Microbiology

<u>Latre Buntaran</u>

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Bacteriology C/S

- Plate sample on blood agar plate ± others
- Incubate 35⁰ 37⁰C overnight (~18 hours)
- Read plate for pathogens
- Do work-up to identify pathogens
- Do sensitivity testing if available

Gram Stain

- Differential staining process used in microscopy of specimens and bacterial colonies
- Bacteria divided into 2 groups of Gram positive (deep blue or purple) and Gram negative (red or pink)
- Can be used to differentiate epithelial and inflammatory cells

Skin Flora

• Transient

- Microbes that happen to be deposited on the skin but do not multiply there.
- Maybe removed by a thorough wash with soap and water

• Resident

- Colonise the skin.
- Cannot be removed by washing with soap and water
- Can be reduced to small numbers by disinfectants

Transient Bacteria

• Exogenous in origin

• Located on the skin surface

• Examples are S.aureus, E.coli

Resident Bacteria

Endogenous in origin

• Located in the ducts of glands, hair follicles and between squamous cells

• Bacteria are mainly CNS, S.aureus, Corynebacterium spp., Propionibacterium acnes

Staphylococcus

- They are Gram-positive cocci that appear microscopically like a bunch of grapes
- S.aureus is coagulase positive

• Coagulase negative staphylococci are many in number eg. S. saprophyticus

Epidemiology of Staphylococcus

• S.aureus is ubiquitous.

- Colonise (nares, axillae, perineum,etc) about 30% of humans.
- Person-to-person spread by hands (common), nasal discharges and aerosol (rare)
- CNS are ubiquitous on skin and mucosal surfaces.
 - Infection usually endogenous and is common cause of nosocomial line infections
 - Bacteria has low pathogenicity but cause infection in patients with foreign bodies

Pathogenesis of S.aureus infection

- Colonisation usually precedes infection
- Major reservoir varies eg. nose for dialysis patients, oropharynx for intubated patients
- Some factors that promote colonisation :
 - Prolonged hospitalisation
 - Diabetics
 - Eczema
 - Haemodialysis patients
 - IV drug abusers
 - Elderly
 - HIV patients
- To initiate infection, the strain must adhere to tissue/surface mediated by receptors that involve host protein interactions

Pathogenesis of CNS

- Seldom occur among healthy individuals
- Important host factors are defects in mucosal membrane/skin, immunosupression and presence of foreign body
- Patients with systemic or localised defects in opsonophagocytic activity are at increased risk of infection
- In neonates administration of IV lipid emulsion is an independent risk factor
- Preceeding antibiotic therapy

CNS Infections

 Single most important factor associated with CNS infections is the presence of a foreign body eg. indwelling catheters, intravascular catheters, CSF shunts, prosthetic joints etc.

Staphylococci produce disease in 2 ways :

• Directly by invasion and subsequent : tissue destruction whether locally or by haematogeneous spread

Through the effects of toxins

Infections produced by S. aureus

• Direct invasion

• Dissemination (haematogenous)

Toxin mediated

Direct Invasion by S. aureus

1. Superficial

- Pyoderma including impetigo, paronychia
- Skin and soft tissue infections eg. boils, cellulitis

2. Deep

- Septic arthritis
- Osteomyelitis
- Pyomyositis

Haematogenous Dissemination

 Bacteremia with or without septic shock or multiple organ system failure

 Metastatic abscess formation (brain, lung, liver, spleen, kidney, genital tract, retroperitoneum)

Toxin Mediated S.aureus Infection

- Skin disease eg. staphylococcal scaldedskin syndrome
- Gastrointestinal disease eg. gastroenteritis
- Multisystem disease eg. toxic shock syndrome

Virulence Factors of S.aureus

- Enzymes eg. catalase, hyaluronidase, lipase
- Toxins eg. β-toxins, leukocidin, enterotoxin, TSS toxin 1
- Immune system factors eg. antigen-antibody complexes, superantigens
- Cell wall components eg. activated C, tnf, other cytokines & mediator systems

Sequence of Events in Serious S.aureus Infections

- Colonization → carriage → toxin production
- Barrier breach or break
- Invasion
- Bacteremia or septicaemia
- Syndrome of severe sepsis (activated C, cytokines, toxin, other mediators)
- Complications (suppurative and inflammatory)
- Death

Streptococcus

- Gram-positive cocci in chains
- Can be beta (clear), alpha (greenish) or nonhaemolytic on blood agar plate
- Group A beta-haemolytic streptococci or S.pyogenes
- Vancomycin resistant enterococci (VRE) is an important nosocomial pathogen

Epidemiology of *S.pyogenes* (1)

 Common cause of community-acquired pharyngitis and skin infections.

