

Methicillin Resistance to Staphylococcus Aureus: mechanism, virulence factors and treatment

Afnas Mohammed Ettiyakath¹, Ayisha Fida MC¹, Fathima Saleem¹, Fathimathu Shamna¹, Anjali CS², Dr. Shaji George³, Dr. Sirajudheen MK⁴

¹ B. Pharm 8th Semester Students, Dept. of Pharmacy Practice, Jamia Salafiya Pharmacy College, Pulikkal, Malappuram Dt, Kerala, India.

² Associate Professor, Dept. of pharmacy practice, Jamia Salafiya Pharmacy Practice, Pulikkal, Malappuram Dt, Kerala, India.

³ Professor & Head, Dept. of pharmacy practice, Jamia Salafiya pharmacy practice, Pulikkal, Malappuram Dt, Kerala, India.

⁴ Principal, Jamia Salafiya Pharmacy Practice, Pulikkal, Malappuram Dt, Kerala, India.

Date of Submission: 01-06-2024

Date of Acceptance: 10-06-2024

ABSTRACT

The invention of antibiotics is one of the most significant medical advancements in the treatment of infectious illnesses caused by pathogenic microorganisms. In 1928, Alexander Fleming made an unintentional discovery of penicillin. *S. aureus*, a gram-positive bacterium belonging to the family Micrococaceae. This species give rise to a wide range of illnesses, including mastitis, pneumonia, skin infections, bacteraemia and osteomyelitis. MRSA is recognised as a historically potential zoonotic disease (infection that are naturally spread between human and animals) which have involvement in both veterinary medicine and public health. Infected staphylococci express the PCIB-lactamase enzyme can hydrolyse β -lactam ring. This reduces the activity of antibiotics.

Keywords: Staphylococcus aureus, Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus, Pulse Field Gel Electrophoresis, Impetigo

I. INTRODUCTION

The invention of antibiotics major medical advancement for the treatment of infectious illnesses caused by pathogenic microorganisms. Prior to the development of antibiotics, pathogenic microorganisms caused a considerable amount of death and morbidity.^[4,6] In 1928, Alexander Fleming made a second unintentional discovery of penicillin. This rediscovery opens the door to further research into antibiotic classes, such as aminoglycosides, lipopeptides, sulphonamides, fluoroquinolones, and many more.^[5,6]

1.1 Staphylococcus Aureus

S. aureus is coccoid bacterium that is nonmotile, coagulase positive and gram positive belonging to family Micrococaceae.

Its cells are usually found singly or, in the event that they divide, in pairs, tetrads, and unusual irregular forms that resemble grapes. *S. aureus* frequently colonises the outer skin surfaces of humans as well as the upper respiratory system, especially the nasal passages.^[1,2]

20-40% of the general population carries human commensal bacteria in their nasal mucosa, including *S. aureus*. But bacteria is an opportunist pathogen which have the ability to produce more serious infection in the correct conditions.^[3,4] *S. aureus* frequently invades burns and surgical site infections. When *S. aureus* produces toxins, it can cause toxic shock syndrome, which can result in fever, illness, and occasionally even death. *S. aureus* can cause a number of infections, including pneumonia (lung inflammation), mastitis (mammary gland infection), infections of the skin (including cellulitis, impetigo, and staphylococcal scalded skin syndrome), osteomyelitis (bone infection), endocarditis (heart and valve endothelial infection), and bacteremia (blood-borne bacteria).^[1] Due of the synthesis of enterotoxins, *S. aureus* can potentially result in food poisoning.^[1]

1.2 MRSA

Methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) is recognised as a historically potential zoonotic disease (infection that are spread between human and animal) which have involvement in both veterinary medicine and public health. MRSA is not only a nosocomial bacterium but also a major reason for community associated

infections (CA- MRSA) and healthcare-associated infections (HA- MRSA).

II. MECHANISM OF MRSA

Beta-lactam antibiotics continue to be productive against *S. aureus* bacteria. Intrinsic penicillin binding protein 2a enzyme can bind to beta-lactam antibiotics.^[7,8,9] Staphylococci that are infected with MRSA show PCI beta lactamase

enzyme can hydrolyse the beta lactam ring. This can reduce the activity of antibiotics and it brings about the encrypting the gene modified penicillin binding protein, which is called PBP2a.^[7,10] Because PBP2a detritus neutralises PBP enzymes, this enables beta lactam antibiotics to help in cell wall synthesis.

