# Molecular Detection of Methicillin Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* Strains (MRSA) Isolated from Wound Infections

Alsadig Mohammed Abdalla<sup>1\*</sup>, Lamis Ismail Abdalla Silma<sup>2</sup> and Mai Abdul Rahman Masri<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Medicine, Sebha University, Libya

<sup>2</sup>Department of Zoology, Faculty of Science, University of Khartoum, Sudan

\*Corresponding Author: Dr. Alsadig Mohammed Abdalla E-mail: <u>alsadig58@yahoo.com</u>

# Abstract

Methicillin resistant S. aureus (MRSA) has become a major public health problem worldwide. The major mechanism of methicillin resistance in S. aureus is the acquisition and expression of the mecA gene that encodes penicillin-binding protein 2a. Detection of methicillin resistance with phenotypic methods is still a problem especially because of heterogenous expression of mecA gene. The aim of this study was to determine the prevalence of (MRSA) in wound infections among hospitalized patients and to detect the mecA gene and species specific gene for the S. aureus. To compare conventional phenotypic methods in routine laboratory practice (Standard disc diffusion method) with an established molecular method. 66 samples of wound swabs were collected from patient, with septic wounds in Khartoum teaching hospital, Soba hospital and Al-ribat hospital. All the samples were gram stained, cultured in blood agar, mannitol salt agar and subjected to further conventional microbiological methods for identification. Antibiotic sensitivity testing was performed for the confirmed S. aureus isolates using disc diffusion technique to 5 antibiotics: Methicillin, Erythromycin, Vancomycin, Kanamycin and Chloramphenicol. PCR technique was used to identify S. aureus isolates and to detect methicillin resistant genes. Sixty two isolates identified as S. aureus showed positive reaction to the biochemical tests besides the species specific gene by PCR. 48.4% of the isolates were resistant to methicillin, 45.2% to kanamycin, 33.9% to erythromycin. 96.8% were sensitive to chloramphenicol and 87.1% to vancomycin. PCR results revealed that from the 30 strains culture confirmed as MRSA by disc diffusion method, 14 (46.7%) were mecA gene negative, 8 (25%) of the 32 MSSA were mecA gene positive.

Keywords: Molecular Detection, of Methicillin Resistant Staphylococcus aureus, mecA gene

{**Citation:** Alsadig Mohammed Abdalla, Lamis Ismail Abdalla Silma, Mai Abdul Rahman Masri. Molecular detection of methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* strains (MRSA) isolated from wound infections. American Journal of Research Communication, 2014, 2(9): 69-81} www.usa-journals.com, ISSN: 2325-4076.

