558	206.	Samuel I.D. Tibbetts D.I. Agetesky, A. Fay, M. Hensley, D. Meier, EA. 2012. Evaluation of a
1338	200.	Samuel LP, Tibbetts RJ, Agotesku A, Fey M, Hensley R, Meier FA. 2013. Evaluation of a
1559		microarray-based assay for rapid identification of Gram-positive organisms and resistance
1560		markers in positive blood cultures. Journal of clinical microbiology 51:1188-92
1561	207.	Sarovich DS, Colman RE, Price EP, Massire C, Von Schulze AT, et al. 2013. Molecular
1562		genotyping of Acinetobacter spp. isolated in Arizona, USA, using multilocus PCR and mass
1563		spectrometry. Journal of medical microbiology 62:1295-300
1564	208.	Scanvic A, Courdavault L, Sollet JP, Le Turdu F. 2011. [Interest of real-time PCR Xpert
1565		MRSA/SA on GeneXpert((R)) DX System in the investigation of staphylococcal bacteremia].
1566		Pathologie-biologie 59:67-72
1567	209.	Schaub N, Boldanova T, Noveanu M, Arenja N, Hermann H, et al. 2014. Incremental value of
1568		multiplex real-time PCR for the early diagnosis of sepsis in the emergency department. Swiss
1569		medical weekly 144:w13911
150)		

1570	210.	Schaumann R, Knoop N, Genzel GH, Losensky K, Rosenkranz C, et al. 2013. Discrimination of
1571		Enterobacteriaceae and Non-fermenting Gram Negative Bacilli by MALDI-TOF Mass
1572		Spectrometry. The open microbiology journal 7:118-22
1573	211.	Schmittgen TD, Livak KJ. 2008. Analyzing real-time PCR data by the comparative C(T) method
1574		Nature protocols 3:1101-8
1575	212.	Schreiber J, Nierhaus A, Braune SA, de Heer G, Kluge S. 2013. Comparison of three different
1576		commercial PCR assays for the detection of pathogens in critically ill sepsis patients
1577		Medizinische Klinik, Intensivmedizin und Notfallmedizin 108:311-8
1578	213.	Seng P, Abat C, Rolain JM, Colson P, Lagier JC, et al. 2013. Identification of rare pathogenic
1579		bacteria in a clinical microbiology laboratory: impact of matrix-assisted laser desorption
1580		ionization-time of flight mass spectrometry. Journal of clinical microbiology 51:2182-94
1581	214.	Shen J, Wang F, Li F, Housley R, Carolan H, et al. 2013. Rapid identification and differentiation
1582		of non-O157 Shiga toxin-producing Escherichia coli using polymerase chain reaction coupled to
1583		electrospray ionization mass spectrometry. Foodborne pathogens and disease 10:737-43
1584	215.	Shepard JR, Addison RM, Alexander BD, Della-Latta P, Gherna M, et al. 2008. Multicenter
1585		evaluation of the Candida albicans/Candida glabrata peptide nucleic acid fluorescent in situ
1586		hybridization method for simultaneous dual-color identification of C. albicans and C. glabrata
1587		directly from blood culture bottles. Journal of clinical microbiology 46:50-5
1588	216.	Simner PJ, Buckwalter SP, Uhl JR, Wengenack NL, Pritt BS. 2013. Detection and identification
1589		of yeasts from formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded tissue by use of PCR-electrospray ionization
1590		mass spectrometry. Journal of clinical microbiology 51:3731-4