This helps explain how β -lactam antibiotics proliferate. (fig. 1)^[7]

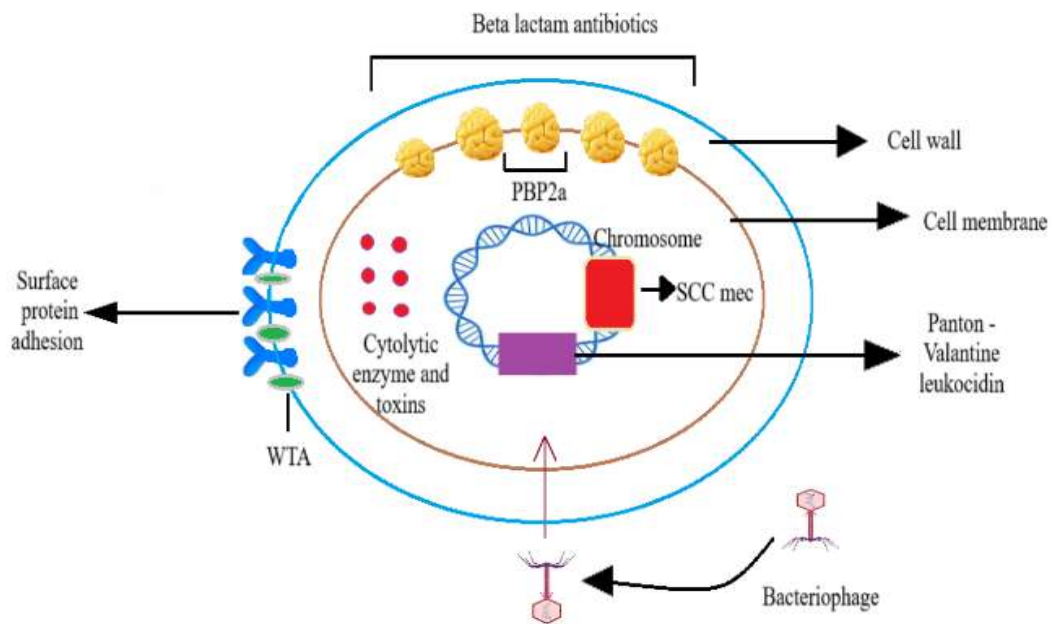


fig. 1: The process by which methicillin resistance in *S. aureus* evolves.^[7]

III. VIRULENCEFACTORS

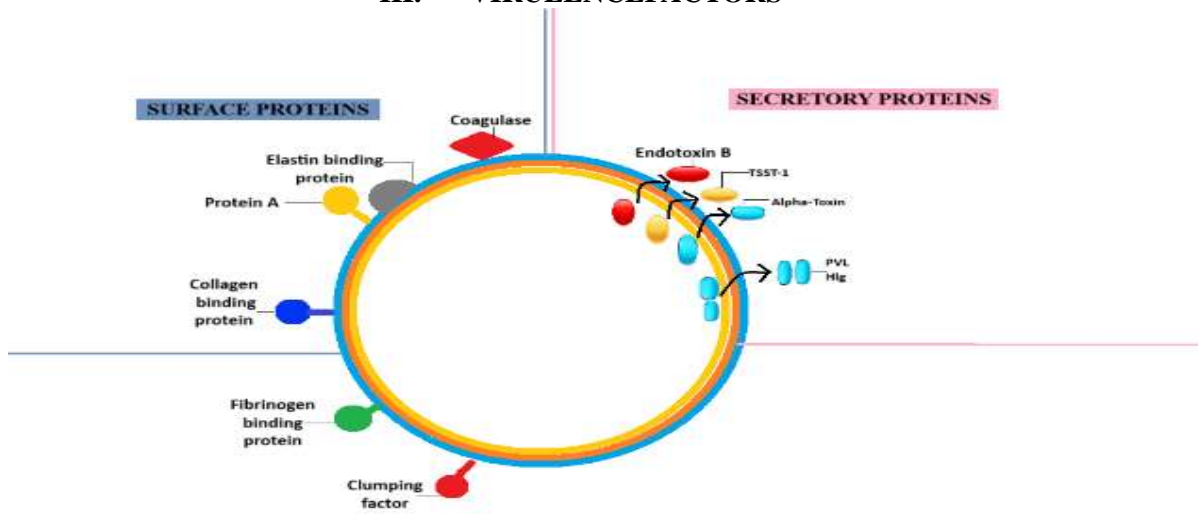


Fig 2: Virulence factors

3.1 Capsular Polysaccharides

Capsular polysaccharides, found in MRSA, envelope its cell wall. About 76-90% of MRSA strains produce these, with 11 different types known (CP 1-CP11). They boost *S. aureus* virulence by blocking complement and antibody opsonization, as well as inhibiting phagocytosis.^[11-14]

