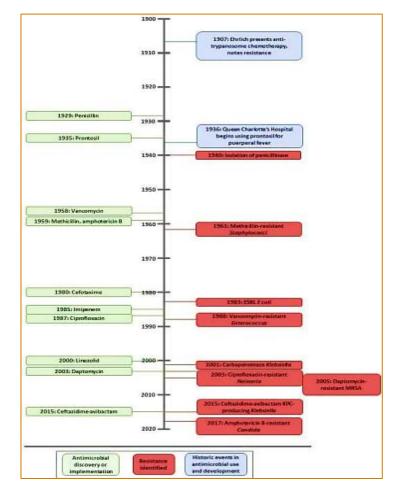
# O Microbiology 2025-2024 Dr.Saja Ebdah



#### Antimicrobial resistance mechanisms of bacteria

#### Antimicrobial Resistance Mechanisms of Bacteria

- > Antibiotics originated from the evolutionary conflict between microbes and ecological competitors.
- > Resistance to antibiotics is predictable as microbes can develop resistance to some agents.
- Antimicrobial resistance has worsened the impact of infectious diseases, increasing infections and healthcare costs.
- > Antimicrobial agents are classified based on their mechanisms of action.
- Susceptibility and resistance are measured by minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC), which is the lowest drug concentration that inhibits bacterial growth.
- If the average MIC for a species falls in the resistant range, the species is considered intrinsically resistant to that drug.
- Bacteria can acquire resistance genes from related organisms, and the level of resistance varies depending on the species and acquired genes.

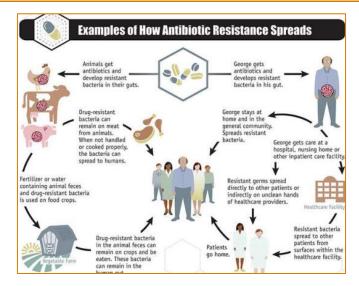


#### Mechanism of antimicrobial:

| Mechanism of Action         | Antimicrobial Groups | Inhibit Protein Synthesis Bind to 30S Ribosomal Sul |  |
|-----------------------------|----------------------|---|--|
|                             | β-Lactams            | Aminoglycosides                                     |  |
| Inhibit Cell Wall Synthesis |                      | Tetracyclines                                       |  |
|                             | Carbapenems          | Bind to 50S Ribosomal Sub                           |  |
|                             |                      | Chloramphenicol                                     |  |
|                             | Cephalosporins       | Lincosamides  |  |
|                             | Monobactams          | Macrolides  |  |
|                             |                      | Oxazolidinones                                      |  |
|                             | Penicillins          | Streptogramins                                      |  |
|                             |                      | Inhibit Nucleic Acid Synthesis Quinolones           |  |
|                             | Glycopeptides        | Fluoroquinolones                                    |  |
| Depolarize Cell Membrane    | Lipopeptides         | Inhibit Metabolic Pathways Sulfonamides             |  |
|                             |                      | Trimethoprim  |  |

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- Emergence and Spread of Antibiotic-Resistant Bacteria
  - ✓ Natural Resistance:
    - *Intrinsic resistance* is a trait shared universally within a bacterial species, independent of previous antibiotic exposure, and not related to horizontal gene transfer.
    - Common mechanisms of intrinsic resistance include reduced permeability of the outer membrane (especially LPS in Gram-negative bacteria) and natural activity of efflux pumps.

#### Acquired Resistance:

- ✓ Methods of Acquiring Resistance:
  - Horizontal gene transfer (transformation, transposition, and conjugation).
  - Resistance may be temporary or permanent.
  - Plasmid-mediated transmission of resistance genes is the most common method of acquiring external genetic material.

#### • Mechanisms of Resistance

- Main Mechanisms of Resistance:
  - 1. Limiting Drug Uptake:
    - LPS structure in Gram-negative bacteria blocks the entry of large antimicrobial agents [innate resistance]
    - Mycobacteria have a lipid-rich outer membrane, facilitating access for hydrophobic drugs such as rifampicin and the fluoroquinolones but limiting access for hydrophilic drugs.
    - Bacteria lacking a cell wall (e.g., Mycoplasma) are naturally resistant to drugs targeting the cell wall (e.g., β-lactams, glycopeptides) [innate resistance].

