

A large prospective study of group B Streptococcus carriage in pregnant women in Morocco: prevalence, serotype distribution, antimicrobial resistance and virulence determinants

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Hanane Ben-Taleb, Narjis Amar, Azeddine Chakroun, Kaotar Nayme, Amine Lamrissi, Amal Badre, Karima Mohtadi, Rosalie Sacheli, Rajae Darfouf, Cécile Meex, Pierre Bogaerts, Te-Din Huang, Halima Lebrazi, Rachid Saile & Mustapha Chamekh

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2 **A large prospective study of group B Streptococcus carriage in**
3 **pregnant women in Morocco: Prevalence, serotype distribution,**
4 **antimicrobial resistance and virulence determinants**

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6 Hanane Ben-Taleb^{1,2,3}, Narjis Amar^{1,3}, Azeddine Chakroun^{1,3}, Kaotar
7 Nayme⁴, Amine Lamrissi⁵, Amal Badre⁶, Karima Mohtadi¹, Rosalie
8 Sacheli⁷, Rajae Darfouf⁷, Cécile Meex⁷, Pierre Bogaerts², Te-Din Huang²,
9 Halima Lebrazi¹, Rachid Saïle¹ and Mustapha Chamekh³□

10
11 ¹ Laboratory of Biology and Health, Research Center of Biotechnology and
12 Health, Faculty of Sciences Ben M'Sick, University Hassan II of
13 Casablanca, Casablanca, Morocco

14 ² Department of Clinical Microbiology, National Reference Center for
15 Antibiotic-Resistant Gram-Negative Bacilli, CHU UCL Namur, Yvoir,
16 Belgium.

17 ³ Laboratory of Pediatric Research, Inflammation Unit, Faculty of
18 Medicine, and ULB Center for Immunology (U-CRI), Université Libre de
19 Bruxelles (ULB), Brussels, Belgium

20 ⁴ Laboratoire de Bactériologie Moléculaire, Institut Pasteur du Maroc,
21 Casablanca, Morocco

22
23 ⁵ Service de Maternité, Centre Hospitalier Universitaire Ibn Rochd,
24 Casablanca, Morocco

25
26 ⁶ Service de Néonatalogie, Centre Hospitalier Universitaire Ibn Rochd,
27 Casablanca, Morocco

28
29 ⁷ National Reference Center (CNR-NRC) for *Streptococcus agalactiae*,
30 CHULiège, Centre Hospitalier Universitaire de Liège, Liège, Belgium

31
32 □ Corresponding author: Mustapha Chamekh, mostafa.chamekh@ulb.be,
33 Laboratory of Pediatric Research, Inflammation Unit, Faculty of Medicine,
34 and ULB Center for Immunology (U-CRI), Université Libre de Bruxelles
35 (ULB), Brussels, Belgium

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Abstract

54 **Background:** Group B streptococcus (GBS) is a commensal bacterium that
55 can cause severe infection in neonates. Vaginal colonization with GBS is a
56 risk factor for mother-to-child transmission and, therefore, its monitoring
57 is essential for prevention strategies. Epidemiological data on maternal
58 GBS carriage and the characterization of recovered isolates in North
59 African regions are scarce, mainly due to the lack of systematic GBS
60 screening in pregnant women. Maternal vaccination based on the use of
61 various capsular polysaccharides (CPS) remains a promising strategy for
62 the control of GBS infection. Therefore, studying the distribution of CPS is
63 of paramount importance to ensure vaccine efficacy in diverse and large
64 populations. This investigation aims to provide the first large-scale
65 epidemiological analysis in pregnant women in Morocco, regarding
66 prevalence of GBS carriage and the main characteristics of circulating
67 strains.

68 **Methods:** GBS screening was conducted between April 2021 and July
69 2024 on 1710 pregnant women at 35-40 weeks of gestation. Capsular
70 serotyping was performed using multiplex PCR. Disk diffusion test was
71 applied to evaluate antimicrobial susceptibility. Resistance genes and key
72 virulence genes were detected by PCRs.

73 **Results:** The prevalence of colonization was 9.9%. The serotypes Ib, IV, II,
74 V, Ia, and III were more prevalent, accounting for 19.8%, 17.1%, 14.3%,
75 13.7%, 12.3%, and 7.5% respectively. All GBS isolates were found to be
76 susceptible to penicillin. Resistance to tetracycline was observed in 98.8%
77 of strains, with a significant correlation to the presence of *tetM* gene. 6.4%
78 of isolates were clindamycin resistant and 14.1% were erythromycin
79 resistant, with a significant correlation to the *ermB* gene. In addition, *mefA*

80 gene was detected in 16.6% of erythromycin-resistant isolates. Regarding
81 virulence genes, *scpB* was present in all tested isolates and *bac*, *fbsA*, and
82 *cyIB* were found in more than 70.0% of tested isolates, whereas *rib* gene
83 was detected in 37.5% of tested isolates.

