

## Oropharyngeal colonization as a risk factor for ventilator-associated pneumonia by *Staphylococcus aureus*, use of antimicrobials and multidrug-resistance

Moreira, Michel Rodrigues<sup>1</sup>; Melo, Geraldo Batista de<sup>1</sup>; Rocha, Mariana Lima Prata<sup>1</sup>, Gontijo Filho and Paulo Pinto<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Uberlândia Federal University, Laboratory of Microbiology.

Ventilator-associated pneumonia (VAP) is the most frequent infection acquired in intensive care unit (ICU). It is associated with increased morbidity, prolonged hospitalization, and increased healthcare costs. Oropharyngeal colonization plays a central role in the pathogenesis of VAP, once virulent microorganisms can reach the alveolar space via microaspiration of secretions from that region. Each antibiotic prescription has an environmental and ecological consequence. Antimicrobial resistance is an increasing threat in hospitalized patients, and inappropriated empirical antimicrobial therapy is known to adversely affect outcomes in VAP.

**Keywords** Oropharyngeal colonization, *Staphylococcus aureus*, Ventilator-associated pneumonia, Multidrug-resistance.

Hospital acquired infections (HAIs) are a serious public health problem in both developing countries, where human and financial resources are very limited and the minority of hospitals have infection control committees active, as in developed countries, causing increased significant morbidity, mortality and hospital costs [1-5]. In Brazil, the average prevalence rate is 15% in tertiary care hospitals [1]. In the United States (U.S.), they affect about 9% of hospitalized patients and rates of infections acquired in intensive care units (ICUs) are 5-10 times higher than in the other units, so at least 45% of HAIs occurring in hospitalized patients in these units, which corresponds to less than 10% of the hospital beds [6]. In ICUs, patients are more susceptible to these infections due to immunocompromise due to old age, comorbidities, as well as increased use of invasive devices and exposure to antibiotics [2,3,7]. Earlier this century, the incidence of HAIs was estimated at 1.7 million in the U.S., with approximately 6% mortality (100.000/year) and a financial cost of US\$ 35-45 billion / year [4,5].

Among the HAIs, pneumonia is the second most common and the first in ICU patients, which account for about 50% of infections [7,8]. Most of these infections is represented by "Ventilator-associated pneumonia" (VAPs) [4]. They occur in 9-24% of patients on mechanical ventilation, increase the length of stay and contribute to increased mortality in ICUs [4,9-11]. In developed countries, the incidence rate of VAP ranges from 1 to 4 cases per 1,000 days of ventilation [12,13] and is around 13 cases per 1,000 days of ventilation in developing countries [3,13], and in the adult ICU of the Uberlândia Federal University Hospital Clinic (UFU-HC) the incidence rate of VAP was 24.59 cases per 1000 ventilator days [14]. It is estimated that 52,000 patients / year in the U.S. are afflicted [5]. VAPs are defined as hospital acquired after 48 hours when the presence of mechanical ventilation [15]. This invasive procedure is associated with 83% of hospital-acquired pneumonias [7], undertakes the defense mechanisms, including the role of cough and mucociliary barrier [9], favoring micro-aspiration of oropharyngeal secretions colonized by potentially pathogenic microorganisms [7,16].

Although mechanical ventilation is identified as a risk factor itself, the duration of ventilation is also important [5,15]. The risk of VAP is 1% to 3% per day of mechanical ventilation [17]. Other risk factors include: decreased level of consciousness, advanced age, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), head trauma, burns, stress ulcer prophylaxis, gastro-thoracic surgery, parenteral nutrition and antibiotics [5,8,9,13].

The etiologic agents of PAVs vary according to geographic region, hospital, unit and population [15], however, in general, *Staphylococcus aureus* and the non-fermenting gram-negative bacilli are the most important agents [4,5,11,15,18,19]. In Brazil, data from the "SENTRY" surveillance program show that *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is the most frequent agent associated with pneumonia in hospitalized patients, followed by *S. aureus* and *Acinetobacter baumannii* [18], as revealed in a study in an adult ICU in Uberlândia-MG-Brazil [14,20]. In Porto Alegre-RS-Brazil, a study conducted at four clinical-surgical ICUs showed that *S. aureus* was the main agent PAVs, followed by *P. aeruginosa* or *A. baumannii* [17].

