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PREVALENCE AND ANTIBIOTIC RESISTANCE PROFILE OF METHICILLIN RESISTANT STAPHYLOCOCCUS AUREUS OBTAINED FROM CLINICAL SPECIMENS IN FEDERAL MEDICAL CENTRE MAKURDI, BENUE STATE

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ABSTRACT

Background: The emergence of Methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) has caused a new level of threat to microbial infection control and antimicrobial therapy. **Aim:** To determine the prevalence and antibiogram of Methicillin resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA) isolated from clinical specimens in the Federal Medical Centre Makurdi, Nigeria. **Methods:** A total of 86 *S. aureus* isolates were recovered from 400 clinical specimens. *S. aureus* isolates were identified by growth and fermentation on mannitol salt agar, Gram stain, and positive results for catalase and tube coagulase tests. The 86 *S. aureus* isolates were tested for susceptibility to antibacterial agents by the disc diffusion method. *S. aureus* isolates that were resistant to cefoxitin were regarded as MRSA. PCR was used to confirm MRSA by amplification of the *mecA* gene. **Results:** Fourteen (16.3%) of the 86 *S. aureus* isolates were resistant to cefoxitin and positive for *mecA* gene by PCR. Most of the MRSA isolates were cultured from wound 7 (8.1%) and blood 3 (3.5%) specimens. Majority of MRSA isolates were recovered from males 11 (18.6%) patients and age group 1-17 years 2 (33.3%) and 18-33 years 8 (18.6%). All fourteen (100.0%) MRSA isolates were resistant to penicillin and trimethoprim. Also, high rate of resistance was observed in ciprofloxacin 13/14 (92.8%) and tetracycline 10/14 (71.4%). **Conclusion:** The study has revealed MRSA prevalence of 16.3% and provided a platform for future studies on MRSA in the study area.

KEYWORDS: Antibiogram, Polymerase chain reaction, MRSA.

INTRODUCTION

Methicillin Resistant Staphylococcus aureus evolved through the acquisition of the *mecA* gene by previously susceptible isolates. The *mecA* gene is responsible for the synthesis of a novel penicillin-binding protein known as penicillin-binding protein 2a, which has decreased binding affinity for penicillin and cephalosporins and therefore confers resistance to beta-lactam antibiotics except the 5th generation cephalosporin, Ceftaroline (ALFouzan *et al.*, 2020).

Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) is a major cause of healthcare and community-associated infections worldwide (Abdel-Maksoud *et al.*, 2016; Adam and Abomughaid, 2018). Since its emergence in UK in 1960s (Jevons, 1961), the frequency of isolation of MRSA has been on the increase worldwide, (Sit *et al.*,

2017; Lakhundi and Zhang, 2018), including Nigeria (Ayepola *et al.*, 2015; Nsofor *et al.*, 2016; Essien *et al.*, 2021).

It has been established that the epidemiology of MRSA strains is constantly changing in different geographical locations (Akanbi and Mbe, 2012; Yusuf and Airauhi, 2015; Essien *et al.*, 2021; Umoh *et al.*, 2024). It is essential to study MRSA isolates from local healthcare facilities to obtain local data that can be utilized for empirical treatment of infections and design appropriate infection control measures.

In Nigeria, the prevalence of MRSA isolates obtained from clinical specimens have been studied in the various geopolitical zones; Southwest (Ghebremedhin *et al.*, 2009; Raji *et al.*, 2013; Ogbolu *et al.*, 2015), Southsouth

(Azeez *et al.*, 2008; Yusuf and Airauhi, 2015; Umoh *et al.*, 2024), South East (Egbuobi *et al.*, 2014; Okoye *et al.*, 2022), Northeast (Okon *et al.*, 2013; Okon *et al.*, 2014) Northwest (Nwankwo *et al.*, 2010; Idri *et al.*, 2019) and Northcentral (Akanbi and Mbe, 2012; Essien *et al.*, 2021). However, there are limited data on prevalence of MRSA colonizing or infecting patients in Makurdi, North Central Nigeria.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Ethical approval

This study was approved by the Ethical Committee of the Federal Medical Centre Makurdi, Benue State (FMH/FMC/MED.108/VOL.1/X).