84 **Conclusion:** The serotype distribution indicates that a candidate vaccine
85 based on hexavalent capsular polysaccharides (Ia, Ib, II, III, IV, and V)
86 would prevent 85.0% of cases. Resistance to macrolides (erythromycin
87 14.1%) and lincosamides (clindamycin 6.4%), which are used as alternative
88 therapies, was observed in a total of 20.5% of strains. This highlights the
89 need for sustained epidemiological surveillance of GBS in the region.

90 **Trial registration:** Clinical trial number: not applicable.

91

92 **Keywords:** Group B *Streptococcus*, maternal carriage, capsular
93 polysaccharides serotype, antibiotic resistance, virulence factors

94

95 **Background**

96 Group B Streptococcus or *Streptococcus agalactiae* is a commensal
97 bacterium of genital and digestive tracts that can cause maternal-fetal and
98 neonatal infections (1). It is among the leading causes of severe perinatal
99 infections occurring through vertical transmission from mother to newborn
100 (2). Nowadays, the risk of infection for mothers and newborns is greatly
101 reduced in countries that have implemented GBS screening during the last
102 trimester of pregnancy, combined with intrapartum antibiotic prophylaxis
103 (IAP) (3). This approach has particularly contributed to prevent neonatal
104 early-onset disease which occurs during the first week of life (4). However,
105 IAP does not provide effective prevention against late-onset disease
106 occurring after the first week, hence the need for a maternal GBS vaccine
107 as an alternative preventive strategy (5,6). Maternal GBS vaccination is
108 being considered a promising strategy to prevent infection both in
109 pregnant women and neonates through passive immunity (7). Therefore,

110 the implementation of GBS vaccines in low- and middle-income countries
111 is considered a global health priority by the WHO (8). Vaccine candidates
112 are currently in advanced clinical trials, among which GBS capsular
113 polysaccharides seem promising in providing effective protective immunity
114 (9). GBS can be classified into 10 different serotypes, Ia, Ib, II-IX, based on
115 their specific CPS structure. The distribution of GBS serotypes exhibiting
116 distinct virulence properties varies across different regions of the world
117 (10). In addition to the capsular polysaccharides, several factors such as
118 surface-associated proteins and enzymes contribute to the virulence of
119 GBS. Among these factors, the *bac* gene encoding the β C protein, which
120 is known for its role in adhesion to epithelial host cells and immune evasion
121 through binding to IgA and complement components; the *lbsA* gene that
122 encodes the fibrinogen-binding protein A, which facilitates fibrinogen
123 binding and contributes to bacterial adhesion; the *rib* gene encoding the
124 Rib surface protein, which is associated with resistance to
125 opsonophagocytosis; the *cyIB* gene, the product of which is essential for
126 hemolysin synthesis; and finally, the *scpB* gene encoding the C5a peptidase
127 that disrupts complement-mediated immunity. Giving their important role
128 in virulence, these factors are considered relevant targets for vaccine
129 development (11,12).

130 Around 20 million pregnant women across the world were colonized by
131 GBS (7). Despite its clinical significance, data on maternal GBS carriage
132 remain limited in several low-and-middle-income regions, including North
133 Africa (13). Given the lack of routine GBS screening in pregnant mothers,
134 available data are often limited, and mainly concern studies on small

135 cohorts and of short duration (14,15). The more recent investigation in
136 Morocco was conducted in 2018 in a public maternal tertiary level hospital
137 in Rabat on 350 pregnant women over a period of 5 months. The study
138 revealed a prevalence of GBS vaginal carriage of 8.0% with a
139 predominance of serotypes II, V, and III (14). The need therefore exists for
140 further investigations to provide accurate rate of maternal colonization and
141 serotype distribution on a large cohort to better evaluate the risk of GBS
142 congenital transmission. In this study, we conducted a prospective study
143 in pregnant women during 3 years with the aim to assess vaginal GBS
144 carriage and to analyze the characteristics of recovered isolates regarding
145 capsular serotypes, antibiotic susceptibility profile, and virulence factors.

146

147 **Methods**

148 ***Cohort recruitment***

149 This prospective study was conducted from April 2021 to July 2024 at the
150 maternity unit of Ibn Rochd University Hospital Center- Abderrahim El
151 Harrouchi Hospital of Casablanca, Morocco. It is a reference center for
152 monitoring maternal pregnancy receiving a large flow of pregnant women
153 in the region. Pregnant women were recruited upon routine clinical
154 examinations, and screened for GBS vaginal colonization during the third
155 trimester (35-40 weeks) of gestation. The inclusion criteria were parturient
156 aged over 18 who were admitted to the hospital for labor and who have not
157 received antibiotic therapy during 15 days preceding the screening.

158 ***Sample collection and isolation of GBS strains***

159 A vaginal swab was performed according to the recommendations of the
160 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC, 2010) guidelines (16).
161 The enrichment step was not applied; the samples were cultured directly
162 for 18-24 hours at 37°C in ready-to-use Columbia agar medium with
163 nalidixic acid (15 µg/ml) and colistin (10 µg/ml), supplemented with 5%
164 sheep blood agar medium (bioMérieux, Marcy-l'Étoile, France) (17). In
165 case of detection of beta-hemolytic colonies, biochemical identification was
166 carried out using the API[®] 20 Strep system (bioMérieux, Marcy-l'Étoile,
167 France), and specific identification of group B streptococcus was
168 performed using latex agglutination reactions of Lancefield serogroups
169 (Thermo Scientific™ Oxoid™ Streptococcal Grouping Kit using Latex
170 Agglutination, Basingstoke, United Kingdom) according to the
171 manufacturer's instructions. Recovered isolates were stored at -80°C in
172 brain heart infusion broth containing 20% glycerol until use.