Although staphylococci are common inhabitants of the skin and mucous membranes, the nares are the major reservoir of microorganisms, being the site most investigated [21]. The colonization of these seems to play an important role in the epidemiology and pathogenesis of many infections [22]. The nasal colonization by *S. aureus* significantly increases the rate of surgical site infection after cardiac surgery, and is an independent risk factor for surgical wound infections [23]. With regard to infections related to central venous catheter, Luzar (1991) [24] reported that 45% of patients had nasal colonization prior to insertion of the catheter. Infections of the catheter insertion site occurred at a rate of 0.4 episodes per patient per year in patients colonized but are less frequent in patients not colonized with 0.1 episodes per patient per year. In a study conducted by Pujol et al. (1996) [25], nasal colonization by *S. aureus* was a risk factor for the development of nosocomial bacteremia in an intensive care unit, with a rate of 38% of bacteremia for

patients colonized with oxacillin resistant *S. aureus* (ORSA) vs. 9.5% for those colonized with oxacillin sensitive *S. aureus* (OSSA) and 1.7% for those not colonized. However, recent studies show that colonization of the oropharyngeal mucosa is also important to the nasal mucosa [26-30] and has an important role in the pathogenesis of VAPs [31-32]. Additionally, intubation, in respiratory failure is more common orally than nasal due to iatrogenic aspects [33,34], therefore, the investigation of the oropharyngeal colonization as the source of microorganisms involved in the etiology of PAVs appears to be more rational.

The micro-aspiration of oropharyngeal secretions is a common event, even in healthy individuals [35], with 45% of them aspirating secretions during sleep [36]. The colonization of the mucosa of the upper respiratory tract by potentially pathogenic microorganisms is particularly common in critically ill patients in the ICU for prolonged periods, and using of antibiotics and invasive devices, with emphasis on ventilation support, especially in patients with decreased level of consciousness [7,16]. The colonization of the oropharynx is independent predictor for tracheo-bronchial colonization and subsequent aspiration of this secretion containing a bacterial inoculum in mechanically ventilated patients is the main route of acquiring VAP [16].

Some specific risk factors predispose to ORSA colonization / infection, including durations of mechanical ventilation and prolonged ICU stay, age, proximity to patients with this bacterial infection and prior use of broad-spectrum antibiotics, particularly cephalosporins and fluoroquinolones [37,38]. On the other hand, colonization / infection by oxacillin sensitive *S. aureus* (OSSA) occur more often in younger patients with traumatic brain injury [39].

The hospital mortality rate for VAP is high, ranging from 20% to 70% depending on the population studied [5,11,35], and its financial cost is substantial, ranging from US\$ 10,000 to US\$ 40,000 per episode [5-9].

The diagnosis of nosocomial pneumonia is complex and involves clinical, radiological, laboratory and microbiological criteria [9]. The clinical and radiological data are linked to low specificity, and the use of quantitative microbiological criteria increases the specificity [40,41]. The specimens used in clinical microbiological evaluation include: endotracheal aspirate, bronchoalveolar lavage and protected brush, the last two being considered minimally contaminated by secretions from the upper respiratory tract, but more expensive and invasive, and can rarely lead to cardiac arrhythmias, hypoxemia and bronchospasm [4,15,40,41]. The endotracheal aspirate is a lower cost alternative, with good sensitivity but with poorer specificity when compared with the results obtained with other clinical specimens [9,40,42,43]. However, the analysis of endotracheal aspirate by quantitative technique with a cutoff of  $10^6$  CFU / ml (colony forming units per milliliter) shows good correlation with the results obtained with the minimally contaminated specimens [9,41,43-46].