### Introduction

Staphylococcus aureus is a versatile pathogen capable of growth and infection under diverse conditions. It has an extremely plastic genome capable of high variability and is known to acquire genes from closely related species. It is also a medically important pathogen. It causes a wide spectrum of afflictions (Sivaraman et al., 2009). It is the leading cause of skin and soft tissue infections such as folliculitis and furunculosis, and it is the pathogen most often implicated in wound infections resulting from surgery or trauma. Thus, S. aureus is of major significance in both community-onset and healthcare-associated infections (Huebner and Goldmann, 1999). Staphylococcus aureus continues to be one of the most difficult pathogens to treat because of its resistance to antibiotics. The most resistant strains have typically been found in hospitals, particularly in intensive care units, where antibiotics are extensively used. The widespread availability of penicillin in the 1940s offered hope that modern medicine had defeated this human scourge. Yet by 1960, about half of S. aureus strains were resistant to the antibiotic. Fortunately, a new antibiotic, methicillin, could treat most of these infections. Widespread resistance to methicillin eventually developed and, by 1996, about one-third of S. aureus strains were no longer susceptible to this drug (Patrick, 2007). Methicillin-resistant strains of S. aureus are those that have acquired the ability to grow in the presence of methylpenicillins and derivatives, including methicillin, oxacillin, and nafcillin (Hartman and Tomasz, 1984). However, the term MRSA persists to describe S. aureus isolates resistant to all currently available beta- lactam antibiotics, including cephalosporins and carbapenems. Resistance to methicillin in staphylococci is mediated by the gene mecA. The mecA gene encodes a penicillinbinding protein, PBP2a (also known as PBP2'), which has low affinity for beta-lactam antibiotics (Reynolds and Brown, 1985). The mecA gene is carried on an element termed staphylococcal cassette chromosome mec (SCCmec). SCC elements without a mec determinant have been found in coagulase negative staphylococci (Mongkolrattanothai et al., 2004). In addition to mecA, SCCmec contains two site-specific recombinase genes: cassette chromosome recombinases A and B (called ccrA and ccrB) (Katayama et al., 2000). The recombinase genes encode enzymes that mediate precise excision and site and orientation-specific insertion of SCCmec in the S. aureus chromosome. This is postulated to play a role in the horizontal transmission of mecA within and among staphylococcal species (Hanssen et al., 2004). The major mechanism of methicillin resistance in S. aureus is the acquisition and expression of the mecA gene that encodes penicillin binding protein 2a (PBP2a) (Wenchi et al., 2010). The targets of the antibiotic methicillin in sensitive strains of S. aureus are the penicillin-binding proteins (PBPs), essential enzymes that catalyze transpeptidation cross linking of peptidoglycan in the bacterial cell wall. Inhibition of this reaction with methicillin results in the arrest of cell wall biosynthesis, triggering death of the organism through induction of the autolytic response (Wise and Park, 1965). The mecA gene is the gold standard for the detection of MRSA (Dominguez et al., 1997). The phenotypic methods such as broth microdilution test for minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC), oxacillin disk agar diffusion (ODD) and oxacillin salt screening test (OSS) are widely used in routine microbiological laboratory. The problem with phenotypic methods is that they can be influenced by culture condition such as temperature, medium pH and NaCl content in the medium (Taweeporn et al., 2002). Several PCR methods have been developed to detect the mecA gene (Tokue et al., 1992). The application of genetic techniques to the recognition of determinants of resistance will clearly enhance our understanding of the epidemiology of antimicrobial resistance and improve therapy during the early stages of infection (Kim Lewis et

al., 2002). Methicillin resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA) has become a major public health problem worldwide (Jarvis et al., 2007). In the developing world, mortality associated with severe *S. aureus* infections far exceeds that in developed countries (Nickerson et al., 2009). Recent studies have identified *S. aureus* as the main etiological agent of many infections in sub-Saharan Africa (Nantanda et al., 2008). Cohort studies of patients with MRSA bacteremia have reported increased morbidity, longer hospital length of stay, and higher costs compared with patients with methicillin sensitive *S. aureus* (MSSA) bacteremia (Lodise et al., 2005). Prevention of *S. aureus* infection and reduction of the spread of virulent and resistant strains are therefore of great importance (Wertheim et al., 2005). Rapid diagnostic surveillance is becoming necessary in health care institutions to reduce infection rates and to better understand the disease (Lance and Peterrson, 2008).

In this study we used PCR technique for the identification of *S.aureus* isolates (specific genes) and detection of methicillin resistance genes (mecA) to compare between phenotypic and genotypic methods.

### Materials and methods

Sixty six samples of wound swabs were collected from patients with septic wounds in Khartoum teaching hospital, Soba hospital and Al-ribat hospital.

Isolation attempts were made on all samples on the same day of collection, at the laboratory each sample was direct-plated onto blood agar and mannitol salt agar, incubated at 37 °C for 24 h. *S.aureus* was identified by Gram stain, catalase, slide and tube coagulase test and DNase tests according to procedures described by Cowan and Steel's (Barrow and Feltham, 2003).

### Antibiotics susceptibility testing of isolated bacteria

Sensitivity of the *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates to five antibiotics (methicillin, vancomycin, erythromycin, kanamycin and chloramphenicol) was performed by the Standard disc diffusion method on Mueller-Hinton agar according to criteria of the national committee for clinical laboratory standard (NCCLS, 2004).

### Molecular analysis by using PCR method

PCR technique was used to identify *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates and to detect methicillin resistant genes in all Staphylococci isolates.

### **DNA extraction**

We performed a widely-practiced procedure that involves alkaline lysis of cells. This protocol, often referred to as a plasmid "mini-prep," yields fairly clean DNA quickly and easily.

### PCR amplification

The oligonucleotide primers used in this study were synthesized and purchased from Vivantis Technologies Sdn Bhd, Malaysia. DNA polymerase, dATP, dCTP, dGTP, dTTP, MgCl2 and other chemicals were purchased from the same company.