173

174 ***Phenotypic characterization of antimicrobial susceptibility***

175 The colonies were sub-cultured onto fresh blood agar and incubated for
176 24h in 5% CO₂ at 37°C for antibiotic susceptibility testing, using disk
177 diffusion method on Mueller-Hinton agar supplemented with horse blood
178 (bioMérieux, Marcy-l'Étoile, France) according to the European
179 Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing EUCAST/CA-SFM 2021
180 guidelines (18). The following antibiotics (Thermo Scientific™ Oxoid™,
181 Basingstoke, United Kingdom) were tested: penicillin G, gentamicin,
182 erythromycin, clindamycin, tetracycline, tigecycline, linezolid, norfloxacin,
183 rifampicin, chloramphenicol, and trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole.

184 Penicillin MICs were determined in part (n=60) of recovered isolates using
 185 E-test strips (bioMérieux, Marcy-l'Étoile, France) following EUCAST/CA-
 186 SFM 2021 recommendations.

187 ***Capsular polysaccharides typing and molecular characterization of***
 188 ***isolates***

189 DNA extraction was performed from fresh bacteria culture using Canvax
 190 HigherPurity™ Bacterial Genomic DNA Isolation kit (Canvax Biotech, S.L.,
 191 Cordoba, Spain) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Extracted
 192 DNA was stored at -20°C until use. Capsular polysaccharides serotyping
 193 was investigated using multiplex PCR and the housekeeping genes *recA* or
 194 16SrRNA were used as internal control of the amplification in non-typeable
 195 isolates (19,20). For genotypic characterization of antimicrobial
 196 resistance, we used conventional PCR to identify relevant genes for
 197 erythromycin and tetracycline as previously described (17,21). The
 198 corresponding primers are listed in Table 1.

199 **Table 1** : Primers used for the amplification of resistance genes

Gene	Primer sequence (5'–3')	Amplicon size (bp)	Annealing temperature (°C)	Reference
<i>tetM-F</i>	GTGGAGTACTACATTTACGAG	359	55	(21)
<i>tetM-R</i>	GAAGCGGATCACTATCTGAG			
<i>tetO-F</i>	GCGGAACATTGCATTTGAGGG	538	55	(21)
<i>tetO-R</i>	CTCTATGGACAACCCGACAGAAC			
<i>tetT-F</i>	CAGTGGGAATATAAGGACACGTC	644	55	(21)
<i>tetT-R</i>	CAAGCCTTCTCTACAGCATC			
<i>int-Tn-F</i>	GATGGTATTGATGTTGTAGG	528	55	(21)
<i>int-Tn-R</i>	GGTCTATATTGACAAGACG			
<i>ermB-F</i>	GGTAAAGGGCATTTAACGAC	454	55	(21)
<i>ermB-R</i>	CGATATTCTCGATTGACCCA			
<i>mefA-F</i>	AGTATCATTAACTACTAGTGC	328	55	(21)
<i>mefA-R</i>	TTCTTCTGGTACTAAAAGTGG			

200 *bp*: base pairs, *F*: Forward, *R*: Reverse

201
 202 Detection of GBS virulence factors was carried out on isolates recovered
 203 during 2024 (n=40), by conventional PCR assays according to Bobadilla et
 204 al. 2021 (22). The specific primers used for each gene are listed in Table
 205 2. Amplification products were analyzed by agarose gel electrophoresis
 206 using 6× gel loading dye (GDSBIO, Guangzhou, China). The identity of the
 207 amplified fragments was confirmed by DNA sequencing. Representatives
 208 of the amplified DNA fragments were sequenced using Illumina next-
 209 generation sequencing workflow (Novogene, UK). The search for
 210 nucleotide comparison was performed using BLASTn, which resulted in
 211 99% identity with 98% coverage and an e-value cutoff of 10⁻⁷.

212

213 **Table 2** : Primers used to amplify virulence-associated genes

Gene	Primer sequence (5'–3')	Amplicon size (bp)	Annealing temperature (°C)	Reference
<i>bac-F</i>	TGTAAAGGACGATAGTGTGAAGA	530	50	(22)
<i>bac-R</i>	CATTTGTGATTCCCTTTTGC			
<i>rib-F</i>	CAGGAAGTGCTGTTACGTTAAAC	369	50	(22)
<i>rib-R</i>	CGTCCCATTTAGGGTCTTCC			
<i>scpB-F</i>	FAGCCATATGCTGCGATCTCT	198	58	(22)
<i>scpB-R</i>	GGGTTGAACCAAGTGTGCTT			
<i>cyIB-F</i>	GGGCTGCAGGTATTATCGAA	176	58	(22)
<i>cyIB-R</i>	ATTTCCACCAAAAAGCAAACG			
<i>fbsA-F</i>	TGTAGCTAATGGACCGATGTT	156	58	(22)
<i>fbsA-R</i>	TTTTTCATTGCGTCTCAAACC			

214 *bp*: base pairs, *F*: Forward, *R*: Reverse

215

216 **Statistical analysis**

217 The statistical analyses were performed using R software version 4.4.2 [R
 218 Core Team, 2024]. The chi-square test and Fisher exact test were used to

219 examine the association and the difference between variables. Significance
 220 was defined as p -value < 0.05.