3.2 Surface Associated Proteins

3.2.1 S. Protein-A

S. aureus protein A, mainly help in cell wall formation in Staphylococcus that's mainly used to circulate IgG, and helps the microbes from cell eating.^[11,15,16]

3.2.2 Clumping Factors

Fibrinogen is the main part on the host. *S. aureus* will bind to this fibrinogen by the help of clumping factors that are mainly seen on MRSA cells. The different clumping factor proteins are, clumping factor A and B.^[11,17-20]

3.3 Extracellular Toxins

3.3.1 Staphylococcal Hemolysins

A major virulence factor is alpha toxin that is in connection with cell death of mammary gland and high death rate in animals which are infected. Methicillin resistant Staphylococcus aureus strains also include beta, gamma, and delta toxins. The main cause of food poisoning in people and animals is enterotoxins generated by MRSA.^[11,21-26]

3.3.2 S. aureus Enterotoxins

S. aureus endotoxins are categorised as type A, type B, type C, type D & type E. *S. aureus* superantigens that are mainly linked to human food poisoning, most notable SEA.^[11,27,28] As superantigens, these toxins can increase the gene expression of Interleukin 4 & Interleukin 10, which in turn activates TH2 cells and inhibits the removal of pathogens. The blood-brain barrier can be broken down by MRSA's panton-valentine leukocidin, which can seriously harm human polymorphonuclear cell membranes.^[11,29-31]

3.3.3 Panton-Valentine Leukocidin

The powerful staphylococcal exotoxin panton-valentine leukocidin (PVL) is made possible by the F and S classes of secretory proteins. In humans, PVL causes harm to polymorphonuclear cells' plasma membrane and causes basophils to emit histamine, interleukin 8,

oxygen metabolites, and lysozymes. When PVL is injected into rabbits, it causes necrotic lesions, leukocytic infiltration, basophil degranulation, and complicated inflammatory reactions. There are two components of panton valentine leukocidin- S & F. Toxin release occurs when these genes are transferred to PVL-negative strains by bacteriophages, like fSLT.^[11,32]

3.4 Extracellular Enzymes

3.4.1 Staphylococcal Coagulase

Staphylococcal coagulase, initially discovered in 1903, causes human plasma to coagulate by releasing the Coa enzyme. This chromosomally encoded enzyme is capable of coagulating plasma of humans and rabbits.^[11,21,22]

3.4.2 Staphylokinase

It is a protein produced by *S. aureus*. Which can increase the activity of plasminogen, resulting in fibrin clot breakup and bacterial growth. Lysogenic MRSA strains and certain prophages, such as serotypes B and F phages, release it. Staphylokinase is predominantly species-specific, active in goat (*Capra aegagrus hircus*), sheep (*Ovis aries*), and plasma of human and it is inactive in buffalo (*Bubalina*) and plasma of mouse (*Mus musculus*). One advantage is that it reduces biofilm formation, therefore MRSA strains that produce staphylokinase build less biofilms invitro or during non-invasive human infections.^[11,22,34,35]

3.4.3 Staphylococcal hyaluronidase

Staphylococcal hyaluronidase, also known as "spreading factor," degrades hyaluronic acid, a polysaccharide that is essential for the integrity of mammalian cells and tissues as well as host immunological control. Hyaluronidase converts hyaluronic acid into disaccharides, which aids bacterial spread in both extracellular matrix and biofilms.^[11,22-29]

IV. TREATMENT OF MRSA

4.1 Impetigo

To avoid antimicrobial resistance, consider using hydrogen peroxide 1% cream instead of fusidic acid or mupirocin to treat MRSA impetigo while patient is therapeutically alright. For secondary treatment, fusidic acid or mupirocin can be considered. Based on the results of susceptibility testing, treat complex impetigo with systemic antibiotic therapy.^[36]

4.2 Abscesses

Use incision and drainage as the primary treatment (strong suggestion). Avoid routine antibiotic usage for drained MRSA abscesses with a diameter of less than 5 cm and no systemic symptoms or immunosuppression (strong recommendation). Antibiotics should be administered with a cut or withdrawal of fluids for abscesses due to strain USA300 of MRSA PFGE (pulse field gel electrophoresis) which is highly suggested. Clindamycin or Cotrimoxazole can be used in case of oral treatment.^[36]

4.3 Skin Infections

4.3.1 Cellulitis:

- Vancomycin i.v as the primary treatment.
- Daptomycin i.v, linezolid oral or i.v used as alternatives.

