

Original research article**To study *Staphylococcus aureus* for quinolone resistance detection in a tertiary care hospital****¹Dr. Dasari Anuradha, ²Dr. Mehta Megha Ramshanakar**¹Assistant Professor, Department of Pathology, Madha Medical College and Research Institute, Chennai, Tamil Nadu, India²Assistant Professor, Department of Microbiology, Madha Medical College and Research Institute, Chennai, Tamil Nadu, India**Corresponding Author:**

Dr. Mehta Megha Ramshanakar

Abstract

Introduction and Background: *Staphylococcus aureus* is a gram-positive spherical bacterium commonly present in the nasal passages, respiratory system, and skin. The aim and objectives of this investigation were to identify phenotypic and genotypic resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus* and to isolate it.

Materials and Methods: This study was cross-sectional and prospective. Isolates were collected from different clinical samples for this study conducted at the Department of Microbiology, Madha Medical College and Research Institute in Chennai, Tamil Nadu, India. The study was conducted from September 2017 to August 2018.

Results: *Staphylococcus aureus* is a significant pathogen that colonises around 30% of asymptomatic individuals. Drug resistance has developed as a result of the growing unintentional utilisation of potent antibiotics, leading to the rapid emergence of multidrug-resistant microorganisms. Real-time PCR offers great sensitivity and a significantly shorter turnaround time compared to previous procedures. Laboratories equipped with molecular testing facilities for Real-time PCR can utilise it as a standard diagnostic technique.

Conclusion: Improper antibiotic use has led to extensive resistance. Novel chemicals have been introduced, leading to the inadvertent development of resistance pathogens by doctors.

Keywords: *Staphylococcus aureus*, quinolone resistance, tertiary care hospital

Introduction

The gram-positive bacterium *Staphylococcus aureus* is common in the skin, respiratory system, and nose. Skin diseases like abscesses, respiratory infections like sinusitis, and food poisoning can all be caused by *Staphylococcus aureus*, although this does not mean it is always hazardous. The infectious agents that cause infections are highly pathogenic microorganisms that secrete powerful protein toxins and have surface proteins on their cells that bind and render antibodies ineffective ^[1, 2]. *Staphylococcus aureus* is responsible for a wide variety of infections, from fairly harmless skin conditions like boils, pimples, impetigo, cellulitis, folliculitis, carbuncles, scalded skin syndrome, and abscesses to potentially fatal respiratory tract, central nervous system, and bone diseases like toxic shock syndrome, bacteremia, and sepsis. It frequently causes infections in patients after surgery and is still among the top five causes of healthcare-associated illnesses ^[1, 3].

When it comes to bloodstream infections in the intensive care unit (ICU), *Staphylococcus aureus* is by far the most common culprit, and staphylococci are the most common species seen in positive blood cultures. Given its inherent aggressiveness, adaptability to various environmental conditions, and potential to produce a varied array of life-threatening infections, *Staphylococcus aureus* may be the most worrisome organism. There are effective antibiotics available, however the mortality rate of *Staphylococcus aureus* bacteremia is still around 20-40%. With an increasing number of patients receiving treatment outside of hospitals, *Staphylococcus aureus* has emerged as the top source of nosocomial infections. This is a growing issue in the community ^[4, 6].

Resistant to methicillin one bacterium that causes numerous intractable human illnesses is Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*, more commonly known as MRSA. Multi-drug-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) can be defined as any strain of *Staphylococcus aureus* that has acquired resistance to multiple quinolone and beta-lactam antibiotics by horizontal gene transfer and natural selection. A major issue in clinical medicine around the world is the rise of *Staphylococcus aureus* strains that are resistant to antibiotics, such as Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* ^[7, 9].

Nosocomial infections caused by methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) typically affect individuals with compromised immune systems, open wounds, or invasive medical devices. This is more

typical in institutional settings like nursing homes, jails, and hospitals than in the wider community. Because of this differentiation, MRSA that is linked with healthcare facilities is referred to as HA-MRSA, but MRSA that is connected with the population is known as CA-MRSA or LA-MRSA [10, 11]. Superstition against methicillin both the general public and healthcare facilities deal with the constant threat of *Staphylococcus aureus*. Rapid development of quinolone resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus* occurred, with methicillin-resistant strains showing the most rapid emergence. The effectiveness of fluoroquinolones as anti-staphylococcal drugs was significantly diminished, and they are not useful when administered in this manner. It is unclear why quinolone resistance rates among MSSA and MRSA are so different. The selection and spread of MRSA strains that are resistant to antibiotics is likely due, in part, to antibiotic selective pressure, which is particularly prevalent in healthcare settings. This population of resistant strains serves as a breeding ground for new diseases [9, 11].