Primer	Target		Ampilcon
pair	gene	Sequence $(5 \rightarrow 3)$	Size bp
MecA1		AAA ATC GAT GGT AAA GGT TGG C,	
MecA2	MecA	AGT TCT GCA GTA CCG GAT TTG C	532
Sau1	S.aureus	AAT CTT TGT CGG TAC ACG ATA TTC TTC ACG	
Sau2	specific	CGT AAT GAG ATT TCA GTA GAT AAT ACA ACA	107

# Table (1): Characteristics of the primers used in the study

A touchdown PCR assay targeting *S. aureus* species specific gene (Sau), and Methicillin resistance gene (mecA) was used in our study. Amplification was performed using the thermal cycler It was carried out as follows: A PCR mixture (20  $\mu$ l) contained 1 $\mu$ l of each forward and reverse primers, 0.5  $\mu$ l of 100  $\mu$ mol/L dNTP, 1Uof *Taqpolymerase*, 2  $\mu$ l of *Taq* buffer (2×),and 2 $\mu$ Lof template DNA (50 ng). PCR conditions included heated lid 110 °C, temperature 94.0 °C for 00.05 touchduwn 70.0 °C to 52.0 °C cycles 14, start cycle ABL 35 times , initial denaturation (94 °C for 00.30sec), annealing (52 °C for 00.30 sec), and extension (72 °C for 00.45sec), and final extension (72 °C for 5 min) store 4.0°C.

# **Detection of PCR products**

The PCR products were analyzed on a 2% agarose gel. The gel electrophoresis separation method was used. A 2% agarose gel stained with 1µl ethidium bromide was prepared. 5µl of the PCR product is mixed with 3µl bromophenol blue dye. 1.5µl of a 100bp DNA molecular weight marker was transferred into the first well. In the following wells DNA samples products were transferred followed by –ve template. Gel electrophoresis was performed at 85 v for 45 min. and the analysis was done by using an automated gel photo documentation system.

# Results

The total samples collected were 66 samples. The total number of Gram positive bacteria isolated was 62, they were *Staphylococcus aureus*. The biochemical reactions of the organism were similar to those described by Cowan & Steels (Barrows & Feltham, 2003). 48.4% of the isolated bacteria were resistant to methicillin, 45.2% to kanamycin, 33.9% to erythromycin. 96.8% were sensitive to chloramphenicol and 87.1% to vancomycin (Table 2), Figure (3).

PCR technique was used to identify *S. aureus* isolates and to detect methicillin resistant genes. All bacterial isolates showed positive reaction to the biochemical tests besides the species specific gene by PCR. From the 30 strains culture confirmed as MRSA by disc diffusion method, 14 (46.7%) were *mecA* gene negative by PCR, 8 (25%) of the **32** MSSA were mecA gene positive (Table 3), Figures (1,2).

Antibiotic	Disk	Résistant		Sensitive	
	Potency	No.	%	No.	%
Chloramphnicol	30 mcg	2	3.2	60	96.8
Erythromycin	15 mcg	21	33.9	41	66.1
Methicillin	10 mcg	30	48.4	32	51.6
Kanamycin	30 mcg	28	45.2	34	54.8
Vancomycin	30 mcg	8	12.9	54	87.1

# Table (2) Results of antibiotic sensitivity testing

 Table 3: Results of molecular detection of mecA gene by PCR technique

	Résistant MRSA		Sensitive MSSA		Total
mecA					
	No.	%	No.	%	No.
mecA +ve	16	53.3	8	25	24
mecA -ve	14	46.7	24	75	38
Total	30	48.4	32	51.6	62



Figure (1): PCR amplification products for S.aureus specific gene. Lane 1 marker, 2-10 *S.aureus* and Lane 11 negative control.



**Figure (2): PCR amplification products for mecA gene.** Lane 1: marker, Lane 11: negative control Lane 3,4,5 and 10 mecA +ve samples (methicillin resistance gene).

Abdalla, et al., 2014: Vol 2(9)



**Figure (3): Results of antibiotic sensitivity testing** (Meth=Methicillin, Van=Vancomycin, Ery=Erythromycin, Kan= Kanamycin, Chlo= Chloramphnicol).