The PAVs are classified into early and late, the latter occurring after four days of mechanical ventilation and related more often with resistant bacteria, as ORSA [9,43,47].

Antimicrobial resistance is a growing threat to hospitalized patients and both morbidity and mortality are greater when caused by microorganisms resistant to antibiotics [9,48]. Brazil and other Latin American countries in general, have higher rates of bacterial resistance in hospitals compared with Europe and the United States, particularly among non-fermenting gram-negative bacilli and representatives of the Enterobacteriaceae family, in this last group standing out members producers of extended spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL) but also among gram-positive microorganisms, especially *S. aureus* [49].

The increased prevalence of these pathogens resistant to antibiotics in hospitals is often related to high selective pressure exerted by antimicrobials traditionally used in hospitalized patients, particularly extended-spectrum cephalosporins, beta-lactam combinations with beta-lactamase inhibitors, carbapenems, fluoroquinolones and aminoglycosides [48].

Due to its severity, the treatment of PAVs should be initiated quickly, and empirically with broad-spectrum antibiotics until culture results and antimicrobial susceptibility testing are available, they may have many agents, be polymicrobial or involve multidrug-resistant (MDR) bacteria to antibiotics [47,50,51], which are most often associated with late-onset VAP, prior hospitalization or prior use of antimicrobials (JOSEPH et al., 2010a). After defining the causal agent, specific therapy should be adopted with the use of narrow-spectrum antibiotics, promoting the descalonamento empirical antimicrobial therapy [50], even when patients responding well to initial treatment, in order to limit the risk of super infection, bacterial resistance, adverse reactions, and limit costs [7].

The inappropriate empirical antimicrobial therapy negatively affects the outcome of patients with VAP [52], therefore, must be adapted according to the local microbial ecology and the length of stay prior to the development of VAP [4]. Appropriate antibiotic use in hospital entails find a middle road between their potent ability to reduce the mortality and morbidity of patients with infectious diseases and their potentially hazardous effects, that is, serious adverse events, drug interactions, and induction of resistant strains [53].

Overuse or inappropriate use of broad-spectrum antibiotics and the difficulties in implementing measures to control hospital infections are seen as responsible for the emergence and spread of agents increasingly resistant, especially in environments that have high density of use of such drugs, as in ICUs [20,54].

Previous studies show that there are great variations in antibiotic use among European countries as well as in American hospitals. These differences can be explained mainly on the basis of patient populations studied, but cultural, behavioral, financial and administrative also has influence [53,55]. In Brazil there are data, considering only patients critics, pointing use much more intense when compared to American and European hospitals [20].

Understanding the mechanism of spread of MDR pathogens such as ORSA is essential for planning measures for prevention and control and, given the limitations of conventional typing methods, there is a preference for the use of molecular techniques for a better understanding and characterization of nosocomial pathogens [56].

The typing techniques commonly used for *S. aureus* are the Pulsed Field Gel Electrophoresis (PFGE), the sequencing of the polymorphic region of the X gene encoding protein A, the typing of SCCmec and the Multilocus sequence typing (MLST) [57].

Genotypic characterization by macrorestriction techniques are widely used by its greater reproducibility and discriminatory power of the samples [58]. The PFGE is most commonly used for a variety of microorganisms including gram-positive bacteria like *S. aureus* and *Enterococcus* and gram-negative bacteria, such as species of *Enterobacteriaceae*, *P. aeruginosa* e *A. baumannii* [56,57,59].

The importance of PAVs in ICUs of hospitals in developing countries with limited resources in healthcare hospital is clear, requiring more and better epidemiological studies, and research on strategies easier and less costly in its prevention.