221

222 **Results**

223 ***1. Demographic characteristics of the study cohort***

224 A total of 1710 healthy pregnant women were recruited for this study from
 225 2021 to 2024. The characteristics of recruited pregnant mothers are listed
 226 in Table 3. The average age of the enrolled participants is 30 years
 227 [standard deviation (SD) [6.74; range 18-47 years], while gestational age
 228 at the time of clinical examination ranged from 35 to 40 weeks. Nearly half
 229 of the screened pregnant women were pauciparous [47.89% (819/1710)].

230

231 ***2. Prevalence of maternal GBS carriage***

232 Out of 1710 vaginal samples, 170 were positive for GBS, indicating a
 233 prevalence of colonization of 9.9% (95% CI: 8.6-11.5%). The prevalence of
 234 colonization remained relatively stable over the three-year study period,
 235 ranging from 9.1% to 10.5% with no significant change over time
 236 ($p=0.991$). The distribution of GBS carriage was assessed based on
 237 demographic and obstetric data. As shown in Table 3, no significant effect
 238 of age, gestational age or parity was observed on GBS carriage ($P>0.05$).

239

240 **Table 3** : Prevalence of Group B Streptococcus carriage according to
 241 demographic and obstetric data. A p -value <0.05 is considered statistically
 242 significant.

Demographic and clinical factors	Positive vaginal swabs (n=170)	Negative vaginal swabs (n=1540)	Total (n=1710)	p -value (chi-square test)
----------------------------------	--------------------------------	---------------------------------	----------------	------------------------------

Age (years)				
< 24	40	354	394	0.728
25 - 31	54	526	580	
32 - 38	49	460	509	
> 39	27	200	227	
Gestational age of (weeks of gestation)				
	30	211	241	0.315
35 - 36	71	709	780	
37 - 38	69	620	689	
>39				
Parity				
Primiparous	54	455	509	0.284
Pauciparous	87	732	819	
Multiparous	25	277	302	
Grand multiparity	4	76	80	

243

244 **3. Capsular serotype distribution in GBS isolates**

245 Diverse distribution of serotypes among GBS isolates was observed (Table

246 4). Examples of multiplex PCR data are shown in supplementary figure S1.

247 The most prevalent serotype was Ib, accounting for 19.8% of the isolates,

248 followed by IV (17.1%), and II (14.3%). Other notable serotypes included

249 V (13.7%), Ia (12.3%), and III (7.5%). Less frequent serotypes were VI and

250 VII, each representing 5.4% of isolates. No isolates belonging to serotype

251 VIII were detected and 4.1% of the isolates were classified as non-typeable

252 (NT).

253

254 **Table 4** : Serotype distribution among GBS isolates (n=146/170, p<0.001), Chi-
255 square test significant value $p<0.05$

Serotype	Ia	Ib	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	NT
No of isolates (%)	18 (12.3)	29 (19.8)	21 (14.3)	11 (7.5)	25 (17.1)	20 (13.7)	8 (5.4)	8 (5.4)	0	6 (4.1)

257

258 **4. Antimicrobial susceptibility of GBS isolates**

259 All GBS isolates were tested with a panel of antibiotics. 100% (n=170) of
 260 GBS isolates were susceptible to penicillin G, linezolid, rifampicin,
 261 chloramphenicol, and trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole, while 99.4%
 262 (n=169) and 90.0% (n=153) were susceptible to tigecycline and
 263 norfloxacin, respectively. In contrast, 98.8% were resistant to tetracycline,
 264 while 14.1% (n=24) and 6.5% (n=11) exhibited resistance to erythromycin
 265 and clindamycin, respectively. Of note is that all erythromycin-susceptible
 266 isolates were susceptible to clindamycin. Next, we examined whether
 267 resistance profile to tetracycline and erythromycin were linked to given
 268 serotypes (Table 5). For tetracycline, there was no significant association
 269 between serotype distribution and resistance pattern ($p=0.630$). However,
 270 it showed a trend toward significance in erythromycin resistance across
 271 serotypes ($p=0.051$).

272 Penicillin MICs were determined in part (n=60/170) of isolates using E-test
 273 method. They were all within susceptible range. The MIC range was 0.023–
 274 0.0645 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, with MIC₅₀ and MIC₉₀ of 0.0645 $\mu\text{g/mL}$. Distribution
 275 analysis showed that 58.3% (n=35) of isolates had MIC of 0.0645 $\mu\text{g/mL}$,
 276 23.3% (n=14) had 0.047 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, 10.0% (n=6) had 0.032 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, and 8.3%
 277 (n=5) had 0.023 $\mu\text{g/mL}$.