# Discussion

Detection of methicillin resistance with phenotypic methods is still a problem especially because of heterogenous expression of mecA gene. Although mecA gene determination by polymerase chain reaction is considered as the gold standard method, molecular tests are not easily applied in all routine laboratories (Özel et al., 2011).

In this study we evaluated the efficiency of the disk diffusion method and PCR for detection of methicillin resistance. 62 *Staphylococcus aureus* strains were isolated and identified from wound swabs culture. All bacterial isolates showed positive reaction to the biochemical tests besides the species specific gene by PCR. The antibiotic susceptibility by disc diffusion method revealed that 48.4% of the isolates were resistant to methicillin. From the 30 strains culture confirmed as MRSA by disc diffusion method, 14 (46.7%) were *mecA* gene negative by PCR. On the other hand, 8 (25%) of the 32 MSSA were mecA gene positive. Discrepant findings observed in this study was also reported by other workers, Azfar Qureshi et al., (2012) in their study found that out of 98 isolates 78 isolates were classified as methicillin resistant based on disk diffusion method, while 20 were classified as MSSA. The mecA gene was found positive in 89 (MRSA & MSSA) isolates (87.22%), 20 out of 98 isolates which were categorized as MSSA by disk diffusion method 11 showed amplification of mecA gene by PCR. Wielders et al., (2002) in their study reported that the *mecA* gene, is carried by 95% of the isolates that display a phenotype of

methicillin resistance and was detected in all multiresistant *S. aureus* isolates. These discrepancies might be explained by some other mechanism rather than the absense of the *mecA* gene. Three major mechanisms of resistance have been associated with the resistant phenotype: 1) *mec*-encoded resistance, 2) overproduction of penicillinase and 3) modifications of normal penicillin-binding proteins (Lorian, 1996).

Phenotypic expression of methicillin-resistance can vary depending on the growth conditions (e.g., the temperature or osmolarity of the medium, pH and NaCl content in the medium), making susceptibility testing of MRSA by standard microbiological methods potentially problematic (Chambers, 1997) (Taweeporn et al., 2002) (Sabath, 1982). As a result, methicillin resistance is established slowly and may only appear after 48 hr on methicillin-containing plates, making these strains appear initially falsely susceptible at 24 hr (Berger-Bachi, 1997). The mechanism of heteroresistance in S. aureus is poorly understood but is believed to involve the interaction of PBP 2a and various gene products such as those encoded by fem (factor essential for methicillin resistance) genes that are involved in cell wall peptidoglycan synthesis (Maranan et al., 1997). Despite the standardized recommendations for susceptibility testing of MRSA given by the National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards (NCCLS, 2000), a small percentage of isolates that carry mecA are phenotypically susceptible to methicillin. These isolates represent extremely heteroresistant isolates in which less than 1 in  $10^8$  of the population is highly resistant to methicillin (Smyth et al., 2001). It is known that the heterogeneous resistance phenotype of mecA-positive MRSA strains progresses to homogeneous resistance upon incubation with methicillin (Chambers, 1997). Furthermore, since mecA-positive, phenotypically methicillin-susceptible S. aureus strains likely represent strains with an extremely heteroresistant methicillin resistance phenotype, one would suspect that the use of beta-lactams would select for highly resistant bacteria in the population, ultimately leading to the failure of therapy (Martineau et al., 2000).

Vancomycin, a glycopeptide antibiotic, became available in the mid-1950s, has been used as a last resort weapon to fight MRSA strains. Vancomycin inhibits synthesis of cell wall peptidoglycan by binding to the C-terminal of the cell wall precursor pentapeptide. After 40 years of use, the first isolate of *S. aureus* with reduced susceptibility to vancomycin was isolated from a child in Japan (CDCP, 1997) (Weigel et al., 2003).