Bacterial isolates

S. aureus isolates were sourced from different clinical specimens obtained from patients attending Federal Medical Centre Makurdi, Benue State. The Federal Medical Centre is a 400-bed hospital situated in Makurdi, Benue State in the North-Central zone of Nigeria. A total of 86 *S. aureus* isolates were sourced from wounds, ear, catheters, urethra, and high vagina, urine, blood, aspirate, throat swab and cerebrospinal fluid. The *S. aureus* was identified by growth and fermentation on mannitol salt agar, Gram stain, and positive results for catalase and tube coagulase tests at the Department of Medical Laboratory Science, University of Jos, Nigeria.

Antibiotic Susceptibility Testing

Antibiotic susceptibility testing was performed by the disc diffusion method according to the Clinical Laboratory Standard Institute (CLSI, 2017). Pure colonies of an overnight culture of *S. aureus* on Brain Heart Infusion agar were suspended in normal saline and adjusted to a turbidity equivalent to 0.5 X MacFarland standard (1.5×10^8 CFU/ml). The suspension was poured on to Mueller-Hinton agar (MHA) (Oxoid, UK) plates and excess fluid was discarded and plates left to dry. Antibiotic discs were placed on the dried surface and the plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 hours. *S. aureus* strain, ATCC 25923, was used as control for sensitivity testing. The inhibition zone around each disc was measured and interpreted according to the Clinical Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI, 2017).

The following antibiotic impregnated discs were used for this study: penicillin (10 units), cefoxitin (30 µg), gentamicin (10 µg), erythromycin (15 µg), rifampicin (5 µg), Tetracycline (30 µg), trimethoprim (25 µg), Chloramphenicol (30 µg) and Ciprofloxacin (5 µg). Bacterial isolates resistant to cefoxitin (\leq 14mm) were regarded as MRSA (CLSI, 2017).

Molecular analysis of *S. aureus* isolates Extraction of *S. aureus* DNA for PCR

DNA isolation was carried out according to the method described by (Udo *et al.*, 1999). Three to five identical colonies of an overnight culture were picked using a

sterile loop and suspended in a microfuge tube containing 50 µl of lysostaphin (150 µg/ml) and 10 µl of RNase (10 µg/ml) solution. The tube was incubated at 37 °C in the heating block (Thermo Mixer, Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany) for 20 min. To each sample, 50 µl of proteinase K (20 mg/ml) and 150 µl of Tris buffer (0.1 M) were added and mixed by pipetting. The tube was then incubated at 60 °C in the water bath (VWR Scientific Co., Shellware Lab, United States) for 10 min. The tube was transferred to a heating block at 95°C for 10 min to inactivate proteinase K activity. Finally, the tube was centrifuged, and the extracted DNA was stored at 4 °C till used for PCR.

Preparation of agarose gel

Gel electrophoresis was used to separate DNA based on their sizes by applying an electric field to move the DNA through an agarose matrix. Two 2% (w/v) concentration of agarose gel used in the study was prepared by weighing and dissolving 4 grams of agarose powder (Promega, Madison, USA) in 200 ml Tris-Borate-EDTA (1XTBE buffer) (Gibco, UK) using microwaved oven. The mixture was heated in a microwave oven until it became clear and transparent. The molten agarose was allowed to cool to about 45oC and 300 µl (1mg/ml) of ethidium bromide was added to the gel. The molten gel was gently poured in a mould (casting) and was allowed to solidify after which the comb was removed to create wells for DNA sample application. The gel was transferred from the mould into an electrophoretic chamber (Bio-Rad, USA) filled with (1x TBE) buffer.

Detection of *mecA* gene by PCR

Methicillin resistance was determined by mecA PCR as described (Zhang et al., 2005). Amplification of mecA gene was performed on all isolates resistant to cefoxitin. The total reaction volume 25 μ L was used for PCR. This volume contained 2µl of genomic DNA, 12.5 µl of Hot Star Red Taq Master mix, 8.5µl PCR H₂O and 2µl each of mecA primers (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). mecA gene was amplified with the following primers: mecA- F: (F-GTG AAG ATA TAC CAA GTG ATT); mecA-R (ATGCGC TAT AGA TTG AAA GGA T). DNA amplification was carried out for 40 cycles according to the following protocol: denaturation at 94° C for 30 s, annealing at 55° C for 30 s, and extension at 72° C for 1 min with a final extension at 72° C for 5 min. After amplification by PCR, 8 µl of each of PCR products were mixed with tracking dye and transferred accordingly into the wells of 2% (w/v) agarose gels. mecA positive DNA sample was included as control in every batch of the agarose run. The electrophoresis chamber was connected to the power source and the DNA was run at 120V for 30 minutes. The separated DNA fragments in the gel were transferred into a transilluminator and were visualized by illumination of UV light. The DNA bands were recorded by photography using computer system.