In both healthcare and community settings, the concerning increase in antibiotic resistance among harmful bacteria remains a recurring problem with antibiotic treatment. Patients in both hospitals and the community seem to be warming up to the fluoroquinolone class of antimicrobials, and their use is on the rise. Despite this, the use of several drugs in this class - including trovafloxacin, gatifloxacin, temafloxacin, and grepafloxacin - has been limited or discontinued due to side effects. The most prevalent kind of infection is one that affects the respiratory system, and new fluoroquinolone medications are being researched and authorised for use in treating this condition. The convenience of taking fluoroquinolones orally once or twice day has led to their increased usage. Already, in certain therapeutic contexts and among certain bacterial species, resistance to fluoroquinolones has developed as we near the midpoint of the second decade of their use [10, 12].

The goals of this research are to (1) identify potential epidemiologic variables that have led to the epidemic of antibiotic resistance in clinical settings and (2) investigate the processes by which fluoroquinolone resistance has developed. *Staphylococcus aureus* phenotypic and genotypic resistance detection, as well as clinical isolate isolation and characterization, were the aims and objectives of this investigation.

Materials and Methods

The prospective cross-sectional study was this. This study was conducted in the Department of Microbiology, Madha Medical College and Research Institute, Chennai, Tamil Nadu, India, using isolates taken from a variety of clinical samples. From September 2017 through August 2018, researchers conducted this investigation.

Sample Collection

The investigation encompassed all clinical samples that were sent to the diagnostic microbiology laboratory. We processed about 100 clinical isolates of *Staphylococcus aureus* that developed beta haemolytic golden yellow colonies on 5% sheep blood agar. These isolates came from a variety of clinical materials including blood, wound swabs, pus, sputum, broncho-alveolar lavage, and tracheal aspirate.

Results

A total of 1200 samples of pus, blood, wound swab, tracheal aspirate and urine were processed in microbiology laboratory between September 2017 to August 2018. The incidence of *Staphylococcus aureus* from the samples were 3.5%.

Table 1: Antibiotic susceptibility pattern of *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates

Sr. No.	Antibiotic (μg)	Sensitive (%)	Resistance (%)
1.	Vancomycin (30 μg)	100	0
2.	Linezolid (30 μg)	100	0
3.	Amoxyclav (30 μg)	80	25
4.	Clindamycin (2 μg)	89	15
5.	Erythromycin (15 μg)	70	30
6.	Penicillin (6 μg)	15	80
7.	Ciprofloxacin (5 μg)	0	100
8.	Levofloxacin (5 μg)	0	100
9.	Ofloxacin (5 μg)	0	100
10.	Cefoxitin (10 μg)	40	70

Table 1 illustrates the susceptibility pattern of *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates to different drugs.

Table 2: MIC for *Staphylococcus aureus* resistant to Fluoroquinolones

Sr. No.	Antibiotic	MIC 8-16 (μg)	MIC 16-32 (μg)	MIC 32-64 (μg)
1.	Ciprofloxacin	50	30	32

2.	Levofloxacin	20	40	40
3.	Ofloxacin	10	38	45

Table 2 shows the Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) for *Staphylococcus aureus* that is resistant to fluoroquinolones. The molecular characteristics of *gyrA*, *gyrB*, *grlA*, and *grlB* were determined using Real-time PCR and amplified using gel electrophoresis.

Discussion

A major pathogen, *Staphylococcus aureus*, is colonised by about 30% of the asymptomatic population. The increased accidental use of powerful antibiotics has led to the evolution of drug resistance, and the emergence of bacteria that are resistant to more than one treatment is happening at a rapid pace. In our investigation, we discovered that 74% of cases involved MRSA. Other research in and throughout the world have found a strong correlation with this. The percentage of MRSA isolates reported in different regions of the world varies from 28% to 87% [13, 15].

According to literature reviews, a disproportionate number of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) isolates are resistant to fluoroquinolones. We found that 74% of MRSA were resistant to fluoroquinolones. Ofloxacin, levofloxacin, and ciprofloxacin were the most resistant, with 43.3% being the most resistant. The impact of fluoroquinolones and cotrimoxazole on MRSA colonisation and infection in patients is related. An analysis of MRSA isolates from patients revealed that 74% were ciprofloxacin resistant and 68% were cotrimoxazole resistant. Of the MSSA clinical isolates tested, 26% showed resistance to ciprofloxacin and 32% to cotrimoxazole [16, 18].