In this study a low level of S. aureus resistance is seen against vancomycin (12.9%). Intermediate levels of resistance were reported from a number of countries around the world (Hiramatsu, 1998). The exact mechanism by which vancomycin intermediate S. aureus isolates become resistant to vancomycin remains unclear, but it is most likely that it involves a thickening of the cell wall due to the accumulation of cell wall fragments capable of binding vancomycin extracellularly and changes in several metabolic pathways that slow cell growth (Cui et al., 2000). The vanA gene complex, which mediates high-level glycopeptide resistance in enterococci, was detected in the vancomycin resistant S. aureus (VRSA) isolates confirmed to date (CDCP, 2002). The VRSA isolates detected to date in the United States are methicillin resistant and contain the mecA gene. In S. aureus, the vanA gene complex appears to confer changes in the cell wall similar to those seen in vancomycin-resistant enterococci, and mecA and vanA seem to function independently (Severin et al., 2004). To date, VRSA strains have been susceptible to other antibiotics. including linezolid, minocycline, quinupristin-dalfopristin, and trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole. Person-to-person transmission of VRSA has not been identified, and the isolates do not appear to be epidemiologically linked. In at least one patient, VRSA arose in the absence of vancomycin selective pressure (Whitener et al., 2004).

In our study 33.9% of Staphylococcus aureus isolates were resistant to erythromycin. Erythromycin was introduced in 1952 as the first macrolide antibiotic. Unfortunately, within a year, erythromycin-resistant (Emr) staphylococci from the United States, Europe, and Japan were described (Zhang et al., 1992). Resistance to erythromycin in staphylococci is usually associated with resistance to other macrolides (Tarek Zmantar et al., 2011). Three related erythromycin ribosomal methylase genes, ermA, ermB, and ermC, alter the ribosomal target site and confer MLSB resistance (Leclercq and Courvalin, 1991). S. aureus strains with the inducible MLSB phenotype have traditionally been considered resistant to macrolides that induce erm expression (Weisblum, 1995). Staphylococcus aureus develops resistance very quickly and successfully to different antimicrobials over a period of time. The level of resistance of Staphylococcus aureus bacteria to the tested antibiotics revealed in this study,( methicillin48.4%, kanamycin 45.2% and erythromycin33.9%) could be associated with earlier exposure of these drugs to isolates which may have enhanced development of resistance. There is high level antibiotic abuse in our country arising from self-medication which is often associated with inadequate dosage and failure to comply to treatment, and availability of antibiotics to consumers across the counters with or without prescription.

# Conclusion

There is an obvious need for more effective antibiotic therapy for infections with MRSA. Reports describing treatment failure of vancomycin for multi-drug-resistant MRSA infections have raised concern for the emergence of strains of MRSA for which there will be no effective therapy. However, new therapeutic agents alone will not provide a long-term solution, and our attention to prevention must remain constant. Strict adherence to hospital infection-control practices, as well as appropriate use of antibiotics and improved surveillance systems to track the emergence of resistance patterns, are of primary importance as we look to the future usefulness of antibiotic therapy against this extremely adaptive organism.

culture-based methods are slow--they can take days between when the patient first is seen by a doctor and the time the results come back from the clinical lab. For this reason, molecular methods are much quicker than the culture-based methods and detection of the gene responsible for methicillin resistance, *mecA*, has been the gold standard for identifying MRSA, even beyond phenotypic methods. Caution must be used when using susceptibility testing as the criterion for MRSA, as some testing methods can overestimate methicillin resistance.

# References

Azfar Qureshi, Ravi Ingle, M. Musaddiq, Yusuf Ali and Zia Khan (2012). Status and Distribution of mecA gene in Hospitalized Patient's MRSA Isolates. Bioscience Discovery, 3(1):52-57.

Barrow GI and Feltham, R.K.A. (2003). Cowan and Steels. Manual for identification of Medical bacteria. Third edition. Cambridge University Press.

Berger-Bachi B. (1997). Resistance not mediated by  $\beta$ -lactamase (methicillin resistance). In: Crossley KB, Archer GL, eds. The Staphylococci in Human Disease. New York: Churchill Livingstone,:158–167.

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (1997). Reduced susceptibility of *Staphylococcus aureus* to vancomycin – Japan, 1996. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep;46:624–626.

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2002). *Staphylococcus aureus* resistant to vancomycin – United States, 2002. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep;51:565–567

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2002). Vancomycin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* – Pennsylvania, 2002. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep;51:902

Chambers, H. F. (1997). Methicillin resistance in staphylococci: molecular and biochemical basis and clinical implications. Clin. Microbiol. Rev. 10:781–791.

Cui L, Murakami H, Kuwahara-Arai K, Hanaki H, Hiramatsu K. (2000). Contribution of a thickened cell wall and its glutamine nonamidated component to the vancomycin resistance expressed by *Staphylococcus aureus* Mu50. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 44: 2276–2285.