## References

- [1] Prade SS. Estudo brasileiro da magnitude das infecções hospitalares em hospitais terciários. *Rev do Controle de Infecção Hospitalar* 1995; 2: 11-25.
- [2] Vincent JL, Rello J, Marshall J, et al. International Study of the Prevalence and Outcome of Infection in Intensive Care Units. *JAMA* 2009; 302(21): 2323-9.
- [3] Rosenthal VD, Maki DG, Jamulitrat S, et al. International Nosocomial Infection Control Consortium (INICC) report, data summary for 2003-2008, issued June 2009. *Am J Infect Control* 2010; 38: 95-106.
- [4] Peleg AY, Hooper DC. Hospital-Acquired Infections Due to Gram-Negative Bacteria. *N Engl J Med* 2010; 362(19): 1804-13.
- [5] Lobdell KW, Stamou S, Sanchez JA. Hospital-Acquired Infections. *Surg Clin N Am* 2012; 92: 65-77.
- [6] Dhillon R, Clark, J. Infection in intensive care unit (ICU). *Cur Anaesth Crit Care* 2009; 20(4): 175-82.
- [7] Vincent JL. Nosocomial infectious in adult intensive-care units. *Lancet* 2003; 36(1): 2068-77.
- [8] Alp E, Güven M, Yildiz O, et al. Incidence, risk factors and mortality of nosocomial pneumonia in intensive care units: a prospective study. *Ann Clin Microb Antimicrob* 2004; 3: 17.
- [9] Joseph NM, Sistla S, Dutta TK, et al. Ventilator-associated pneumonia: role of colonizers and value of routine endotracheal aspirate cultures. *Int J Infect Dis* 2010; 14(8): 723-9.
- [10] Al-Dorzi HM, El-Saed A, Rishu AH, et al. The results of a 6-year epidemiologic surveillance for ventilator-associated pneumonia at a tertiary care intensive care unit in Saudi Arabia. *Am J Infect Control* 2012; 40(9): 794-9.
- [11] Tseng CC, Liu SF, Wang CC, et al. Impact of clinical severity index, infective pathogens, and initial empiric antibiotic use on hospital mortality in patients with ventilator-associated pneumonia. *Am J Infect Control* 2012; 40(7): 648-52.
- [12] Edwards JR, Peterson KD, Mu Y, et al. National Healthcare Safety Network (NHSN) report: data summary for 2006 through 2008, issued December 2009. *Am J Infect Control* 2009; 37(10): 783-805.
- [13] Tao L, Hu B, Rosenthal VD, et al. Impact of a multidimensional approach on ventilator-associated pneumonia rates in a hospital of Shanghai: Findings of the International Nosocomial Infection Control Consortium. *J Crit Care* 2012; 27(5): 440-6.
- [14] Rocha LA, Vilela CAP, Cezário RC, et al. Ventilator-Associated Pneumonia in an Adult Clinical-Surgical Intensive Care Unit of a Brazilian University Hospital: Incidence, Risk Factors, Etiology and Antibiotic Resistance. *Braz J Infect Dis* 2008; 12(1): 80-5.
- [15] Joseph NM, Sistla S, Dutta TK, et al. Ventilator-associated pneumonia: A review. *Eur J Intern Med* 2010; 21(5): 360-8.
- [16] Safdar N, Crnich CJ, Maki DG. The Pathogenesis of Ventilator-Associated Pneumonia: Its Relevance to Developing Effective Strategies for Prevention. *Respir Care* 2005; 50(6): 725-39.
- [17] Teixeira PJZ, Hertz FT, Cruz DB, et al. Pneumonia associada à ventilação mecânica: impacto da multirresistência bacteriana na morbidade e mortalidade. *J Bras Pneumol* 2004; 30(6): 540-8.
- [18] Gales AC, Sader HS, Ribeiro J, et al. Antimicrobial Susceptibility of Gram-positive Bacteria Isolated in Brazilian Hospitals Participating in the "SENTRY" program (2005-2008). *Braz J Infec Dis* 2009; 13(2): 90-8.
- [19] Sandiumenge A, Lisboa T, Gomez F, et al. Effect of Antibiotic Diversity on Ventilator-Associated Pneumonia Caused by ESKAPE Organisms. *Chest* 2011; 140(3): 643-51.
- [20] Moreira MR, Ribas RM, Rodrigues AAdeA, et al. Consumo de Antibióticos e Etiologia de Pneumonia Associada à Ventilação em Pacientes Internados na Unidade de Terapia Intensiva do Hospital de Clínicas da Universidade Federal de Uberlândia. *Rev Panamericana de Infectologia* 2009; 11(1): 11-6.
- [21] Chen C-B.; Chang H-C, Huang Y-C. Nasal methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* carriage among intensive care unit hospitalized adult patients in a Taiwanese medical centre: one time-point prevalence, molecular characteristics and risk factors for carriage. *J Hosp Infect* 2010; 74: 238-44.
- [22] Kluytmans J, Belkum A, Verbrugh H. Nasal Carriage of *Staphylococcus aureus*: Epidemiology, Underlying Mechanisms, and Associated Risks. *Clin Microbiol Rev* 1997; 10(3): 505-20.
- [23] Muñoz P, Hortal J, Giannella M, et al. Nasal carriage of *S. aureus* increases the risk of surgical site infection after major heart surgery. *J Hosp Infect* 2008; 68: 25-31.
- [24] Luzar MA. Exit-site infection in continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis: a review. *Perit Dial Int* 1991; 11: 333-40.
- [25] Pujol M, Peña C, Pallares R, et al. Nosocomial *Staphylococcus aureus* bacteremia among nasal carriers of methicillin-resistant and methicillin-susceptible strains. *Am J Med* 1996; 100:509-16.

