Nosocomial infections caused by community-associated methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus in Colombia

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Background: Community-associated methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus strains (CA-MRSA) have emerged as the causative agent of health care-associated infections.

Methods: An observational and prospective study was carried out in 5 hospitals in Bogotá, Colombia; severe MRSA infections were identified, and their origin led to classification as health care-associated (HA-MRSA), community-associated, or nosocomial infections. MRSA isolates were analyzed by SCCmec, pulsed-field gel electrophoresis, multilocus sequence typing, and virulence factors.

Results: Twenty-six (10.4%) CA-MRSA nosocomial infection-causing strains (eg, USA300) were detected in 250 MRSA infection isolates in mainly primary bacteremia and surgical site infections. The mortality related to nosocomial infection by CA-MRSA was 27%.

Conclusion: The presence of nosocomial infection by CA-MRSA in Colombia was confirmed.

Key Words: Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus; Colombia; nosocomial infections.

Community-associated methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus (CA-MRSA) in Latin America has been described in Brazil, Uruguay, Colombia, and Argentina.1,2 CA-MRSA has begun to replace typical hospital-acquired isolates during recent years, especially in the United States and Taiwan where CA-MRSA prevalence (52%) is very high.3 Colombian CA-MRSA isolates (such as ST8) have recently been confirmed and are clonally related to USA300.4 The presence of CA-MRSA causing nosocomial infection in several Colombian institutions was confirmed in this study.

METHODS

Demographic characteristics and epidemiologic and clinical classification criteria

An observational and prospective study was carried out between June 2006 and December 2007; patients requiring hospitalization who were older than 18 years and suffering from MRSA infection and who had been attended at 5 third-level hospitals in Bogotá, Colombia, were included in the study. Once the isolates had been confirmed, they were classified by using previously described clinical and epidemiologic criteria as health care-associated MRSA (HA-MRSA), community-associated, or nosocomial infections.5,6 To summarize, categorization required a patient’s clinical history to be evaluated, as well as the timing of specimen collection for clinical cultures. Infection in a patient was likely to have been acquired during their hospital stay without any evidence having been presented that infection was incubating or present on admission.

Antimicrobial identification and susceptibility tests

The presence of MRSA was confirmed by simultaneous amplification of nuc and mecA genes. Automated systems (MicroScan combo positive 25 WalkAway plus...
System; Dade Behring, West Sacramento, CA) were used for the antimicrobial susceptibility tests; these were confirmed by the agar dilution method, following Clinical Laboratory Standards Institute recommendations (2008).7

Classifying SCCmec elements and detecting virulence factor encoding genes

SCCmec type and subtype were detected by previously described multiple polymerase chain reaction.8 The presence of lukF-PV and lukS-PV genes (Panton Valentine leuococin [PVL]) was also determined, as was that of 14 genes encoding SEA-SEQ enterotoxins, and of icaA, icaB, icaC, icaD, and icaR genes (forming part of the ica operon, related to biofilm); fnbA, fnbB, fib, clfA, clfB, eta, etc, and tst genes (encoding fibronectin and fibbrinogen binding proteins, clumping factor, exfoliative toxins, and toxic shock syndrome, respectively).

Pulsed-field gel electrophoresis and multilocus sequence typing

The methodology described by Cruz et al was used for MRSA pulsed-field gel electrophoresis (PFGE)9; Dice coefficient-based methodology was used for the analysis (greater than 85% similarity), and multilocus sequence typing was performed using the technique described by Enright et al.10 PFGE was carried out on all isolates, and then multilocus sequence typing was applied to at least 1 isolate from each PFGE type.

RESULTS

Two hundred fifty MRSA infections (66 [26.4%] with CA-MRSA) were confirmed during the study period. Table 1 describes the clinical and demographic characteristics of the 26 patients suffering from nosocomial infection in which the presence of CA-MRSA strain was confirmed; the remaining 40 CA-MRSA isolates were considered to be due to community-associated infections. CA-MRSA nosocomial infections occurred in people older than 60 years and were especially related to surgical site infection and bacteremia; there was a 27% infection-related mortality rate.