1591 Simner PJ, Uhl JR, Hall L, Weber MM, Walchak RC, et al. 2013. Broad-range direct detection 217. 1592 and identification of fungi by use of the PLEX-ID PCR-electrospray ionization mass 1593 spectrometry (ESI-MS) system. Journal of clinical microbiology 51:1699-706 1594 218. Sitnik R, Marra AR, Petroni RC, Ramos OP, Martino MD, et al. 2014. SeptiFast for diagnosis of 1595 sepsis in severely ill patients from a Brazilian hospital. Einstein 12:191-6 1596 219. Snyder JW, Munier GK, Heckman SA, Camp P, Overman TL. 2009. Failure of the BD GeneOhm 1597 StaphSR assay for direct detection of methicillin-resistant and methicillin-susceptible 1598 Staphylococcus aureus isolates in positive blood cultures collected in the United States. Journal 1599 of clinical microbiology 47:3747-8 1600 220. Sogaard M, Hansen DS, Fiandaca MJ, Stender H, Schonheyder HC. 2007. Peptide nucleic acid 1601 fluorescence in situ hybridization for rapid detection of Klebsiella pneumoniae from positive blood cultures. Journal of medical microbiology 56:914-7 1602 1603 221. Spencer DH, Sellenriek P, Burnham CA. 2011. Validation and implementation of the GeneXpert 1604 MRSA/SA blood culture assay in a pediatric setting. American journal of clinical pathology 1605 136:690-4 1606 222. Stamper PD, Cai M, Howard T, Speser S, Carroll KC. 2007. Clinical validation of the molecular 1607 BD GeneOhm StaphSR assay for direct detection of Staphylococcus aureus and methicillin-1608 resistant Staphylococcus aureus in positive blood cultures. Journal of clinical microbiology 1609 45:2191-6 1610 223. Steensels D, Vankeerberghen A, De Beenhouwer H. 2013. Towards multitarget testing in 1611 molecular microbiology. *International journal of microbiology* 2013:121057

1612	224.	Stevenson LG, Drake SK, Murray PR. 2010. Rapid identification of bacteria in positive blood
1613		culture broths by matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization-time of flight mass spectrometry.
1614		Journal of clinical microbiology 48:444-7
1615	225.	Stone NR, Gorton RL, Barker K, Ramnarain P, Kibbler CC. 2013. Evaluation of PNA-FISH
1616		yeast traffic light for rapid identification of yeast directly from positive blood cultures and
1617		assessment of clinical impact. Journal of clinical microbiology 51:1301-2
1618	226.	Sullivan KV, Deburger B, Roundtree SS, Ventrola CA, Blecker-Shelly DL, Mortensen JE. 2014.
1619		Pediatric multicenter evaluation of the verigene gram-negative blood culture test for rapid
1620		detection of inpatient bacteremia involving gram-negative organisms, extended-spectrum Beta-
1621		lactamases, and carbapenemases. Journal of clinical microbiology 52:2416-21
1622	227.	Sullivan KV, Turner NN, Roundtree SS, Young S, Brock-Haag CA, et al. 2013. Rapid detection
1623		of Gram-positive organisms by use of the Verigene Gram-positive blood culture nucleic acid test
1624		and the BacT/Alert Pediatric FAN system in a multicenter pediatric evaluation. Journal of
1625		clinical microbiology 51:3579-84
1626	228.	Taliaferro LP, Galvin TA, Ma H, Shaheduzzaman S, Williams DK, et al. 2014. Evaluation of the
1627		broad-range PCR-electrospray ionization mass spectrometry (PCR/ESI-MS) system and virus
1628		microarrays for virus detection. Viruses 6:1876-96
1629	229.	Tan TY, Ng LS, Kwang LL. 2008. Evaluation of disc susceptibility tests performed directly from
1630		positive blood cultures. Journal of clinical pathology 61:343-6
1631	230.	Tang YW, Kilic A, Yang Q, McAllister SK, Li H, et al. 2007. StaphPlex system for rapid and
1632		simultaneous identification of antibiotic resistance determinants and Panton-Valentine leukocidin
1633		detection of staphylococci from positive blood cultures. Journal of clinical microbiology
1634		45:1867-73