278 **Table 5** : Tetracycline and erythromycin resistance of GBS serotypes. A p -value
 279 <0.05 is considered statistically significant.

Serotype	Tetracycline resistance (No. of isolates)	p -value (chi- square test)	Erythromycin resistance (No. of isolates)	p -value (Fisher exact test)
Ia (n=18)	18 (100%)		6 (33.3%)	
Ib (n=29)	29 (100%)	0.630	3 (10.3%)	0.051
II (n=21)	20 (95.2%)		1 (4.7%)	

III	11 (100%)	4 (36.3%)
(n=11)		
IV (n=25)	25 (100%)	2 (8.0%)
V (n=20)	19 (95.0%)	4 (20.0%)
VI (n=8)	8 (100%)	2 (25.0%)
VII (n=8)	8 (100%)	0 (0%)
VIII	-	-
(n=0)		
NT (n=6)	6 (100%)	2 (33.3%)

280

281 ***5. Molecular characterizations of GBS isolates***282 ***Identification of antimicrobial resistance genes***

283 To assess the molecular basis of the antibiotic resistance profile, we
284 performed PCR tests to identify relevant genes potentially involved. Target
285 genes were selected based on previous studies that highlighted their
286 epidemiological significance in different geographic regions (21,23).
287 Among the various *tet* genes tested, the *tetM* gene was detected in 100%
288 of tetracycline-resistant isolates, while *tetT* was identified in 7.5%, and
289 *tetO* was not detected in any of resistant isolates. Additionally, the *intTn*
290 gene, known for its association with transposon-mediated resistance was
291 detected in 80.0% of isolates. Regarding erythromycin, we tested
292 erythromycin resistance methylases, *ermB* gene, involved in reducing the
293 ability of macrolide antibiotics to bind the ribosome, together with
294 macrolide efflux gene A (*mefA*). *ermB* and *mefA* were identified in 75.0%
295 and 16.6% of erythromycin-resistant isolates, respectively. However, three
296 (12.5%) of the erythromycin-resistant isolates did not carry any of these
297 genes. For clindamycin-resistant strains, 72.7% of these isolates carried
298 the *ermB* gene. Representative examples of identified genes are presented
299 in supplementary figure S2.

300 *Identification of key virulence genes*

301 We specifically analyzed isolates recovered during the latter study period
 302 of the study to provide a current, an up-to-date representation of the
 303 virulence profile of circulating strains. The distribution of serotypes was as
 304 following: Ib (n=11; 27.5%), II (n=7; 17.5%), III (n=7; 17,5%), IV (n=5;
 305 12.5%), Ia (n=4; 10.0%), V (n=4; 10.0%), VI (n=1; 2.5%), and VII (n=1;
 306 2.5%). Notably, these strains cover the six most frequent serotypes that
 307 were identified among all tested GBS isolates. As shown in Table 6, we
 308 found varying frequencies of virulence factors: The *bac* gene was found in
 309 70.0% of isolates. The *fbsA* gene was detected in 90.0% of strains. The *rib*
 310 gene was identified in 37.5%, while the *cyIB* gene was detected in 87.5%
 311 of isolates. Furthermore, the *scpB* gene was present in all GBS isolates. We
 312 observed significant difference in the distribution of virulence genes
 313 among the strains, with some genes being detected at higher frequencies
 314 in some isolates compared to others ($p < 0.001$). These results highlight the
 315 potential virulence of circulating GBS strains.

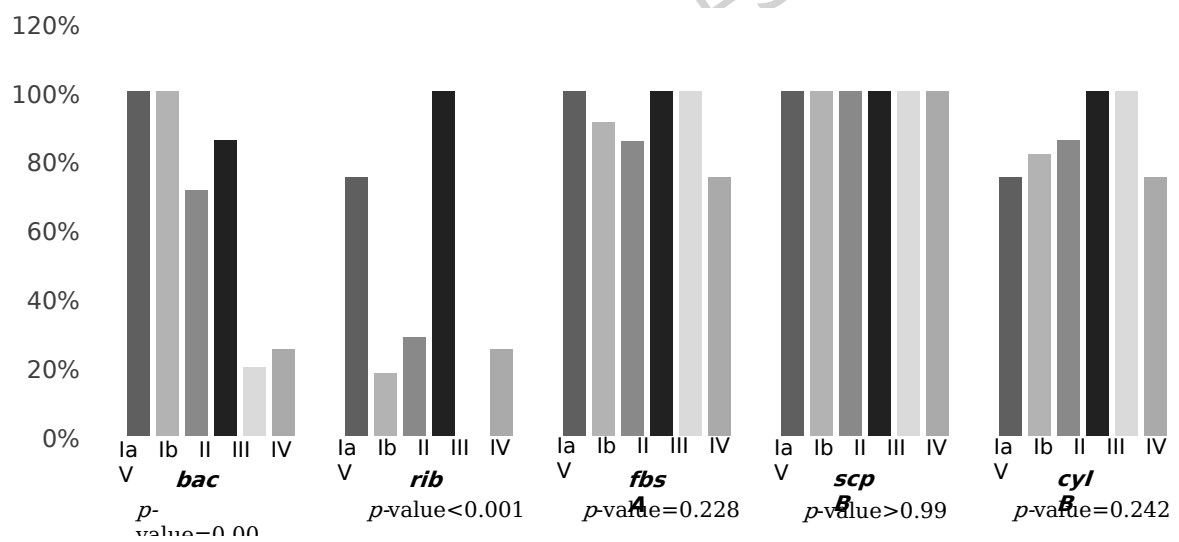
316

317 **Table 6** : Distribution of virulence genes among GBS strains (n=40)