Pyogenic infections were the most common source of MRSA, followed by infections in the bloodstream. The study found that blood culture specimens from patients in the intensive care unit (ICU) had a prevalence of 43% and ward samples of 35% MRSA, respectively [19]. Results from tests for antimicrobial susceptibility to *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates demonstrated that linezolid, clindamycin, and amoxycylav were the most effective. Among the antibiotics tested, ciprofloxacin and ofloxacin showed the strongest resistance. Patients who are unable to take anti-staphylococcal penicillins typically rely on first-generation cephalosporins as their primary treatment for methicillin-sensitive Staphylococcal infections. It is recommended to de-escalate the patient to beta lactams if the patient has been empirically started on vancomycin and the culture report shows MSSA. Glycopeptides, such as teicoplanin and vancomycin, are reserved for extreme cases [20, 22].

The agar dilution method was used to investigate the fluoroquinolone susceptibility profile to minimal inhibitory concentrations. The minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values for ciprofloxacin, ofloxacin, and levofloxacin were 32 to 64 µg, 16 to 32 µg, and 8 to 16 µg, respectively, out of 100 *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates. Fluoroquinolones had MIC values ranging from 32 to 64 µg for MRSA, whereas MSSA had values ranging from 8 to 16µg. In contrast to Levofloxacin's 25.5% resistance rate, studies on ocular infections have shown ciprofloxacin resistance rates of 3–11%. Anxieties in infection management are heightened by the fact that ciprofloxacin and levofloxacin are becoming less effective against certain strains of *Staphylococcus aureus*. While previous studies have shown fluoroquinolone resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus* ranging from 13% to 20.7%, a recent study indicated a significantly higher prevalence of 41.8% [23, 25].

There has been a lot of research on how *Staphylococcus aureus* develops genotypic resistance to fluoroquinolones. Single mutations in DNA gyrase and DNA topoisomerase IV have been detected in most isolates. *Staphylococcus aureus* mutations in *grlA* are the initial step towards fluoroquinolones, which target DNA topoisomerase IV. Our investigation involved using a real-time PCR technique to detect topoisomerase iv and gyrase in fifty isolates of resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* that were obtained using disc diffusion and agar dilution. Our investigation found that *grlA* and *gyrA* were expressed by the majority of *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates. There is a good agreement between this and other studies that have found the same thing. Pulsed field gel electrophoresis investigations have suggested that ciprofloxacin resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates is primarily caused by one or two point mutations in the QRDR domains of the *grlA* and *gyrA* genes [26, 28].

Of the isolates analysed, 43.3% showed high levels of ciprofloxacin resistance. Commonly linked to mutations in *grlA* and *gyrA* is this extreme resistance. Other research also found a good match with this result. Restricted fragment length polymorphism, high performance liquid chromatography, and gene sequencing are some other molecular approaches for fluoroquinolone identification; nevertheless, these procedures are labor-intensive and inconvenient. Compared to previous approaches, real-time polymerase chain reaction has a significantly shorter turnaround time and very high sensitivity. Regular use of real-time polymerase chain reaction as a diagnostic tool is possible in labs that have molecular testing capabilities [29, 32].

Conclusion

Resistance to antibiotics has emerged due to the overuse of these drugs. Although there are newer chemicals available, we now face the challenge of eliminating bacteria that have developed resistance

due to clinicians' accidental use of these medications. Only by enforcing antibiotic policies that are specific to each hospital's needs and conducting frequent audits to ensure compliance can we protect populations from emerging diseases and bacteria that are resistant to multiple drugs.

Funding

None.

Conflict of Interest

None.