#### Biofilm:

- The biofilm matrix is thick and sticky, containing polysaccharides, proteins, and DNA from bacteria.
- This consistency makes it difficult for antimicrobial agents to reach the bacteria.
- Higher concentrations of drugs are needed to be effective against bacteria in biofilms.

#### 2. Modification of Drug Targets:

- Alterations in penicillin-binding proteins (PBPs) mediate resistance to  $\beta$ -lactam drugs.
- Mutations in ribosomal subunits or methylation of ribosomal subunits lead to resistance against ribosome-targeting drugs.
- Modifications in DNA gyrase or topoisomerase IV result in resistance to nucleic acid synthesis-targeting drugs.

#### 3. Drug Inactivation:

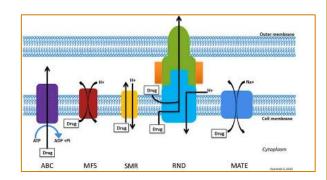
Bacteria can degrade drugs or transfer chemical groups to drugs, like the  $\beta$ -lactamases (originally called penicillinases and cephalosporinases), which hydrolyze the  $\beta$ -lactam ring structure, preventing it from binding to PBPs.

- Beta-lactam Resistance as an Example
  - Mechanisms of Resistance to Beta-lactam Drugs:
  - 1. Preventing the interaction between PBPs and the drug (via modifications to PBPs or acquisition of new PBPs).
  - 2. Efflux pumps that expel  $\beta$ -lactam drugs.
  - 3. Hydrolysis of the drug by  $\beta$ -lactamase enzymes.
- Beta-lactamase inhibitors are antibiotics that are co-administered with beta-lactam antibiotics.
- Their purpose is to prevent bacteria from disabling beta-lactam antibiotics using their enzymes.

| Table 3. Antimicrobial resistance mechanisms. |  |  |   |                |  |  |  |
|---|--|--|---|----------------|--|--|--|
| Drug  | Drug Uptake Limitation   | Drug Target Modification                     | Drug Inactivation   | Efflux Pumps   |  |  |  |
| β-Lactams                                     | Decreased numbers of porins, no outer cell wall Gram pos—alterations in PBPs |  | Gram pos, gram neg—β-lactamases   | RND            |  |  |  |
| Carbapenems                                   | Changed selectivity of porin   |  |   |                |  |  |  |
| Cephalosporins                                | Changed selectivity of porin   |  |   |                |  |  |  |
| Monobactams                                   |  |  |   |                |  |  |  |
| Penicillins                                   |  |  |   |                |  |  |  |
| Glycopeptides                                 | Thickened cell wall, no outer cell wall                                      | Modified peptidoglycan                       |   |                |  |  |  |
| Lipopeptides                                  |  | Modified net cell surface charge             |   |                |  |  |  |
| Aminoglycosides                               | Cell wall polarity   | Ribosomal mutation, methylation              | Aminoglycoside modifying enzymes, acetylation, phosphorylation, adenylation RND |                |  |  |  |
| Tetracyclines                                 | Decreased numbers of porins  | Ribosomal protection                         | Antibiotic modification, oxidation  | MFS, RND       |  |  |  |
| Chloramphenicol                               |  | Ribosomal methylation                        | Acetylation of drug   | MFS, RND       |  |  |  |
| Lincosamides                                  |  | Gram pos—ribosomal methylation               |   | ABC, RND       |  |  |  |
| Macrolides                                    |  | Ribosomal mutation, methylation              |   | ABC, MFS, RND  |  |  |  |
| Oxazolidinones                                |  | Ribosomal methylation                        |   | RND            |  |  |  |
| Streptogramins                                |  |  |   | ABC            |  |  |  |
| Fluoroquinolones                              |  | Gram neg—DNA gyrase modification             | Acetylation of drug   | MATE, MFS, RND |  |  |  |
|   |  | Gram pos—topoisomerase IV                    |   |                |  |  |  |
| Sulfonamides                                  | DHPS reduced binding, overproduction of resistant DHPS                       |  | RND   |                |  |  |  |
| Trimethoprim                                  |  | DHFR reduced binding, overproduction of DHFR |   | RND            |  |  |  |

#### 4. Active Drug Efflux:

- Efflux pumps in bacteria transport toxic substances out of the cell, often leading to multidrug resistance (MDR).
- High-level resistance is often due to mutations modifying the transport channels of these pumps.