Virulence factors	Number of positive isolates	Percentage (%)
<i>bac</i>	28/40	70.0%
<i>fbsA</i>	36/40	90.0%
<i>rib</i>	15/40	37.5%
<i>cyIB</i>	35/40	87.5%
<i>scpB</i>	40/40	100%

318

319 Next, we examined whether the distribution of virulence genes vary among
 320 the six most predominant GBS serotypes (Figure 1). The results show that
 321 *scpB* was present in 100% of isolates across all serotypes: Ia (n=4/4), Ib
 322 (n=11/11), II (n=7/7), III (n=7/7), IV (n=5/5), and V (n=4/4). The *cyIB* was
 323 detected in 75.0% to 100% of GBS isolates: Ia (n=3/4), Ib (n= 9/11), II
 324 (n=6/7), III (n=7/7), IV (n=5/5), and V (n=3/4). The *bac* gene was more
 325 frequent in serotypes Ia (n= 4 /4), Ib (n=11/11), and III (n= 6 /7), than in
 326 IV (n= 1/5) and V (n= 1/4), while the *rib* gene was predominantly found in
 327 serotypes III (n= 7/7) and Ia (n= 3/4). This indicates substantial differences
 328 in the presence of virulence genes among the six most frequent circulating
 329 GBS serotypes.



330
 331
 332 **Figure 1** Distribution of virulence genes within GBS serotypes (n=40). *ScpB* and *cyIB*
 333 genes are carried by the majority of serotypes with *scpB* present in 100% of isolates across
 334 all serotypes and *cyIB* is detected in 75.0% to 100% of them. The *bac* gene was more
 335 frequent in Ia, Ib, and III (100%, 100% and 85.7% respectively), with lower presence in
 336 IV and V isolates (20.0% and 25.0% respectively). While *rib* gene is more frequently
 337 present in serotype III (100%).

338

339 Discussion

340 Group B streptococcus remains a major health issue for the mother-
341 newborn dyad worldwide. This is particularly true in many developing
342 countries, given the lack of systematic screening of pregnant women and
343 the implementation of preventive treatments in the perinatal period. To our
344 knowledge, this is the first study in a North African country, Morocco,
345 conducted on a large cohort of pregnant women and which provides a
346 comprehensive assessment of the GBS carriage rate, the distribution of
347 capsular serotypes, the antibiotic resistance profile, and the identification
348 of genes potentially involved in antimicrobial resistance and in virulence.
349 The prevalence of vaginal GBS carriage in our study was 9.9%. This is
350 slightly higher compared to 8.0% reported in a previous investigation
351 performed in another region, Rabat, in 2013 on 350 pregnant women over
352 a period of 5 months (14). Earlier study carried out in 2012, in the region
353 of Marrakech, including 240 pregnant women, showed a vaginal carriage
354 of 3.3% (15). Regarding studies in other North African countries, a
355 Tunisian study reported a colonization rate of 27.0% among pregnant
356 women at 35-37 weeks of gestation (24). In Egypt, a prevalence of 27.4%
357 was reported in a cohort including both pregnant and non-pregnant
358 women, while another study reported a prevalence of 26.5% specifically
359 among pregnant women (25,26). This difference in GBS carriage between
360 regions of the same country or different countries can be attributed to
361 number of parameters including geographic and demographic factors,
362 clinical practice, sampling methodology, and diagnosis methods.
363 Furthermore, it is likely that the cohort size and duration of the study as
364 well as the gestation period may explain such a discrepancy. The

365 prevalence of GBS colonization remains, however, lower compared to
366 other regions of Africa, such as West Africa (33.7%) South Africa (37%),
367 and East Africa (21.3%) (13,27-29).

368 Our study provides an update regarding CPS typing of circulating GBS in
369 Morocco. This is important in the context of current investigations aiming
370 to develop CPS-based GBS vaccine. Vaccine candidates such as hexavalent
371 GBS, which targets six major capsular serotypes (Ia, Ib, II, III, IV, and V),
372 are under clinical trials (5). The inclusion of geographically specific data is
373 therefore critical for global vaccine efficacy (30). Variant frequencies of
374 serotypes were found among recovered isolates with the predominance of
375 serotype Ib followed by IV, II, V, Ia, and III, representing 85% of circulating
376 strains. Thus, the potential coverage of an hexavalent (Ia, Ib, II, III, IV, and
377 V) GBS conjugate vaccine candidate would be about 85% (31). Although
378 serotypes Ia, III, and V are predominantly found in several studies, a
379 notable increase in the frequency of serotype Ib is observed (13). Indeed,
380 Ib has been progressively recognized as an emerging serotype in both
381 maternal and neonatal infections. Previous studies have shown that
382 serotype Ib strains are often associated with specific clonal complexes
383 (CC10 and CC12), characterized by distinct antimicrobial resistance
384 profiles and invasive potential (32,33). Regarding Morocco, a previous
385 study performed in pregnant women in Rabat, indicated that serotypes V,
386 II, and III were most frequent (14). This difference could be attributed to
387 the smaller cohort size and shorter study period in that study, but also to
388 genetic diversity. However, the prevalent serotypes found in our study
389 were comparable to those reported in sub-Saharan Africa (34). In North