Statistical analysis

Data obtained from this study were analyzed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 26.0. The MRSA, gender, age-group, were compared using Pearson chi-square tests. Results were presented in tables, bar chart and percentages. P-values of <0.05 were considered statistically significant.



Figure 1: Agarose gel electrophoresis used for detection of amplified mecA gene by PCR.

Lanes 1 and 14 shows 100bp DNA molecular size ladder used for sizing DNA bands of test samples. The ladder consists of 100bp DNA bands ranging from 100 to 1500bp. Lanes 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11 represent DNA bands from test samples that were positive for *mecA*. Lane 12 and 13 represent negative and positive mecA control samples respectively. The amplified *mecA* gene is 147 bp in size, therefore it was located between 100bp and 200bp.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A total of 86 *S. aureus* were isolated from 10 different types of clinical specimens. Fourteen MRSA were detected among the *S. aureus* isolates, yielding an overall prevalence of 14/86 (16.3%). The distribution of MRSA

isolates according to different specimens is summarized in Table1. Most of the MRSA isolates were recovered from wound swabs (7/86; 8.1%), followed by blood culture (3/84; 3.5%), urine, urethral, ear swab and CSF each produced one MRSA isolate (N=1; I.5%). Majority of MRSA isolates recovered from wound swab and blood culture. These results were similar to results of studies conducted in South-west, Nigeria (Ghebremedhin *et al.*, 2009; Alli *et al.*, 2015; Ayepola *et al.*, 2015), North-Central, Nigeria (Abdullahi and Iregbu, 2018), North-Eastern, Nigeria (Okon *et al.*, 2011, Akanbi and Mbe, 2012; Okon *et al.*, 2014) and South-South, Nigeria (Yusuf and Airauhi, 2015) that demonstrated the predominance of MRSA isolates in wound swabs and blood samples.

| Table 1: Distribution of | MRSA according | to types | of clinical | specimens. |
|--------------------------|----------------|----------|-------------|------------|
| | | | | |

| Specimens | No. of <i>S. aureus</i> isolates N=86 | No. of MRSA N=14 (%) |
|------------|--|-------------------------|
| Wound swab | 46 | 7 (8.1) |
| Urine | 14 | 1 (1.5) |
| Blood | 10 | 3 (3.5) |
| Catheter | 4 | 0 (0.0) |
| Urethral | 4 | 1 (1.5) |
| HVS | 3 | 0 (0.0) |
| Throat | 2 | 0 (0.0) |
| Aspirate | 1 | 0 (0.0) |
| Ear swab | 1 | 1 (1.5) |
| CSF | 1 | 1 (1.5) |

Table 2. Indicates the distribution of MRSA with respect to gender and age group of patients. With regards to gender of patients, more MRSA 11/59 (18.6%) isolates were recovered in male patients compared to female patients 3/27 (11.1%). However, the differences in the number of MRSA isolates obtained from male and female patients was not statistically significant (P=0.380; P>0.05) which implies that gender was not a significant determining factor for MRSA infection in this study.

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Most of the MRSA 3/6 (33.3%) and 8/43 (18.6%) isolates were obtained from patients within 1-17 years and 18-33 years respectively. This indicates that younger patients were at greater risk of infections caused by MRSA. This observation agreed with reports from similar previous studies in Nigeria (Abdullahi and Iregbu, 2018), Ethiopia (Dilnessa and Bitew, 2016) and Libya (Buzaid *et al.*, 2011). Statistically, there was no significant difference in the occurrence of MRSA isolates among the age group investigated (P>0.05; P=0.411).

| Gender | No. of S. aureus | | |
|-----------|------------------|----------|-------|
| Male | 59 | 11(18.6) | 0.380 |
| Female | 27 | 3 (11.1) | |
| Age group | | | |
| 1-17 | 6 | 2 (33.3) | 0.411 |
| 18-33 | 43 | 8 (18.6) | |
| 34-50 | 31 | 4 (12.9) | |
| 51+ | 6 | 0 (0.0) | |
| | | | |

Table 2: Distribution of MRSA in patients with different demographic backgrounds.