- [26] Ringberg H, Cathrine Petersson A, Walder M, et al. The throat: an important site for MRSA colonization. *Scand J Infect Dis* 2006; 38: 888-93.
- [27] Nilsson, P, Ripa T. *Staphylococcus aureus* throat colonization is more frequent than colonization in the anterior nares. *J Clin Microbiol* 2006; 44: 3334-9.
- [28] Marshall C, Spelman D. Is throat screening necessary to detect methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* colonization in patients upon admission to an intensive care unit? *J Clin Microbiol* 2007; 45: 3855.
- [29] Mertz D, Frei R, Jaussi B, et al. Throat swabs are necessary to reliably detect carriers of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Clin Infect Dis* 2007; 45: 475-7.
- [30] Bignardi GE, Lowes S. MRSA screening: throat swabs are better than nose swabs. *J Hosp Infect* 2009; 71: 373-4.
- [31] Cavalcanti M, Valencia M, Torres M. Respiratory nosocomial infections in the medical intensive care unit. *Microbes and Infection* 2005; 7: 292-301.
- [32] Beraldo CC, Andrade D. Oral hygiene with chlorhexidine in preventing pneumonia associated with mechanical ventilation. *J Bras Pneumol* 2008; 34(9): 707-14.
- [33] Dodek P, Keenan S, Cook D, et al. Evidence-Based Clinical Practice Guideline for the Prevention of Ventilator-Associated Pneumonia. *Ann Intern Med* 2004; 141: 305-13.
- [34] ATS – American Thoracic Society, Infectious Diseases Society of America. Guidelines for the management of adults with hospital-acquired, ventilator-associated, and healthcare-associated pneumonia. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2005; 171: 388-416.
- [35] Kollef MH. What Is Ventilator-Associated Pneumonia and Why Is It Important? *Respir Care* 2005; 50(6): 714-24.
- [36] Huxley EJ. Pharyngeal aspiration in normal adults and patients with depressed consciousness. *Am J Med* 1978; 64(4): 564-8.
- [37] Tacconelli E, Cataldo MA, De Pascale G, et al. Prediction models to identify hospitalized patients at risk of being colonized or infected with multidrug-resistant *Acinetobacter baumannii calcoaceticus* complex. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2008; 62(5): 1130-7.
- [38] Gould IM. Controversies in infection: infection control or antibiotic stewardship to control healthcare-acquired infection? *J Hosp Infect* 2009; 73: 386-91.
- [39] Park DR. The microbiology of ventilator-associated pneumonia. *Respir Care* 2005; 50(6): 742-63.
- [40] Medford ALR, Husain SA, Turki HM, et al. Diagnosis of ventilator-associated pneumonia. *J Crit Care* 2009; 24: 473e1-473e6.
- [41] Craven DE, Hudcova J, Lei Y. Diagnosis of Ventilator-Associated Respiratory Infections (VARI): Microbiologic Clues for Tracheobronchitis (VAT) and Pneumonia (VAP). *Clin Chest Med* 2011; 32: 547-57.
- [42] Baselski V, Wunderink RG. Bronchoscopic Diagnosis of Pneumonia. *Clin Microb Rev* 1994; 7(4): 533-58.
- [43] Kieninger AN, Lipsett PA. Hospital-Acquired Pneumonia: Pathophysiology, diagnosis and treatment. *Surg Clin N Am* 2009; 89: 439-61.