390 Africa, several studies also reported varying frequencies of GBS serotypes.
391 In Egypt, serotype V was the most prevalent among isolates, followed by
392 serotypes II, III, and Ia (25). The predominance of serotypes V, II, and III
393 has been also reported in a cohort study concerning both Algerian and
394 French isolates (35). The Regional variability in serotype frequency can
395 also be influenced by environmental and genetic factors (36). Hence the
396 need for continuous monitoring of the evolution of the epidemiological
397 situation in the North African region compared to sub-Saharan Africa.

398 Our analysis of antibiotic susceptibility patterns provides an up-to-date
399 overview of the current situation in light of the global emergence of drug
400 resistance worldwide, such in parts of Asia and Africa (37,38). All isolates
401 were susceptible to penicillin, the drug of choice used as standard first-line
402 treatment. However, high rate of resistance was observed for tetracycline
403 (98.8%), while it was lower for erythromycin (14.1%) and clindamycin
404 (6.4%). These findings align with global trends, where high resistance
405 rates to tetracyclines and macrolides has been documented in different
406 African countries (39,40) as well as in Europe (41) and in South America
407 (42). Regarding macrolides and lincosamides that are used as alternative
408 therapy in cases of allergy to beta-lactams, we observed a slightly higher
409 rate (14.1%) of resistance to erythromycin compared to the most recent
410 study conducted in Morocco reporting a resistance rate of 9.0% (14).
411 However, the rate of clindamycin resistance (6.4%) was comparable to that
412 previously reported (6.0%) (13). This remains, however, lower compared
413 to other countries like in Ethiopia (26.5% for erythromycin and 21.4% for
414 clindamycin) and Brazil (70.8% for erythromycin and 58.3% for

415 clindamycin) (39,42). It should be noted that our testing did not include the
416 D-test, hence limiting the interpretation of clindamycin resistance. This
417 should be considered in future studies for accurate phenotypic
418 characterization.

419 Several factors may contribute to the emergence and spread of such drug
420 resistance, including the inappropriate and widespread use of antibiotic
421 treatments in pregnant mothers as well as in livestock and the horizontal
422 transfer of resistance genes (43). We found *tetM* in all the tetracycline
423 resistant isolates and *intTn* in 80.0% of them. However, *tetT* gene was
424 found at low frequency (7.5%). Similar high frequency of *tetM* was
425 reported in 2015 on GBS isolates in a cohort study from Algeria and
426 Marseille, France (35). This seems to be also the case in other regions like
427 in Europe (92.0%), South America (92.5%) and South Africa (95.8%)
428 (41,42,44). *TetO* was not detected in any of our isolates, while lower rates
429 were observed in other regions such as in South Africa (1.3%), France
430 (3.8%) and Brazil (10.4%) (37-39).

431 Regarding erythromycin resistance, we identified *ermB* in 75.0% of GBS
432 erythromycin-resistant isolates. This finding is similar to that reported
433 (73.5%) on GBS isolates in a cohort study from Algeria and France (35),
434 but remains higher compared to other regions like in Brazil (48.2%) (42).
435 Whereas for clindamycin-resistant strains, 72.7% of these isolates carried
436 the *ermB* gene. However, discordances between phenotype and genotype
437 were observed. For instance, a few isolates carrying *ermB* (n=2) remained
438 susceptible to clindamycin, which could be explained by lack of gene
439 expression, presence of genetic mutations affecting functionality, or

440 regulatory mechanisms (17). Similar findings were reported in Southern
441 Africa (17). In our study, *mefA* was detected at lower rates (16.6%)
442 compared to *ermB* (75.0%). The same trend has been reported in France
443 (41). Whereas, in South Africa *ermB* was found in 55.0% of isolates and
444 *mefA* gene in 3.4% (45). Notably, 12.5% of erythromycin-resistant isolates
445 did not harbor any of the genes studied. This phenotype may be related to
446 other genes that were not investigated here such as *ermA*, *erm(T)*, *erm(TR)*
447 or *erm(A/TR)* (15, 16, 33, 34). Therefore, it would be of value to include in
448 future studies other relevant genes to provide a more comprehensive
449 overview on macrolide resistance. Noteworthy, the high prevalence of *tetM*
450 and *ermB* genes has largely been attributed to their association with
451 conjugative transposons such as the Tn916-Tn1545 family, which facilitate
452 their horizontal transfer (46,47). Such mechanisms contribute to the
453 dissemination and increased prevalence of macrolides, lincosamides, and
454 tetracycline resistance (48). A number of studies have shown that
455 resistance to erythromycin is not evenly distributed, with the highest rates
456 observed in serotype III, Ia and V isolates, while lower rates were found in
457 serotype IV (49-52). Our study revealed that erythromycin resistance
458 follows a similar pattern, being more common in serotype III (36.3%), while
459 serotype IV exhibited lower resistance levels (8.0%). This could be related
460 to the association of serotype III with multiple gene transfer events (51,53).
461 Serotype III is considered highly virulent accounting more frequently for
462 neonatal early onset diseases (9,13). The distribution of serotype III in our
463 study is quite low (7.5%), yet, when exploring the distribution of virulence