Figure 2. Reveals the resistant profile of the fourteen MRSA recovered in the study. Cefoxitin is a surrogate marker for methicillin resistance. Therefore, the 14 cefoxitin-resistant S. aureus isolates were considered methicillin resistant yielding a prevalence of 14/86 (16.3%). Methicillin resistance in these isolates were confirmed by the detection of mecA gene by PCR. All 14 cefoxitin-resistant strains were positive for mecA. Besides, all MRSA isolates were resistant to penicillin and trimethoprim (N=14;100.0%). Also, the rate of resistant was high for ciprofloxacin 13/14 (92.8%) and tetracycline 10/14 (71.4%). This was followed by gentamicin 7/14 (50.0%). Three isolates each were resistant to erythromycin and chloramphenicol 3/14 (21.4%). The least resistant 1/14 (7.1%) was observed in rifampicin.

The prevalence of MRSA (16.3%) observed in this study was similar to previous studies conducted on S. aureus by Ayepola et al., (2015) who reported 15.5% prevalence in a multicenter study of S. aureus investigated in healthcare facilities in Southwest Nigeria. Also, studies that revealed higher prevalence have been reported in Nigeria; such as 22.6% from North Central (Mofolorunsho et al., 2022), the 43.3% and 33.3% prevalence in Jos University Teaching Hospital, North Central Nigeria by Ikeh (2003) and Okwu et al., (2014) respectively, 42.9% was reported by Bawonda et al., (2024) at the University of Uyo teaching Hospital, and the 42.7% prevalence reported in University of Benin Teaching Hospital, South-South Nigeria by Yusuf and Airauhi, (2015). In addition, Nsofor et al., (2016) reported that 38.5% of S. aureus obtained at Abia State University Teaching Hospital, Aba, Southeast Nigeria were MRSA.

Furthermore, studies outside Nigeria indicating higher MRSA prevalence were as follows; 47.0% by Deyno *et al.*, (2017) in Ethiopia, 42.5% by Pirko *et al.*, (2019) in Iraq and in Saudi Arabia (Adam and Abomughaid, 2018; 38%).

In contrast, the 16.3% prevalence reported in this study was higher than 13.1% reported among *S. aureus* obtained at the University of Abuja Teaching Hospital (Akanbi and Mbe, 2012) North Central Nigeria, Okon *et al.*, (2011) and Okon *et al.*, (2014) revealed MRSA prevalence of 12.5% and 8% respectively from Northeast Nigeria. These reports highlight differences in the prevalence of MRSA in different health facilities in

Nigeria which may reflect differences in antibiotic use or infection control practices.

All the MRSA isolates in this study were resistant to trimethoprim. Trimethoprim resistance was also detected in 100% of MRSA isolates investigated in a hospital in Ethiopia (Dilnessa and Bitew, 2016). Elsewhere, 95% of MRSA isolates investigated in Pakistan (Akhter *et al.*, 2009) and 88.2% of MRSA reported from Uganda (Ojulong *et al.*, 2009) were trimethoprim resistant. The high rate of resistance to trimethoprim is cause for concern, since it can no longer be used for treating infections caused by MRSA.

Ciprofloxacin resistance was detected in 92.8% of the MRSA isolates in this study. Similarly, high prevalence of ciprofloxacin resistance was reported in MRSA studied in other parts of Nigeria; (Yusuf and Airauhi, 2015; 100%) in North Central Nigeria, (Ugbogu *et al.*, 2007; 58.8%) and (Abdullahi and Iregbu, 2018; 62.8%) in Southeastern and North Central Nigeria respectively. Similarly, studies conducted elsewhere have observed a higher and lower resistance to ciprofloxacin, Uganda (Ojulong *et al.*, 2009; 70.6%) and the 8.0% prevalence reported from Iraq (Mussa *et al.*, 2018). The high rate of resistance to ciprofloxacin observed in this and other studies implies that ciprofloxacin should not be used in the treatment of MRSA infections without the results of antibiotic susceptibility testing.