 Carriage in throat , skin, rectum (<1%) and vagina (<1%)

• Likely that besides contact transmission, there is airborne transmission in SSI

Epidemiology of S.*pyogenes* (2)

 Implicated in burn wound infections, necrotising fasciitis, puerperal and neonatal infections

 Important as cause Acute glomerulonephritis and Acute Rheumatic Heart Disease

Epidemiology of Enterococci

- Normal habitat in gastrointestinal tract
- Reservoir sites are wounds, skin (inguinal, antecubital fossa), chronic decubital ulcers, vagina and perineal or meatal areas of hospitalised males
- Most important method of spread of VRE is through transient carriage on hands of HCWs

Pathogenesis of Streptococcal Toxic Shock Syndrome (TSS)

- Initial focus is the skin and soft tissues of previously healthy individuals
- Strains have a high propensity to initiate invasive disease
- Pathogenesis not definitely elucidated. Most interest on pyrogenic exotoxins (SPEs)
- Other virulence properties involved eg. M protein, enzymes

Pathogenesis of Nosocomial Infection by Enterococci

- Generally enterococci are part of normal flora and have little pathogenic potential in normal host
- Opportunistic pathogens in the elderly, immunocompromised or when invasive procedures are done
- Little known about virulence factors
- Cause UTI, bacteremia, endocarditis, intraabdominal/pelvic infections, skin/soft tissue infections etc.

Gram-negative Bacteria

• Fermenters eg. Escherichia coli

 Non-fermenters - Gram - negative bacteria that do not utilize carbohydrates as a source of energy or degrade them through metabolic pathways other than fermentation eg. Acinetobacter baumannii

Enterobacteriaceae

- Family of fermentative GNB commonly isolated from clinical specimens and are therefore also important nosocomial pathogens.
- Facultative anaerobes that with few exceptions ferment glucose, reduce nitrate to nitrite and are oxidase negative.

Enterobacteriaceae examples

- Escherichia coli
- *Klebsiella* species (*pneumoniae*)
- Enterobacter species
- Proteus mirabilis

Pathogenesis of NI caused by Enterobacteriaceae

- 1. Pathogen-specific factors
- Adhesion
- Capsules
- Iron chelators
- Other factors and Tropisms

2. Host factors

- control the extent of colonisation
- determine the susceptibility of the host to disease

Adhesion

- Bacterial adhesion → attachment to surfaces → colonisation → overgrowth → tissue invasion.
- Mediated by both fimbrial and nonfimbrial adhesins that are encoded on plasmids and on the bacterial genome eg. P fimbrae - can anchor bacteria to uroepithelial cells → cause pyelonephritis in adults and children.

Capsules

• Can partly protect the bacteria against the bactericidal effect of serum and against phagocytosis eg. *Klebsiella* spp.

• Can also directly suppress the host immune response.

Iron Chelators

- Ability of some GNB to acquire iron for growth becomes an important factor in many infections.
- Almost all the iron in the human body is bound to various proteins eg. Hb → limits the availability of free iron for utilization by bacteria.
- Some bacteria have high affinity iron chelators (siderophores) that can scavenge iron for growth purposes.

Other Pathogen Factors & Tropisms

- Virulence factors eg. motility, growth in alkaline pH, colonise skin of HCWs, produce urease→hydrolyse urea in urine→increases urinary pH.
- Liberation of toxins eg. endotoxin.
- Some bacteria have increased device affinity or specific tropism eg. *Enterobacter* spp grow in infusion fluids.

Host Factors

- Control the extent of colonisation with Enterobacteriaceae eg. oropharyngeal colonisation increases with the severity of the underlying disease.
- Determine the susceptibility of the host to developing disease eg. diabetics more susceptible.

Epidemiology of NI caused by Enterobacteriaceae

- Reservoir eg. GIT and oropharyngeal
- Factors controlling colonisation.
- Gastric pH
- Fibronectin
- Hormonal modulation of colonisation
- Modes of transmission and outbreaks

Factors controlling colonisation

- Sick patients endogenous oropharyngeal flora is a common source of Enterobacteriaceae → nosocomial GN pneumonia. Also increase in number under selective pressure of antibiotic use or with increased hospitalisation.
- Intestinal colonisation is found in both healthy and hospitalised patients.