Dominguez MA, Linares J, Martin R. (1997). Molecular mechanisms of methicillin resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*. Microbiologia; 13: 301- 8.

Hanssen AM, Kjeldsen G, Sollid JU. (2004). Local variants of staphylococcal cassette chromosome *mec* in sporadic methicillin- resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* and methicillin-resistant coagulase-negative staphylococci: evidence of horizontal gene transfer? Antimicrob Agents Chemother;48:285–296

Hartman BJ, Tomasz A. (1984). Low-affinity penicillin-binding protein associated with  $\beta$ -lactam resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*. J Bacteriol; 158: 513–516.

Hiramatsu K. (1998). The emergence of *Staphylococcus aureus* with reduced susceptibility to vancomycin in Japan. Am JMed 104: 7S–10S.

Huebner J, Goldmann DA. (1999). Coagulase-negative staphylococci: role as pathogens. Annu Rev Med;50:223–236)

Jarvis WR, Schlosser J, Chinn RY, Tweeten S, Jackson M (2007). National prevalence of methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in inpatients at US health care facilities, Am. J. Infect. Control., 35: 631-637.

Katayama Y, Ito T, Hiramatsu K. (2000). A new class of genetic element, staphylococcus cassette chromosome *mec*, encodes methicillin resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*. Antimicrob Agents Chemother;44:1549–1555

Kim Lewis, Abigail A. Salyers, Harry W. Taber, Richard G. Wax (2002). Bacterial Resistance to Antimicrobials. Copyright \_ 2002 by Marcel Dekker, Inc. P 241

Lance R. Peterrson, M. D. (2008). Rapid Diagnosis of Community-Acquired MRSA. Clin Infect Dis, 4733 :750- 20814.

Leclercq R, Courvalin P. (1991). Bacterial resistance to macrolide, lincosamide, and streptogramin antibiotics by target modification. Antimicrob Agents Chemother;35:1267–1272.

Lodise TP, McKinnon PS (2005). Clinical and economic impact of methicillin resistance in patients with *Staphylococcus aureus* bacteremia. Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis, 52:113-122.

Lorian V. (1996). Genetic and biochemical mechanisms of bacterial resistance to antimicrobial agents. Antibiotics in laboratory medicine, 4th ed. Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins: 453-9.

Maranan, M. C., B. Moreira, S. Boyle-Vavra, and R. S. Daum. (1997). Antimicrobial resistance in staphylococci. Infect. Dis. Clin. 11:813–849.

Martineau, F., F. J. Picard, N. Lansac, C. Menard, P. H. Roy, M. Ouellette, and M. G. Bergeron. (2000). Correlation between the resistance genotype determined by multiplex PCR assays and the antibiotic susceptibility patterns of *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Staphylococcus epidermidis*. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 44:231–238.

Mongkolrattanothai K, Boyle S, Murphy TV, Daum RS. (2004). Novel non-*mecA*-containing staphylococcal chromosomal cassette composite island containing pbp4 and tagF genes in a commensal staphylococcal species: a possible reservoir for antibiotic resistance islands in *Staphylococcus aureus*. Antimicrob Agents Chemother;48:1823–1836

National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards. (2000). Methods for dilution antimicrobial susceptibility testing for bacteria that grow aerobically, 5th ed. Approved standard M7–A5. National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards, Wayne, Pa.

Nantanda R, Hildenwall H, Peterson S, Kaddu-Mulindwa D, Kalyesubula I, Tumwine JK (2008). Bacterial aetiology and outcome in children with severe pneumonia in Uganda. Ann Trop Paediatr, 28:253-260.

NCCLS. (2004) Performance standards for antimicrobial susceptibility testing: 14<sup>th</sup> informational supplement. NCCLS document., M100-S14.Wayne, PA:.

Nickerson EK, West TE, Day NP, Peacock (2009). *Staphylococcus aureus* disease and drug resistance in resource-limited countries in South and East Asia. Lancet Infect Dis a, 9:130-135

Özel G, Aslan V, Bahar Erdem G, Çağatay M, Sencan I, Mert A. (2011). [Comparison of oxacillin, cefoxitin, ceftizoxime, and moxalactam disk diffusion methods for detection of methicillin susceptibility in staphylococci]. Mikrobiyol Bul. Apr;45(2):258-65.