464 genes according to capsular serotypes, we observed that *rib* gene was
465 mainly present in serotype III, in accordance with previous studies (22,52).
466 Noteworthy, studies on virulence gene profiling remain limited in Africa
467 compared to Europe and Asia where investigations have reported diversity
468 of virulence factor distribution (17,22,23,54). Our investigation on the
469 profiling of key virulence factors involved in adhesion, invasion, and
470 immune evasion revealed variable gene distribution with *scpB* being
471 detected in all GBS isolates (100%), while *fbsA*, *cyIB*, *bac*, and *rib* genes
472 were detected in 90.0%, 87.5%, 70.0%, and 37.5%, respectively. In
473 addition to the hexavalent CPS-based vaccine, protein-based vaccine
474 candidates such as GBS-NN vaccine which is based on the N-terminal
475 domains of Rib and AlphaC surface proteins, were also shown to be
476 promising (55,56). Consequently, the study of the distribution of the *rib*
477 gene among circulating GBS strains has important clinical relevance.

478 Taken together, our investigation, the first to be conducted in a large
479 cohort in North Africa, fills an important gap related to currently
480 circulating GBS serotypes and the molecular characteristics of vaginal
481 colonizing strains in Morocco regarding drug resistance and virulence
482 gene distribution.

483 The present study has however some limitations. First, although conducted
484 in one of the country's major university hospitals, which receives a large
485 flow of patients from the region, the investigation remains monocentric
486 reflecting a single geographic region and therefore may not reflect the
487 epidemiology of GBS in other regions. Second, the serotyping was
488 performed on the majority, but not in all recovered isolates. Third, the

489 analysis of virulence factors was performed only on isolates recovered
490 during the latter study period, with the aim to provide an up-to-date
491 current representation of the virulence profile of the circulating strains.
492 Finally, penicillin MIC values were determined in a subset of isolates and
493 the macrolide susceptibility tests did not include testing for the inducible
494 MLSB phenotype, hence limiting the accurate characterization of
495 clindamycin resistance. Further studies in the region of North Africa
496 integrating molecular and phenotypic approaches are needed to confirm
497 and expand our findings.

498 **Conclusion**

499 This study represents the most comprehensive investigation of GBS
500 maternal colonization in Morocco, providing important epidemiological
501 data on a large cohort over a long period. Our findings stressed the need
502 of implementing systematic screening of pregnant women for better
503 control of perinatal diseases and for continuous monitoring of serotype
504 prevalence and antimicrobial resistance. Furthermore, our data add
505 valuable insights to the global understanding of GBS epidemiology in North
506 of Africa, particularly in the context of vaccine development, by identifying
507 the predominant serotypes and their associated virulence factors.

508 **Abbreviations**

509 GBS: Group B Streptococcus; CPS: Capsular polysaccharides; IAP:
510 intrapartum antibiotic prophylaxis; CDC: Centers for Disease Control and
511 Prevention; CNA: Columbia Nalidixic Acid agar; MIC: Minimum Inhibitory
512 Concentration; DNA: Deoxyribonucleic acid; PCR: Polymerase chain
513 reaction; bp: base pairs; SD: Standard Deviation; CI: Confidence interval;
514 NT: Non typeable

515

516 Declarations:**517 Ethics approval and consent to participate**

518 The study was performed under ethical principles in accordance with the
519 Declaration of Helsinki. The protocol was approved by the Committee for
520 Research and Ethics of Ibn Rochd University Hospital Center (N° 21-20)
521 and by the National Commission of the Control and protection of Personal
522 Data (N° A-RS-248/2021). Written informed consent was obtained from all
523 participants after explaining study outlines and objectives.

524 Consent for publication

525 Not applicable.

526 Availability of data and materials

527 The datasets analyzed during the current study are available in the
528 Figshare repository, DOI: <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.30632678>.
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530 Competing interests

531 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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536

537 Authors' contributions

538 HB performed the laboratory work, analyzed data and wrote the original
539 draft of the manuscript. NA and AC provided help with laboratory work.
540 KN helped in the implementation of the study and in the guidance of the
541 laboratory work. AL and AB provided clinical data. KM provided assistance
542 in the implementation of the study. RSo, RD and CM contributed to the
543 laboratory work and to the analysis of data. PB and TH contributed to the
544 guidance of the study and to the analysis of data. HL provided guidance of
545 the study. RSa coordinated the project and supervised the study. MC
546 designed and coordinated the project, contributed to the analysis of data
547 and reviewed and edited the final version. All authors reviewed and
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