Gastric pH

- Stomach normally sterile.
- Colonisation occurs in critically ill patients and it increases with time.
- Increased pH increases gastric colonization with gram negative bacteria.
- However whether gastric colonisation influences oropharyngeal colonisation and the bacteria then be aspirated into the lower respiratory tract remains unclear.

Fibronectin

- A glycoprotein present on oral epithelial cells which facilitates adherence of Gram-positive bacteria.
- Loss of fibronectin uncovers cellular binding sites and leads to increased rate of oropharyngeal colonisation by GNB.
- Loss of fibronectin when salivary protease secretion is increased in critically ill patients and which then degrades the fibronectin.

Hormonal modulation of colonisation

- Very little known.
- Recurrent UTIs occur in postmenopausal females. Hypothesized that the lack of oestrogen leads to diminished colonisation of the vagina by lactobacilli → colonisation by *E. coli* especially because of increased vaginal pH(>4).

Modes of Transmission and Outbreaks of Enterobacteriaceae

 Primarily spread from person to person via unwashed hands of HCWs or from environmental reservoirs to patients.

 Extensive use of 3rd generation cephalosporins mostly as monotherapy is a risk factor for ESBLs (extended spectrum β lactamases) in ICUs and oncology wards.

Non fermenters

- Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Acinetobacter spp., Stenotrophomonas maltophilia
- Have minimal growth requirements.
- Differ substantially in virulence.
- Important nosocomial pathogens because of the many reservoirs they inhabit in the hospital and their resistance to commonly used antibiotics.

Rate of Nosocomial Infection for non-fermentative GNB

 NNIS reported during 1987-1997 that 13% of nosocomial infections were due to nonfermentative gram-negative bacilli.

 Isolated mainly from the respiratory and urinary tracts.

Pathogenicity of Non fermenters

- Attachment to host cells.
- Production of extracellular polysaccharides (glycocalyx or alginate).
- Production of extracellular toxins (exotoxins).
- Resistance to serum bactericidal factors.
- Presence of lipopolysaccharide cell wall (endotoxin).

Pseudomonas aeruginosa

- Adheres to tracheal and corneal epithelium which is enhanced by cell injury due to viral infection or trauma.
- Glycocalyx facilitates adherence→chronic infection in cystic fibrosis. Inhibits phagocytosis, i/c killing by leukocytes and penetration of aminoglycosides.
- Exotoxins and other enzymes increases virulence.
- Cell wall produces endotoxins.

Epidemiology of *P*. *aeruginosa* infections

- Conveyed into hospitals via food (vegetables) and tap water. Reservoir in hospitals are moist areas, fluids etc.
- Patients especially haematology-oncology patients are colonised in the rectum and pharynx.
- Nosocomial transmission via contact with environmental sources or from patient-to-patient spread via personnel.

Stenotrophomonas maltophilia

- Not particularly virulent but can cause serious infection in compromised host.
- Majority of strains produce proteases including hyaluronidase and elastase which are potential virulence factors.
- Selected for in patients treated with imipenem.
- Transmission via hands of personnel.

Acinetobacter spp.

- Widely distributed in nature.
- Part of normal flora of humans (one-fourth of normal and one-third of hospitalised individuals) and many animals.
- Usually infects immunocompromised or debilitated hosts.
- Multiple modes of transmission involving environment and hands of HCWs.
- Sometimes cause outbreaks in ICUs and Burns.

Resistance of Non fermenters

 Commonly used antibiotics. Need antibiotic susceptibility testing because sometimes hard to predict.

• Disinfectants eg. *P. aeruginosa*, *B. cepacia* found in providone iodine, chlorhexidine, benzalkonium chloride, hexachlorophene.

Replication and Survival of Non fermenters

- Pseudomonas spp. and Burkholderia cepacia replicate in a wide range of moist environments eg. tap & deionised water.
- Capable of prolonged survival in moist or dry environments eg. A. calcoaceticus survived 9 days on dry Formica surface cf. 1 day for P. aeruginosa.

Conclusion

Prevention and control of hospital acquired infections by various types of bacteria require attention to many aspects of patient care and the hospital environment.