Tetracycline resistance was detected in 71.4 (10/14) of the MRSA isolates in this study. A study by Yusuf and Airauhi, (2015) reported tetracycline resistance in 100% of their isolates. Other studies by Abdullahi and Iregbu (2018), Olowe *et al.*, (2012), and Adetayo *et al.*, (2014) reported tetracycline resistance in 88.0%, 87.5 % and 57.1% respectively in different centres in Nigeria. Furthermore, studies on antibiotic resistance rates in South Africa (Amoako *et al.*, 2019) and Nepal (Shahi *et al.*, 2018) reported 62.67% and 33.3% respectively among MRSA that they investigated. The differences in the proportion of tetracycline-resistant MRSA strains in different studies may reflect differences in antibiotic use.

In this study, 7/14 (50.0%) of the MRSA isolates were resistant to gentamicin. Similar level of resistance to gentamicin (42.9%) was published by Adetayo *et al.*, (2014) from Southwest, Nigeria. Other studies detailing different prevalence of gentamicin resistance in MRSA in Nigeria include 100% by Yusuf and Airauhi, (2015),

62.5% by Olowe *et al.*, (2007), 53.6% by Abdullahi and Iregbu, (2018), 54.5% by Udobi *et al.*, (2013), 58.8% in Uganda (Ojulong *et al.*, 2009), 84.4% in Iran (Khosravi *et al.*, 2017), 55% in Pakistan (Akhter *et al.*, 2009) and 55.1% in India (Abdul *et al.*, 2017). In contrast, lower level (25.2%) of gentamicin resistant-MRSA was reported by Akpaka *et al.*, (2017) from Trinidad and Tobago and Cameroon (32.0%) (Njoungang *et al.*, 2015). Interestingly, all MRSA isolates investigated by Ghebremedhin *et al.*, (2009) were susceptible to gentamicin.

The 21.4 (3/14) resistance rate to erythromycin in this study was much lower than the 60.0% prevalence reported previously among MRSA isolated in Abuja-Nigeria (Abdullahi and Iregbu, 2018). Higher resistance rates of erythromycin resistance in MRSA were published in Ethiopia (100%; Dilnessa and Bitew, 2016), Pakistan (70%; Akhter *et al.*, 2009), India (63.2%; Rajaduraipandi *et al.*, 2006), Cameroon (50%; Njoungang *et al.*, 2015) and Turkey (58.1%; Hanci *et al.*, 2017).

Chloramphenicol resistance was detected in 21.4% (3/14) of the MRSA isolates in this study. Similarly, proportions of MRSA resistant to chloramphenicol;

28.4%, 24.1% and 33.1% were reported previously in Nigeria (Onelum *et al*, 2015), Pakistan (Fayyaz *et al.*, 2013) and Kaleem *et al.*, (2010) respectively. Resistance rates lower than what was obtained in this study were reported from Kuwait (8.2%) by Boswihi *et al.*, (2016), 4.8% in the Gambia by Darboe *et al.*, (2019), 16.75% from Iran by Sales *et al.*, (2018) and 19% in South Africa by Marais *et al.*, (2009). Higher resistance rates have been observed in other previous studies namely, 78.8% by Azeez-Akande *et al.*, (2008) and 70.1% Nsofor *et al.*, (2016) in Nigeria, 88.2% by Ojulong *et al.*, (2018) from India. These results highlight differences in the prevalence of chloramphenicol resistance in MRSA obtained in different geographic regions.

Resistance to rifampicin 1/14 (7.1%) was detected in small number of MRSA isolates indicating that these antibiotics is still active against most MRSA isolates. Similarly, low prevalence of resistance to rifampicin (6.4%) among MRSA isolates was observed in a study reported previously in Kano, North Western, Nigeria (Kumurya, 2015). Elsewhere, similar low resistant (6.2%) was reported among MRSA isolates by Yilmaz and Aslantas (2017) in Turkey.



Figure 2: Antibiotic sensitivity profile of MRSA isolates.

CONCLUSION

The study has documented the prevalence of MRSA in *S. aureus* isolated in Federal Medical Center Makurdi, Benue State and provided data on their antibiotic resistance profiles. Also, this study has provided initial data on MRSA obtained in the study area that will serve as a platform for further studies.

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Authors Contributions

Conceptualization: Ezra Dasun; Investigation: Ezra Dasun, Unyime C. Essien; Methodology: Unyime C. Essien, Ezra Dasun; Supervision: E. U. Umeh; Writingoriginal draft: Ezra Dasun; Writing-review and editing: Unyime C. Essien, Davil Nicholas, Nnamdi Harrison Uzoma.

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Disclosure of conflict of interest

We have no conflict of interest to disclose.

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