4.3.2 mild skin infection:

- Clindamycin, cotrimoxazole, doxycycline as oral treatment.
- Ceftaroline, delafloxacin, oritavancin and telvancin as substitute.^[36]

4.4 Urinary Tract Infection

4.4.1 Before treatment:

Before starting treatment for MRSA isolated from urine, ensure there is no MRSA bacteremia (weak recommendation).

4.4.2 Lower UTI:

Lower UTI due to MRSA can be treated with doxycycline, ciprofloxacin or cotrimoxazole orally.

4.4.3 Complicated UTI:

- In case of complicated UTI vancomycin i.v can be suggested.
- Daptomycin can be considered as an alternative if glycopeptides are contraindicated.
- Linezolid isn't recommendation due to poor kidney excretion.

4.4.4 Catheter-associated UTI:

The possible option is to replace the catheter.^[36]

4.5 Joints and Bone Infection

- Surgery can be done if necessary.
- For MRSA infections, the primary treatment is intravenous glycopeptides (vancomycin or teicoplanin).
- Consider a treatment plan consisting of 2 weeks of intravenous glycopeptides then orally or i.v antibiotics can be used for around 4 weeks in case of septic arthritis and around 6 weeks in case of osteomyelitis.^[36]

4.6 Bacteraemia

- Intravenous vancomycin is suggested for simple MRSA bacteraemia.
- If vancomycin is ineffective, linezolid is recommended as an alternate first-line therapy.
- If first-line treatments are not effective, daptomycin or teicoplanin can be considered.
- Co-trimoxazole should not be considered for treatment.
- 14 days of continuous antibiotic required for uncomplicated bacteraemia but in complicated stage, 28 days of treatment is required.^[36]

4.7 Necrotizing Pneumonia

- For MRSA-related illnesses, intravenous vancomycin or linezolid is strongly recommended.
- If the MRSA isolate is sensitive, consider adding clindamycin or rifampicin, albeit this advice is regarded weak.^[36]

4.8 ENT and upper respiratory tract infection

- In extreme cases, vancomycin in i.v form or linezolid can be recommended
- Co-trimoxazole or doxycycline can be used orally for small or less severe infections.^[36]

4.9 Spinal Infection

- Antibiotics alone may be taken into consideration for treating minor epidural abscesses in situations without neurological impairments, albeit this advice is not strong.
- Although this advice is also regarded as poor, take into consideration intravenous vancomycin or linezolid as the main therapeutic options for MRSA-caused intracranial and spinal infections.
- It is highly advised to use intravenous vancomycin for meningitis caused by MRSA. Based on susceptibility, rifampicin may be taken into consideration for severe infections; nevertheless, this suggestion is not strong.
- To guarantee that serum concentrations of vancomycin (15–20 mg/L) are acceptable, therapeutic drug monitoring is highly advised.^[36]

4.10 Meningitis

It is highly advised to transfer the patient to a neurosurgical centre for direct ventricular instillation of vancomycin in severe cases or if the patient does not react to intravenous vancomycin. It is strongly advised against treating MRSA

meningitis using clindamycin, chloramphenicol, or linezolid due to their lack of bactericidal activity.

At this time, there is no advice for the use of teicoplanin in this particular clinical situation.^[36]

4.11 Eye Infection

- In sensitive cases, gentamycin or chloramphenicol eye drops are highly suggested.
- When diagnosing MRSA-induced endophthalmitis, consider bacteraemia-related dissemination.
- For deep-seated eye infections, based on the sensitivity drugs can be selected like intravitreal vancomycin and systemic quinolones.^[36]

V. CONCLUSION

MRSA is not just a nosocomial bacterium, also it is major reason for community-acquired infections and hospital – acquired infections. Many virulence factors have been identified which include capsular polysaccharides, surface associated proteins, extracellular toxins, extracellular enzymes. Many treatment options also identified which include Hydrogen Peroxide 1% cream for impetigo by cut or withdrawal of fluids are considered as the major treatment for abscesses, Use intravenous glycopeptides for skin infections. Consider using gentamicin or chloramphenicol eye drops for eye infection.