1635	231.	Tang YW, Lowery KS, Valsamakis A, Schaefer VC, Chappell JD, et al. 2013. Clinical accuracy
1636		of a PLEX-ID flu device for simultaneous detection and identification of influenza viruses A and
1637		B. Journal of clinical microbiology 51:40-5
1638	232.	Taur Y, Cohen N, Dubnow S, Paskovaty A, Seo SK. 2010. Effect of antifungal therapy timing on
1639		mortality in cancer patients with candidemia. Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy 54:184-90
1640	233.	Tissari P, Zumla A, Tarkka E, Mero S, Savolainen L, et al. 2010. Accurate and rapid
1641		identification of bacterial species from positive blood cultures with a DNA-based microarray
1642		platform: an observational study. Lancet 375:224-30
1643	234.	Tojo M, Fujita T, Ainoda Y, Nagamatsu M, Hayakawa K, et al. 2014. Evaluation of an automated
1644		rapid diagnostic assay for detection of Gram-negative bacteria and their drug-resistance genes in
1645		positive blood cultures. <i>PloS one</i> 9:e94064
1646	235.	Valentine N, Wunschel S, Wunschel D, Petersen C, Wahl K. 2005. Effect of culture conditions
1647		on microorganism identification by matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization mass spectrometry.
1648		Applied and environmental microbiology 71:58-64
1649	236.	Venkatesh M, Flores A, Luna RA, Versalovic J. 2010. Molecular microbiological methods in the
1650		diagnosis of neonatal sepsis. Expert review of anti-infective therapy 8:1037-48
1651	237.	Vernon SD, Shukla SK, Conradt J, Unger ER, Reeves WC. 2002. Analysis of 16S rRNA gene
1652		sequences and circulating cell-free DNA from plasma of chronic fatigue syndrome and non-
1653		fatigued subjects. BMC microbiology 2:39
1654	238.	Vernon SD, Unger ER, Dimulescu IM, Rajeevan M, Reeves WC. 2002. Utility of the blood for
1655		gene expression profiling and biomarker discovery in chronic fatigue syndrome. Disease markers
1656		18:193-9

1657 239. Verroken A, Defourny L, Lechgar L, Magnette A, Delmee M, Glupczynski Y. 2014. Reducing 1658 time to identification of positive blood cultures with MALDI-TOF MS analysis after a 5-h 1659 subculture. European journal of clinical microbiology & infectious diseases 1660 240. Vogne C, Prod'Hom G, Jaton K, Decosterd L, Greub G. 2014. A simple, robust and rapid 1661 approach to detect carbapenemases in Gram negative isolates by MALDI-TOF mass 1662 spectrometry: validation with triple quadripole tandem mass spectrometry, microarray and PCR. 1663 Clinical microbiology and infection 1664 241. von Lilienfeld-Toal M, Lehmann LE, Raadts AD, Hahn-Ast C, Orlopp KS, et al. 2009. Utility of 1665 a commercially available multiplex real-time PCR assay to detect bacterial and fungal pathogens 1666 in febrile neutropenia. Journal of clinical microbiology 47:2405-10 1667 242. Wagner J, Schilcher G, Zollner-Schwetz I, Hoenigl M, Valentin T, et al. 2013. Microbiological 1668 screening for earlier detection of central venous catheter-related bloodstream infections. 1669 European journal of clinical investigation 43:964-9 1670 243. Wain J, Diep TS, Ho VA, Walsh AM, Nguyen TT, et al. 1998. Quantitation of bacteria in blood 1671 of typhoid fever patients and relationship between counts and clinical features, transmissibility, and antibiotic resistance. *Journal of clinical microbiology* 36:1683-7 1672 1673 244. Wallet F, Nseir S, Baumann L, Herwegh S, Sendid B, et al. 2010. Preliminary clinical study using 1674 a multiplex real-time PCR test for the detection of bacterial and fungal DNA directly in blood. 1675 Clinical microbiology and infection 16:774-9 Wang F, Massire C, Li H, Cummins LL, Li F, et al. 2011. Molecular characterization of drug-1676 245. 1677 resistant Mycobacterium tuberculosis isolates circulating in China by multilocus PCR and

electrospray ionization mass spectrometry. Journal of clinical microbiology 49:2719-21