Patrick G. Guilfoile. Antibiotic-Resistant Bacteria. Copyright © 2007 by Infobase Publishing Chelsea House (Guilfoile, Patrick.)

Reynolds PE, Brown DF. (1985). Penicillin-binding proteins of betalactam- resistant strains of *Staphylococcus aureus*. Effect of growth conditions. FEBS Lett;192:28–32

Sabath LD. (1982). Mechanisms of resistance to beta-lactam antibiotics in strains of *Staphylococcus aureus* Ann Intern Med; 97: 339-44.

Severin A, Tabei K, Tenover F, Chung M, Clarke N, Tomasz A. (2004). High level oxacillin and vancomycin resistance and altered cell wall composition in *Staphylococcus aureus* carrying the staphylococcal m*ecA* and the enterococcal *vanA* gene complex. J Biol Chem;279:3398–3407

Smyth, R. W., G. Kahlmeter, B. Olsson Liljequist, and B. Hoffman. (2001). Methods for identifying methicillin-resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*. J. Hosp. Infect. 48:103–107.

Sivaraman K, Venkataraman N, and Alexander M. Cole (2009). *Staphylococcus aureus* Nasal Carriage and its Contributing Factors. Future Microbiol. ; 4: 999–1008.

Tarek Zmantar, Bochra Kouidhi, Hanene Miladi and Amina Bakhrouf (2011). Detection of macrolide and disinfectant resistance genes in clinical Staphylococcus aureus and coagulase-negative staphylococci BMC Research Notes, 4:453 http://www.biomedcentral.com/1756-0500/4/453.

Taweeporn Siripornmongcolchai, Chariya Chomvarin, Kunyaluk Chaicumpar, Temduang Limpaiboon and Chaisiri Wongkhum (2002). Detection of *mecA* Gene in MRSA using Different Primers. South East Asian J Trop Med Public Health. Vol 33 No. 4

Tokue, Y., S. Shoji, K. Satoh, A. Watanabe, and M. Motomiya (1992). Comparison of a polymerase chain reaction assay and a conventional microbiologic method for detection of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 36:6–9.

Wenchi Shang, Todd A. Davies, Robert K. Flamm, and Karen Bush (2010). Effects of Ceftobiprole and Oxacillin on *mecA* Expression in Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* Clinical Isolates. Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy, Feb., Vol. 54, No. 2: p. 956–959

Weigel LM, Clewell DB, Gill SR, Clark NC, McDougal LK, Flannagan SE, Kolonay JF, Shetty J, Killgore GE, Tenover FC. (2003). Genetic analysis of a high-level vancomycin-resistant isolate of *Staphylococcus aureus*. Science; 302:1569–1571

Weisblum B. (1995). Insights into erythromycin action from studies of its activity as inducer of resistance. Antimicrob Agents Chemother;39:797–805

Wertheim, H. F., D. C. Melles, M. C. Vos, W. van Leeuwen, A. van Belkum, H. A. Verbrugh, and J. L. Nouwen (2005). The role of nasal carriage in *Staphylococcus aureus* infections. Lancet Infect. Dis., 5:751–762.

Wielders CLC, Fluit AC, Brisse S, Verhoef J, and Schmitz F J. (2002). *mecA* Gene Is Widely Disseminated in *Staphylococcus aureus* Population. Journal of Clinical Microbiology, p. 3970–3975 Vol. 40, No. 11

Whitener CJ<sup>1</sup>, Park SY, Browne FA, Parent LJ, Julian K, Bozdogan B, Appelbaum PC, Chaitram J, Weigel LM, Jernigan J, McDougal LK, Tenover FC, Fridkin SK. (2004). Vancomycinresistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in the absence of vancomycin exposure. Clin Infect Dis; 38(8):1049–1055

Wise EM, Park JT. 1965). Penicillin: its basic site of action as an inhibitor of a peptide crosslinking reaction in cell wall mucopeptide synthesis. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA; 54:75–81.

Zhang, H.-Z., H. Schmidt, and W. Piepersberg,(1992). Molecular cloning and characterization of two lincomycin-resistance genes, *lmrA* and *lmrB*, from *Streptomyces lincolnensis* 78-11. Mol. Microbiol. 6:2147–2157.