REFERENCE

- [1]. Stapleton PD, Taylor PW: Methicillin resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*: mechanisms and modulation. *Science Progress*. 2002; 85 (1): 57–72
- [2]. Lee AS, Lencastre HD, Garau G, Kluytmans J, Kumar SM, Peschel A, Harbarth S: Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Nature reviews*. 2018; 4:1-24
- [3]. Wertheim, HFL, Melles DC, Vos MC, Leeuwen WV, Belkum AV, Vebrugh HA, Nouwen JL: The role of nasal carriage in *Staphylococcus aureus* infections. *Lancet Infect*. 2005; 5: 751-762
- [4]. Hutchings MI, Truman AW, Wilkinson B: Antibiotics: Past, present and future. *Curr Opin Microbiol*. 2019; 51:72-80
- [5]. Nicolaou KC, Rigol S: A Brief history of antibiotics and select advances in their synthesis. *J. Antibiot*. 2018; 71(2):153-184
- [6]. Alghamdi BA, Johani IA, -Shamrani JMA, Alshamrani HM, Otaibi BGA, Master KA, Yusof NY: Antimicrobial resistance in methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Saudi Journal of Biological Sciences*. 2023; 30: 1-12
- [7]. Maddiboyina B, Roy H, Ramaiah M, Sarvesh CN, Kosuru SH, Nakkala RK, Nayak BS: Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*: novel treatment approach breakthroughs. *Bulletin of the National Research Centre*. 2023; 47:95:1-15
- [8]. Fergested ME, Stamsas GA, Morales Angeles D, Salehian Z, Waterson Y, Kjos M: Penicillin-binding protein PBP2a provides variable levels of protection toward different beta-lactams in *Staphylococcus aureus* RN4220. *Microbiologyopen*. 2020; 9: e1057
- [9]. Jones RN, Mendes RE, Sader HS: Ceftaroline activity against pathogens associated with complicated skin structure infections: results from an international surveillance study. *J. Antimicrob Chemother*. 2010
- [10]. Fuda CCS, Fisher JF, Mobashery S: Beta lactam resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*: the adaptive resistance of a plastic genome. *Cell Mol Life Sci*. 2005
- [11]. Algammal AM, Hetta HF, Elkelish A, Alkhalifah DHH, Hozzein WN, Batiha GES, Nahhas NE, Mabrok MA: Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA): One Health Perspective Approach to the Bacterium Epidemiology, Virulence Factors, Antibiotic-Resistance, and Zoonotic Impact. *Infection and Drug Resistance* 2020; 13 3255–3265
- [12]. Gillapsy AF, Lee CY, Sau S, Cheung AL, Smeltzer MS: Factors affecting the collagen binding capacity of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Infect Immun*. 1998; 66:3170-3178
- [13]. Ikawaty R, Brouwer E, Van Duijkeren E, Mevius D, Verhoef J, Fluit A: Virulence factors of genotyped bovine mastitis *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates in the Netherlands. *Int J Dairy Sci*. 2010; 5:60-70
- [14]. Khandke I, Nonoyama A, Hodge TS, Nema S: Stable immunogenic