#### • Important Acronyms in Antimicrobial Resistance

- > AMR: Antimicrobial Resistance.
- MDR: Multidrug-Resistant.
- > XDR: Extensively Drug-Resistant.
- ESKAPE: Refers to six highly virulent and antibiotic-resistant bacteria: Enterococcus faecium, Staphylococcus aureus, Klebsiella pneumoniae, Acinetobacter baumannii, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Enterobacter spp.
- > ESBL(Extended spectrum  $\beta$ -lactamase) : are enzymes that confer resistance to most betalactam antibiotics, including penicillins, cephalosporins, and the monobactam aztreonam.
  - ✓ The gastrointestinal tract is the main reservoir for ESBL-producing Enterobacteriaceae.
  - ✓ Colonization with these organisms increases the risk of subsequent infection.
  - ✓ Healthcare-related factors like hospitalization, long-term care facility residence, hemodialysis use, and intravascular catheter presence are strongly associated with colonization and infection.

#### • The Global Situation of Antimicrobial Resistance

- > AMR: Global threat causing 700,000 deaths annually.
- Projected Impact by 2050: AMR could lead to 10 million deaths and \$100 trillion in economic losses.
- Multidrug Resistance (MDR) is common, especially in hospitals, with the risk of entering a "postantibiotic era."
- > Consequences: Longer hospital stays, higher medical costs, and increased mortality.
- Antibiotic Resistance is a natural occurrence but is accelerating due to misuse in humans and animals.
- WHO Efforts: WHO coordinates a global campaign to raise awareness and promote best practices among the public and professionals.

#### • WHO's Efforts to Combat AMR

- > WHO released a priority list of antibiotic-resistant pathogens in 2017.
- AWaRe Classification: Antibiotics categorized into three groups (Access, Watch, Reserve) to guide appropriate use and reduce resistance.

#### • The Situation in Low- and Middle-Income Countries (LMICs)

- Economic Factors:
  - LMICs lack resources (healthcare infrastructure, functional facilities) for large populations, especially in rural areas.
  - ✓ Limited access to qualified healthcare workers.
  - ✓ Antibiotics sold over the counter (OTC) without prescriptions, even for viral infections.

#### Sociological Factors:

- ✓ Lack of education and awareness about proper antibiotic use.
- ✓ Cultural myths and practices lead to the inappropriate use of antibiotics.
- ✓ Patients demand antibiotics, even when unnecessary, leading to misuse.
- Industrial Factors:
  - ✓ Decreased focus on infectious disease research and development (R&D) for antibiotics.
  - ✓ Remaining antibiotics are increasingly expensive and unaffordable in many LMICs.
  - ✓ Pharmaceutical companies' incentives further promote unnecessary antibiotic use.

#### Ecological Factors:

- ✓ AMR requires an ecological approach and the concept of "One Health."
- ✓ Overuse of antibiotics in food-producing animals, contributing to resistance.

#### Technological Factors:

- Limited availability of rapid diagnostic technologies for infections and AMR.
- ✓ Lack of real-time data and surveillance for better decision-making.

#### • Tackling Antimicrobial Resistance

#### Prevention Strategies:

- ✓ Promote rational drug use and better prescription practices.
- Encourage awareness programs and policy changes to reduce misuse.
- ✓ Improve research and development for new antibiotics.