1679	246.	Wang Z, Russon L, Li L, Roser DC, Long SR. 1998. Investigation of spectral reproducibility in
1680		direct analysis of bacteria proteins by matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization time-of-flight
1681		mass spectrometry. Rapid communications in mass spectrometry: RCM 12:456-64
1682	247.	Washington MA, Agee WA, 3rd, Kajiura L, Staege CM, Uyehara CF, Barnhill JC. 2014. An
1683		analysis of Staphylococcus aureus infections at a military medical center using the PLEX-ID
1684		combined polymerase chain reaction-mass spectrometry system. <i>Military medicine</i> 179:445-50
1685	248.	Weigel KM, Jones KL, Do JS, Melton Witt J, Chung JH, et al. 2013. Molecular viability testing
1686		of bacterial pathogens from a complex human sample matrix. PloS one 8:e54886
1687	249.	Weller SA, Cox V, Essex-Lopresti A, Hartley MG, Parsons TM, et al. 2012. Evaluation of two
1688		multiplex real-time PCR screening capabilities for the detection of Bacillus anthracis, Francisella
1689		tularensis and Yersinia pestis in blood samples generated from murine infection models. Journal
1690		of medical microbiology 61:1546-55
1691	250.	Wellinghausen N, Kochem AJ, Disque C, Muhl H, Gebert S, et al. 2009. Diagnosis of bacteremia
1692		in whole-blood samples by use of a commercial universal 16S rRNA gene-based PCR and
1693		sequence analysis. Journal of clinical microbiology 47:2759-65
1694	251.	Werner AS, Cobbs CG, Kaye D, Hook EW. 1967. Studies on the bacteremia of bacterial
1695		endocarditis. JAMA: the journal of the American Medical Association 202:199-203
1696	252.	Westh H, Lisby G, Breysse F, Boddinghaus B, Chomarat M, et al. 2009. Multiplex real-time PCR
1697		and blood culture for identification of bloodstream pathogens in patients with suspected sepsis.
1698		Clinical microbiology and infection 15:544-51

1699 Wiesinger-Mayr H, Jordana-Lluch E, Martro E, Schoenthaler S, Noehammer C. 2011. 253. 1700 Establishment of a semi-automated pathogen DNA isolation from whole blood and comparison 1701 with commercially available kits. Journal of microbiological methods 85:206-13 1702 254. Wiesinger-Mayr H, Vierlinger K, Pichler R, Kriegner A, Hirschl AM, et al. 2007. Identification 1703 of human pathogens isolated from blood using microarray hybridisation and signal pattern 1704 recognition. BMC microbiology 7:78 1705 255. Wilson DA, Joyce MJ, Hall LS, Reller LB, Roberts GD, et al. 2005. Multicenter evaluation of a 1706 Candida albicans peptide nucleic acid fluorescent in situ hybridization probe for characterization 1707 of yeast isolates from blood cultures. *Journal of clinical microbiology* 43:2909-12 1708 256. Wisplinghoff H, Bischoff T, Tallent SM, Seifert H, Wenzel RP, Edmond MB. 2004. Nosocomial 1709 bloodstream infections in US hospitals: analysis of 24,179 cases from a prospective nationwide 1710 surveillance study. Clinical infectious diseases 39:309-17 1711 257. Wittwer CT, Herrmann MG, Gundry CN, Elenitoba-Johnson KS. 2001. Real-time multiplex PCR 1712 assays. Methods 25:430-42 1713 258. Wojewoda CM, Sercia L, Navas M, Tuohy M, Wilson D, et al. 2013. Evaluation of the Verigene 1714 Gram-positive blood culture nucleic acid test for rapid detection of bacteria and resistance 1715 determinants. Journal of clinical microbiology 51:2072-6 1716 259. Wolffs P, Grage H, Hagberg O, Radstrom P. 2004. Impact of DNA polymerases and their buffer 1717 systems on quantitative real-time PCR. Journal of clinical microbiology 42:408-11 1718 260. Wolk D, Mitchell S, Patel R. 2001. Principles of molecular microbiology testing methods.