References

1. Henry F. Chambers and Frank R. DeLeo. Community-associated methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. 2010 Jul;23(3):616- 687.
2. David C. Hooper Emerging Mechanisms of Fluoroquinolone Resistance. 2001 Mar-Apr;7(2):337-341.
3. Klein E, Smith DL. Hospitalizations and deaths caused by methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*, United States, 1999-2005. *Emerg. Infect Dis.* 2007;13(12):1840-1846.
4. Chambers HF. Methicillin resistance in staphylococci: Molecular and biochemical basis and clinical implications. *Clin. Microbiol. Rev.* 1997;10(4):781-791.
5. Baba T, Bae T. Genome sequence of *Staphylococcus aureus* strain Newman and comparative analysis of staphylococcal genomes: polymorphism and evolution of two major pathogenicity islands. *J Bacteriol.* 2008;190(1):300-310.
6. Thakker M, Park JS. *Staphylococcus aureus* serotype 5 capsular polysaccharide is antiphagocytic and enhances bacterial virulence in a murine bacteremia model. *Infect Immun.* 1998;66(11):5183-5189.
7. Liu GY, Essex A. *Staphylococcus aureus* golden pigment impairs neutrophil killing and promotes virulence through its antioxidant activity. *J Exp. Med.* 2005;202(2):209-215.
8. Park B, Nizet V. Role of *Staphylococcus aureus* catalase in niche competition against *Streptococcus pneumoniae*. *J Bacteriol.* 2008;190(7):2275-2278.
9. McCarthy AJ, Lindsay JA. *Staphylococcus aureus* innate immune evasion is lineage-specific: a bioinformatics study. *Infect Genet Evol.* 2013;19:7-14.
10. Ingavale S, van Wamel W. Rat/MgrA, a regulator of autolysis, is a regulator of virulence genes in *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Infect Immun.* 2005;73(3):1423-1431.
11. Foster TJ, Geoghegan JA. Adhesion, invasion and evasion: the many functions of the surface proteins of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Nat Rev Microbiol.* 2014;12(1):49-62.
12. Van Wamel WJ, Rooijackers SH. The innate immune modulators staphylococcal complement inhibitor and chemotaxis inhibitory protein of *Staphylococcus aureus* are located on beta-hemolysin-converting bacteriophages. *J Bacteriol.* 2006;188(4):1310-1315.
13. McAuli O, Ross RP. Lantibiotics: Structure, biosynthesis and mode of action Colin Hill. *FEMS Microbiology Reviews.* 2001;25:285-308.
14. Ingram LC. Synthesis of the antibiotic nisin: Formation of lanthionine and beta-methyl-lanthionine. *Biochim Biophys Acta.* 1969;184(1):216-219.
15. Harris LG, Foster SJ. An introduction to *Staphylococcus aureus*, and techniques for identifying and quantifying *S. aureus* adhesins in relation to adhesion to biomaterials: review. *Eur. Cell Mater.* 2002;4:39-60.
16. Peacock SJ, Justice A. Determinants of acquisition and carriage of *Staphylococcus aureus* in infancy. *J Clin. Microbiol.* 2003;41(12):5718-5725.
17. Lindsay JA, Holden MT. Understanding the rise of the superbug: investigation of the evolution and genomic variation of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Funct. Integr. Genomics.* 2006;6(3):186-201.
18. Malachowa N, DeLeo FR. Mobile genetic elements of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Cell Mol. Life Sci.* 2010;67(18):3057-3071.
19. Highlander SK, Hulten KG. Subtle genetic changes enhance virulence of methicillin resistant and sensitive *Staphylococcus aureus*. *BMC Microbiol.* 2007;7:99.
20. Mandal S, Berendt AR. *Staphylococcus aureus* bone and joint infection. *J Infect.* 2002;44(3):143-151.
21. Nestle FO, Meglio PD. Skin immune sentinels in health and disease. *Nat Rev Immunol.* 2009;9(10):679-691.
22. Foster TJ, Geoghegan JA. Adhesion, invasion and evasion: the many functions of the surface proteins of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Nat Rev Microbiol.* 2014;12(1):49-62.
23. Van den Akker EL, Nouwen JL. *Staphylococcus aureus* nasal carriage is associated with glucocorticoid receptor gene polymorphisms. *J Infect Dis.* 2006;194(6):814-818.
24. Van Belkum A, Melles DC. Co-evolutionary aspects of human colonisation and infection by *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Infect Genet Evol.* 2009;9(1):32-47.

25. Chi CY, Wang SM. A clinical and microbiological comparison of *Staphylococcus aureus* toxic shock and scalded skin syndromes in children. Clin. Infect Dis. 2006;42(2):181-185.
26. Klein E, Smith DL. Hospitalizations and deaths caused by methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*, United States, 1999-2005. Emerg. Infect Dis. 2007;13(12):1840-1846.
27. Cohen PR. Community-acquired methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* skin infections: a review of epidemiology, clinical features, management, and prevention. Int. J Dermatol. 2007;46(1):1-11.
28. Lodise Jr. TP, McKinnon PS. Burden of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*: Focus on clinical and economic outcomes. Pharmacotherapy. 2007;27(7):1001-1012.
29. Bell JM, Turnidge JD. High prevalence of oxacillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates from hospitalized patients in Asia- Pacific and South Africa: results from SENTRY Antimicrobial Surveillance program, 1998-1999. Antimicrob Agents Chemother. 2002;46(3):879-881.
30. Lodise Jr. TP, McKinnon PS. Burden of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*: Focus on clinical and economic outcomes. Pharmacotherapy. 2007;27(7):1001-1012.
31. Moran GJ, Krishnadasan A. Methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* infections among patients in the emergency department. N Engl. J Med. 2006;355(7):666-674.
32. Ito T, Okuma K. Insights on antibiotic resistance of *Staphylococcus aureus* from its whole genome: Genomic island SCC. Drug Resist Updat. 2003;6(1):41-52.