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#### • The Situation in Jordan

- Antibiotic Use Without Prescription: 40.4% of the population in Jordan reported using antibiotics without a prescription.
- > Need for Data: There is a need for better data collection to understand the scale of AMR.
- Proposal for AMR in Jordan:
  - 1. Reduction of the evolution of antimicrobial resistance.
  - 2. Synchronization with published clinical practice guidelines for the management of common and/ or serious infections.
  - 3. Integration of cost parameters.
  - 4. Encouragement of responsible prescription practices among physicians and dispensing among pharmacists.
  - 5. Assignment of multi-level prescription responsibility.

#### Questions

- 1. What is the role of efflux pumps in bacterial resistance?
  - A. Enzymatically degrade antibiotics
  - B. Prevent antibiotic entry into the cell
  - C. Actively transport antibiotics out of the cell
  - D. Modify antibiotic binding sites
- 2. A young child presents with meningitis caused by *Streptococcus pneumoniae*. The strain is resistant to penicillin. What is the most likely resistance mechanism?
  - A. Alteration of the 30S ribosomal subunit
  - B. Beta-lactamase production
  - C. Modification of penicillin-binding proteins
  - D. Decreased membrane permeability

### **3.** Which of the following strategies is most effective in reducing the development of antimicrobial resistance?

- A. Using broad-spectrum antibiotics for all infections
- B. Encouraging over-the-counter antibiotic access
- C. Completing prescribed antibiotic courses and limiting unnecessary use
- D. Relying solely on vaccines to control bacterial infections

#### 4. What is the primary mechanism of resistance to fluoroquinolones in bacteria?

- A. Production of efflux pumps
- B. Modification of topoisomerase and DNA gyrase enzymes
- C. Enzymatic inactivation of the antibiotic
- D. Alteration of the 30S ribosomal subunit

## 5. Which of the following bacteria is commonly associated with extended-spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL) production?

- A. Escherichia coli
- B. Streptococcus pneumoniae
- C. Mycobacterium tuberculosis
- D. Clostridium difficile

6. Which of the following is NOT part of the ESKAPEE group of pathogens?

- A. Enterococcus faecium
- B. Escherichia coli

C. Klebsiella pneumonia

D. Salmonella Typhi

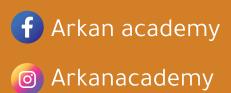
7. Why is the burden of antimicrobial resistance disproportionately higher in low-income and middle-income countries (LMICs)?

#### <u>Answers</u>

- 1. C. Actively transport antibiotics out of the cell
- 2. C. Modification of penicillin-binding proteins
- 3. C. Completing prescribed antibiotic courses and limiting unnecessary use
- 4. **B.** Modification of topoisomerase and DNA gyrase enzymes
- **5. A.** *Escherichia coli*: *Escherichia coli* is commonly associated with the production of extended-spectrum beta-lactamases (ESBLs), which provide resistance to many beta-lactam antibiotics.
- 6. D. Salmonella Typhi: Salmonella Typhi is not part of the ESKAPEE group, which includes pathogens like *Enterococcus faecium*, *Escherichia coli*, and *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, known for their multidrug resistance.
- 7. Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is a global issue, but its impact is especially severe in low-income and middle-income countries (LMICs). Several factors contribute to this disparity:
  - 1) Limited Healthcare Access: Poor infrastructure and inadequate healthcare access lead to improper antibiotic use.
  - 2) Overuse and Misuse: Antibiotics are often available over-the-counter, contributing to misuse and overuse.
  - 3) Lack of Regulation: Weak regulatory systems lead to unmonitored antibiotic distribution and use.
  - 4) Poor Infection Control: Insufficient hygiene and sanitation practices in healthcare settings contribute to the spread of resistant bacteria.
  - 5) Inadequate Sanitation: Lack of clean water and proper sanitation increases infection rates and the need for antibiotics.
  - 6) Limited Diagnostics: A lack of diagnostic tools results in unnecessary broad-spectrum antibiotic prescriptions.
  - 7) Higher Disease Burden: Increased rates of infectious diseases lead to more antibiotic use, fostering resistance.
  - 8) Resource Limitations: Fewer resources for prevention, treatment, and new antibiotics exacerbate the problem.



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