Infectious disease clinics of North America 15:1157-204

1720	261.	Wolk DM, Kaleta EJ, Wysocki VH. 2012. PCR-electrospray ionization mass spectrometry: the
1721		potential to change infectious disease diagnostics in clinical and public health laboratories. The
1722		Journal of molecular diagnostics : JMD 14:295-304
1723	262.	Wortmann G, Weintrob A, Barber M, Scott P, Zoll ST, et al. 2008. Genotypic evolution of
1724		Acinetobacter baumannii strains in an outbreak associated with war trauma. Infection control and
1725		hospital epidemiology: the official journal of the Society of Hospital Epidemiologists of America
1726		29:553-5
1727	263.	Wyllie DH, Crook DW, Peto TE. 2006. Mortality after Staphylococcus aureus bacteraemia in two
1728		hospitals in Oxfordshire, 1997-2003: cohort study. Bmj 333:281
1729	264.	Yoo SM, Choi JY, Yun JK, Choi JK, Shin SY, et al. 2010. DNA microarray-based identification
1730		of bacterial and fungal pathogens in bloodstream infections. Molecular and cellular probes
1731		24:44-52
1732	265.	Zaragoza R, Artero A, Camarena JJ, Sancho S, Gonzalez R, Nogueira JM. 2003. The influence of
1733		inadequate empirical antimicrobial treatment on patients with bloodstream infections in an
1734		intensive care unit. Clinical microbiology and infection 9:412-8
1735	266.	Ziegler I, Josefson P, Olcen P, Molling P, Stralin K. 2014. Quantitative data from the SeptiFast
1736		real-time PCR is associated with disease severity in patients with sepsis. BMC infectious diseases
1737		14:155
1738		
1739		

1740 TABLES AND FIGURES

Table 1: Commercially available molecular systems for the microbial identification of pathogen during BSI. Adapted from (174; 175)

SYSTEM (MANUFACTURER)	METHODS	TIME TO RESULT	MICROORGANISM COVERAGE	RESISTANCE AND VIRULENCE MARKERS	SENSITIVITY, SPECIFICITY AND CORRELATION WITH CONVENTIONAL	REFERENCES
					METHODS	
IDENTIFICATION FROM POSITIVE BLOOD-CULTURE						
PNA FISH and QuickFISH (AdvanDx, Wolburn, MA)	FISH	<1-3 hours	4 gram-negative 4 gram-negative 5 fungi	none	97-100% 90-100% 96-99%	(31; 55; 56; 85; 103; 106; 167; 220; 225)
AccuProbe (Gen-Probe, San Diego, CA, USA)	FISH	<1 hour	S. aureus Enterococcus spp. S. pneumoniae Streptococcus group A Streptococcus group B	none	80.8-100% 98.7-100% nr	(9; 151)
Verigene (Nanosphere, Northbrook, IL, USA)	Microarray	2.5 hours	12 gram-negative 9 gram-negative	mecA, vanA/B, bla _{κPC} , bla _{NDM} , CTX- M,VIM,IMP,OXA12	81-100% 98-100% nr	(5; 14; 17; 26; 60; 155; 165; 226; 227; 234)
Prove-it Sepsis (Mobidiag, Finland)	Microarray	3.5 hours	60 bacteria 13 fungi	mecA	95 % 99 % nr	(233)
FilmArray (Idaho Technology, Salt Lake City, UT, USA)	Multiplex PCR	1 hour	8 gram-negative 11 gram-negative 5 fungi	mecA, vanA/B, bla _{кРС}	97-95% 91-98% nr	(6; 19; 181; 196)
Xpert MRSA/SA BC (Cepheid, Sunnyvale, CA, USA)	Real-time PCR	1 hour	S. aureus	тесА	100% 99-100% nr	(45; 54; 140; 208; 221)
StaphSR assay (BD GeneOhm, San Diego, CA, USA)	Multiplex PCR	1-2 hours	S. aureus	тесА	96-100% 95-98% nr	(97; 130)
StaphPlex (Genaco Biomedical Products, Huntsville, AL, USA)	Multiplex PCR + Microarray	5 hours	S. aureus	mecA (+ PVL)	100% 95-100% 92%	(230)
MALDI-TOF MS Bruker Daltonics (Bremen, Germany) or bioMérieux (Marcy l'Etoile, France)	Mass- spectrometry	<1 hour	<1000³	not in routine	- - 76-99%	(42; 52; 156; 158; 193; 194; 224)
IDENTIFICATION FROM WHOLE BLOOD						
SepsiTest (Molzym, Bremen, Germany)	Broad range PCR + sequencing	6 hours (1-10 ^b ml)	>345 bacteria and fungi	none	21-87% 85-96% nr	(145; 152; 177; 200; 212; 250)
SeptiFast (Roche Molecular System, Germany)	Multiple broad- range real time PCR	3.5-5 hours (1.5 ml)	6 Gram positive 8 gram-negative 5 fungi	mecA ^b	43-95% 60-100% 43-83%	(25; 35; 53; 80; 95; 124; 127; 139; 143; 145-147; 153; 154; 161; 164; 182; 186; 197; 244)
MagicPlex (Seegene, Seoul, Korea)	Multiple PCR+ multiplex real time PCR	3-5 hours (1ml)	21 bacteria at species level (90 at genus level) 6 fungi	mecA, vanA/B	37-65% 77-92% 73%	(30; 152)
VYOO (SIRS-Lab, Jena, Germany)	Multiplex PCR + electrophoresis	8 hours (5ml)	14 Gram positive 18 gram-negative 7 fungi	none	nr nr 70%	(20; 84; 212)
PLEX-ID (Abbott Molecular, Des Plaines, IL)Laboratories, IL, USA)	Multiplex broad- range PCR + ESI- MS	6 hours (1.25-5° ml)	up to 800 (Gram positive, Gram negative, fungi)	mecA, bla _{кPC} , vanA/B	50-91% ^d 98-99% 79-97%	(13; 166)