- [44] Sauaia A, Moore FA, Moore EE, et al. Diagnosing pneumonia in mechanically ventilated trauma patients: endotracheal aspirate versus bronchoalveolar lavage. *J Trauma* 1993; 35: 512-7.
- [45] Torres A, Martos, A, Puig de la Bellacasa J, et al. Specificity of endotracheal aspiration, protected specimen brush and bronchoalveolar lavage in mechanically ventilated patients. *Am Rev Respir Dis* 1993; 147(4): 952-7.
- [46] Marquette CH, Copin MC, Wallet F, et al. Diagnostic tests for pneumonia in ventilated patients: prospective evaluation of diagnostic accuracy using histology as a diagnostic gold standard. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 1995; 151: 1878-88.
- [47] Kollef MH. Antibiotic management of ventilator-associated pneumonia due to antibiotic-resistant gram-positive bacterial infection. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 2005; 24(12): 794-803.
- [48] Hsueh PR, Chen WH, Luh KT. Relationships between antimicrobial use and antimicrobial resistance in Gram-negative bacteria causing nosocomial infections from 1991-2003 at a university hospital in Taiwan. *Int J Antimicrob Agents* 2005; 26: 463-72.
- [49] Rossi F. The Challenges of Antimicrobial Resistance on Brazil. *Clin Infect Dis* 2011; 52(9): 1138-43.
- [50] Masterton R. The place of guidelines in hospital-acquired pneumonia. *J Hosp Infect* 2007; 66: 116-22.
- [51] Nicasio AM, Eagye KJ, Nicolau DP, et al. Pharmacodynamic-based clinical pathway for empiric antibiotic choice in patients with ventilator-associated pneumonia. *J Crit Care* 2010; 25(1): 69-77.
- [52] Waele JJD, Ravyts M, Depuydt P, et al. De-escalation after empirical meropenem treatment in the intensive care unit: Fiction or reality? *J Crit Care* 2010; 25(4): 641-6.
- [53] Hulscher MEJL, Grol RPTM, Van Der Meer JWM. Antibiotic prescribing in hospitals: a social and behavioural scientific approach. *Lancet Infect Dis* 2010; 10: 167-75.
- [54] McGowan JEJr. Is antimicrobial resistance in hospital microorganisms related to antibiotic use? *Bull NY Acad Med* 1987; 63: 253-68.
- [55] Carlet J, Collignon P, Goldmann D, et al. Society's failure to protect a precious resource: antibiotics. *Lancet* 2011; 378: 369-71.
- [56] Weller TMA. Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* typing methods: which should be the international standard? *J Hosp Infect* 2000; 44: 160-72.
- [57] Deurenberg RH, Stobberingh EE. The evolution of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Infect Genet Evol* 2008; 8(6): 747-63.
- [58] Maslow J, Mulligan ME. Epidemiologic typing systems. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol* 1996; 17(9): 595-604.
- [59] Feizabaldi MM, Ghodousi A, Nomanpour B, et al. Developed of a modified DNA extraction method for pulsed-field gel electrophoresis analysis of *Staphylococcus aureus* and enterococci without using lysostaphin. *J Microbial Meth* 2011; 84: 144-6.