CA-MRSA nosocomial infections showed (COL70, COL 86, COL99, COL593, COL614) to be temporal and geographically related in 5 patients of the health centers. A close genetic relationship between isolates was confirmed by PFGE, possible cross transmission being considered (Fig 1). Two similar strains of CA-MRSA nosocomial infections were found in 2 different health centers. Each strain showed a temporal and geographic relationship between 3 (COL70, COL86, COL99) and 2 (COL593, COL614) patients, respectively. A close genetic relationship between isolates was confirmed by PFGE, possible cross transmission being considered (Fig 1).

Figure 1 shows the molecular characteristics of the isolates analyzed in this study. PFGE patterns revealed 12 different pulsotypes having ST8 similarity coefficients ranging from 87% to 92% (compared with the USA300-0114 clone). Most isolates presented SCCmec IVc (96%), found for the first time in Colombia; 30.8% of these being only resistant to β-lactamase antibiotics, and 53.8% exhibited additional tetracycline resistance. Regarding the presence of virulence factors, the presence of lukF-PV and
factors, 85% of the isolates carried fnbA/B and LukS/F-PV genes; 77% and 81% sek and seq genes, respectively; and 100% clfA/B genes. Interestingly, the eta gene was only detected in 15 isolates (57.7%). However, 96% of the isolates had the ica operon genes needed for biofilm formation; in this case, phenotypical characteristics were not determined.

DISCUSSION

Buitrago et al.11 used phenotype time series analysis to describe the possible circulation and presence of CA-MRSA in invasive infections in 33 Colombian hospitals during the period 2001-2007; they found that the annual MRSA percentage remained constant during the 7 years of surveillance (45.1% on average) but that there was an increase in the MRSA strains’ multi-susceptible phenotype. Our findings were convincing, not just in terms of the molecular confirmation of the presence of CA-MRSA and associating it with nosocomial infection, but in demonstrating that it spreads and could lead to outbreaks.

Even though severe CA-MRSA infection presence and transmission have already been described,12,13 more CA-MRSA strains were related to nosocomial infection in this study than those described by Benoit et al.13 in Uruguay (39.4% compared with 21%); CA-MRSA could quickly replace HA-MRSA in Colombian hospitals. These findings are concerning because MRSA and nosocomial infection prevalence in developing countries hospitals is greater than in the United States,14 probably because of resource-limited settings and less adherence to control measures, thus facilitating dissemination. Rosenthal et al.14 have described device-associated nosocomial infection rates as being higher in the rest of the world than in the United States (80.8% compared with 48.1%), with their study also showing high MRSA prevalence in intensive care units in Latin America, Asia, Africa, and Europe. This has created a new challenge for the infection committees of hospitals with limited resources. When patients colonized with CA-MRSA are admitted (without suitable screening and the pertinent isolates being taken), it is possible that endemic CA-MRSA may be generated within a particular
hospital or from a patient coming from the community. Based on recently circulated recommendations for preventing MRSA transmission, the proposed measures must be established in Colombia, and the most cost-effective ones prioritized (adherence to handwashing protocols, evaluating MRSA-related risks, monitoring programs, and others), ensuring that they are rapidly implemented. However, the presence of CA-MRSA could be suspected from a particular patient’s phenotype profile, given that most hospitals in resource-limited settings are not actively screening MRSA on admission. In this case, the presence of oxacillin and tetracycline or oxacillin resistance could only be considered as a CA-MRSA movement marker.

It should be stressed that CA-MRSA is highly virulent (especially because PVL toxin genes have an 85% virulence factor) and that biofilm can be formed, thereby playing a possible role in bacterial adhesion and in evading the host’s immune system. The infection-associated mortality reached 27% in this study, and 11% of the patients presented a relapse even though there was no direct relationship with any of the virulence factors. It is worth noting that CA-MRSA virulence could be greater than that for classic MRSA and that the mortality rate could increase in spite of suitable antibiotic management in compromised hosts (older people, those having had prior surgery, the critically ill, those suffering severe infections, and in those in whom invasive devices are used). Although some of the detected cases involved superficial skin and soft tissue infections, several invasive infections were identified (9 bacteriemia cases), thereby hindering their management and worsening the outcome. One of this report’s limitations lies in the fact that it was not possible to identify whether a patient had already become colonized with CA-MRSA before being admitted or whether he/she had acquired it during his/her stay in a health care institution. Hospital-associated CA-MRSA infections have thus emerged in Colombia, thereby requiring that measures be taken for preventing their dissemination and improving the administration of appropriate initial antibiotic therapy.

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