1746	^a Dependant on the mass-spectrum database
1747	^b With an additional kit
1748	^c For the latest version
1749	^d depending on the volume
1750	nr=non reported
1751	

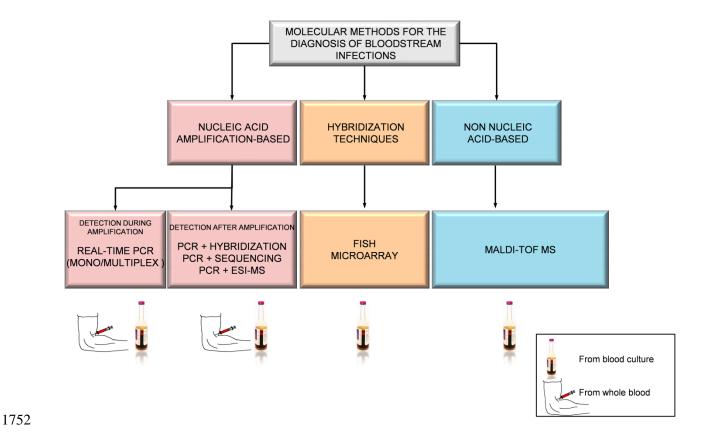


Figure 1: Different molecular technologies used for the detection and identification of microbes during bloodstream infections. Molecular methods for the diagnosis of BSI include nucleic acid-based methods and non-nucleic acid-based. Nucleic acid amplification-based techniques can be applied on positive blood cultures or used directly on blood whereas non nucleic acid amplification-based techniques such as FISH (fluorescent in situ hybridization) and microarray or non-nucleic acid based methods such as MALDI-TOF MS (Matrix-Assisted Laser Desorption Ionization Time-Of-Flight Mass Spectrometry) can be used only on positive blood culture. Adapted from (150).