- compositions of staphylococcus aureus antigens. Google Patents. 2013
- [15]. Kong C, Neoh HM, Nathan S: Targeting Staphylococcus aureus toxins: a potential form of anti- virulence therapy. *Toxins*. 2016; 8:72
- [16]. Van kessel KP, Bestebroer J, Van strijp JA: Neutrophil-mediated phagocytosis of Staphylococcus aureus. *Front Immunol*. 2014; 5:467
- [17]. McDevitt D, Francois P, Vaudaux P, Foster T: Molecular characterization of the clumping factor (fibrinogen receptor) of Staphylococcus aureus. *Mol Microbiol*. 1994; 11: 237-248
- [18]. Normanno G, Firinu A, Virgilio S, Mula G, Dambrosia A, Poggiu A, Decastelli L, Mioni R, Scuota S, Bolzoni G, Di Giannatale E, Salinetti A, La Salandra G, Bartoli M, Zuccon F, Pirino T, Sias S, Parisi A, Quaglia NC, Celano GV: Coagulase- positive Staphylococcus aureus in food products marketed in Italy. *Int J Food Microbiol*. 2005; 98:73-79
- [19]. Speziale P, Pietrocola G, Foster TJ, Geoghegan JA: Protein- based biofilm matrices in Staphylococci. *Front cell Infect Microbiol*. 2014; 4:171
- [20]. Eid HM, Algammal AM, Elfeil WK, Youssef FM, Harb SM, Abd- Allah EM: Prevalnce, molecular typing, and antimicrobial resistance of bacterial pathogens isolated from ducks. *Vet world*. 2019; 12:677
- [21]. Otto M: Staphylococcus aureus toxins. *Curr OpinMicrobiol*. 2014; 17: 32-37
- [22]. Tam K, Torres VJ: Staphylococcus aureus secreted toxins and extracellular enzymes. *Gram Positive Pathog*. 2019; 1:640-668
- [23]. Otto M: Basis of virulence in community-associated methicillin- resistant Staphylococcus aureus. *Ann Rev Microbiol*. 2010; 64:143-162
- [24]. Akineden O, Annemuller C, Hassan A, Lammler C, Wolter W, Zschock M, Wolter W, Zschock M: Toxin genes and other characteristics of Staphylococcus aureus isolates from milk of cows with mastitis. *Clin Diagn Lab Immunol*. 2001; 8:959-964
- [25]. Omeo K, Ishikawa M, Shimoda Y, Hu DL, Ueda S, Shingawa K: Detection of seg, seh and sei genes in Staphylococcus aureus isolates and determination of the enterotoxin productivities of S. aureus isolates harboring seg, seh and sei genes. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2002; 40:857-862
- [26]. Hata E, Katsuda K, Kobayashi H, Uchida I, Tanaka K, Eguchi M: Genetic variation among Staphylococcus aureus strains from bovine milk and their relevance to methicillin- resistant isolates from humans. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2010; 48:2130-2139
- [27]. Chang BS, Bohach GA, Lee SU, Davis WC, Fox LK, Ferens WA, Seo KS, Koo HC, Kwon NH, Park YH: Immunosuppression by T regulatory cells in cows infected with Staphylococcal superantigen. *J Vet Sci*. 2005; 6:247
- [28]. Rall V, Vieira F, Rall R, Vietis RL, Fernandes A, Candeias JMG, Cardoso KFG, Araujo JP: PCR detection of Staphylococcal enterotoxin genes in Staphylococcus aureus strains isolated from raw and pasteurized milk. *VetMicrobiol*. 2008; 132:408-413
- [29]. Burton JL, Erskine RJ: Immunity and mastitis some new ideas for an old disease. *Vet Clin*. 2003; 19:1-45
- [30]. Barrio MB, Rainard P, Prevost G: LukM/ LukF PV is the most active Staphylococcus aureus leukotoxin on bovine neutrophils. *Microbes Infect*. 2006; 8:2068-2074
- [31]. Ono HK, Omeo K, Imanshi K, Iwakabe Y, Hu DL, Kato H, Saito N, Nakane A, Uchiyama T, Shinagawa K: Identification and characterization of two novel Staphylococcal enterotoxins, types S and T. *Infect Immun*. 2008; 76:4999-5005
- [32]. Abouelfetouh A: The status of methicillin resistance among Egyptian Staphylococcus aureus isolates: an overview. *Infect Disord Drug Targets*. 2017; 17:67-69
- [33]. Diep BA, ChDiep BA, Chambers HF, Graber CJ: Emergence of multi drug-resistant, community-associated, methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus clone USA300 in men who have sex with men. *Ann Int Med*. 2008; 148:249-257
- [34]. Akililu E, Zunita Z, Hassan L, Chen H: Phenotypic and genotypic characterization of methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA) isolated from Dogs and cats at University Veterinary



- Hospital,Universiti Putra Malaysia. Trop Biomed. 2010; 27:483-492
- [35]. Alaklobi F, Aljobar F, Alrashod A, Alhabadi R, Alshamrani M, Alamin W, Lytvyn L, Alrouki F, Mertz D: The prevalnce of community- associated methicillin- resistant Staphylococcus aureus among outpatient children in a tertiary hospital: a prospective observational study in Riyadh, Saudia Arabia. Intl J PediatrAdolesc Med. 2015; 2:136-140
- [36]. Brown NM, Goodman AL, Horner C, Jenkins A, Brown EM: Treatment of methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA): updated guidelines from the UK. JAC Antimicrob Resist. 2024; 1-18