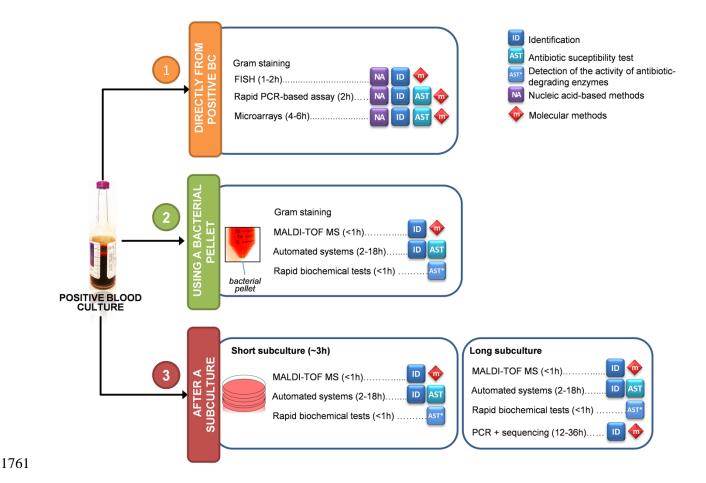


Figure 2: Conventional and molecular methods for the identification of microorganisms from positive blood culture. When a blood culture is detected as positive several strategies are available to identify the incriminated microorganism after the initial Gram staining: (1) Identification directly from the positive blood culture using nucleic acid-based methods, (2) Identification after microbe's enrichment, namely a purified bacterial pellet suitable for MALDI-TOF MS analysis and some automated identification/AST approaches such as Vitek2 and Phoenix and rapid biochemical tests HMRZ and ESBLNP (3) Identification after a subculture; to date the automated system Vitek2 has been validated on short subculture as well as the rapid biochemical tests HMRZ and CARNP; long subculture are suitable for any type of analysis including phenotypic characterization, automated systems such as Vitek2, Phoenix and MicroScan WalkAway as well as PCR followed by sequencing. Adapted from (174).

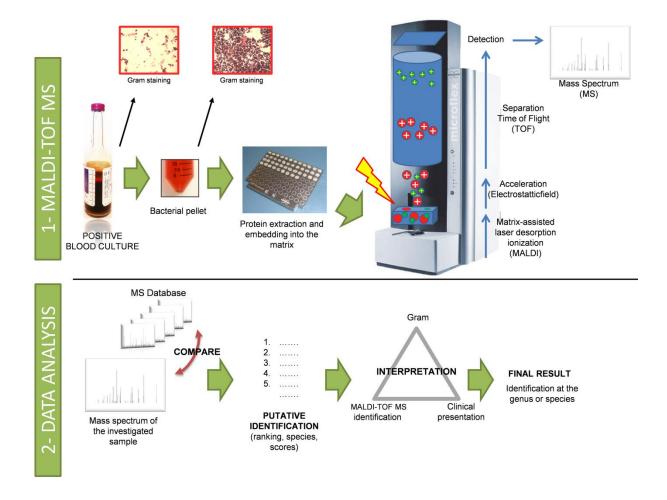


Figure 3: Microbial identification from positive blood culture using MALDI-TOF MS. The sample that is deposited on the MALDI-TOF multi-well plate can be a bacterial pellet obtained by centrifugation and erythrocytes lysis. Alternatively, the sample can be bacteria obtained after a subculture. Proteins are then extracted and embedded in a matrix directly on the multi-well conductive metal plate and submitted to the MALDI-TOF MS, which separate the proteins according to their MW and their charges. This generates a mass spectrum (MS) which, in a second stage is compared to a database of spectra. This analysis provides the identification of the microorganism with a confidence score, which allows acceptation at the species or at the genus level. The identification is interpreted according to the Gram staining and to the clinical presentation. Adapted from (52).

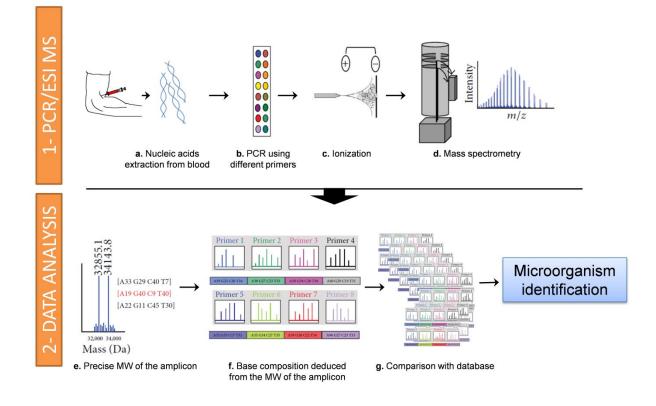


Figure 4: Schematic workflow of PCR/ESI-MS. (a) Nucleic-acids are extracted from the sample, directly from whole blood, and (b) amplified by multiple PCR using multiple pairs of primers; each colour represents a different primer. After amplification, the molecular mass of the amplicon(s) is precisely determined using ESI-MS (c, d and e), from which (f) the base composition of the amplicon(s) is deduced. Finally, (g) informations - base composition - obtained from one or more amplicon(s) are compared with a database, which provides the identification with a confidence score. Adapted from (123).