### UNIVERSITY OF BASRAH AL-ZAHRAA MEDICAL COLLEGE



**Module:** Infection & Immunity

Semester: 5
Session: 2

Lecture Duration: 1h.

#### Lecture Title: Antimicrobials & resistance

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This Lectur was loaded in blackboard and you can find the material in:

Jawetz, Meinik & Adelberg's MEDICAL MICROBIOLOGY, 27 th Edition

For more detailed instructions, any question, or you have a case you need help in, please post to the group of session



# **Learning Objectives (LOs)**

- 1- A classification of antimicrobials
- 2- Mechanisms of action
- 3- Types and mechanisms of antibiotic resistance
- 4-Genetics of resistance
- 5-Susceptibility testing
- 6- Brief information on key antibacterial
- 7- An introduction to antifungal, antiviral & antiprotozoal agents



# Ideal features of antimicrobial agents 10-1

- 1. Selective toxicity is based on the ability of an antimicrobial agent to attack microorganism but not humans.
- 2. Few or no side effects
- 3. Able to achieve high concentrations at the site of infection.
- 4. A long half-life that reduces the need to frequently repeat doses.



#### Agents used in bacterial infections

**LO-1** 

#### Antibacterial drugs are organized into seven groups

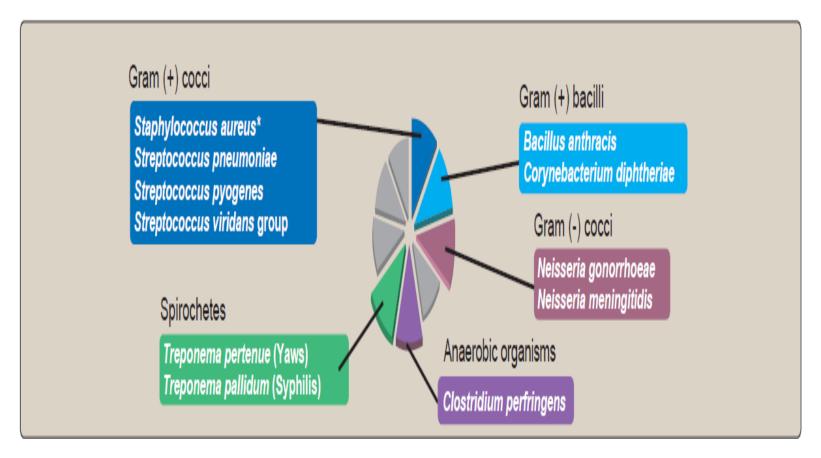
- 1. Penicillin
- 2. Cephalosporins
- 3. Tetracyclines
- 4. Aminoglycosides
- 5. Macrolides
- 6. Fluoroquinolones
- 7. Other



#### 1- Penicillin

- It is β-lactam antibiotic
- It interferes with the synthesis of the bacterial cell wall
- Their action is usually bactericidal
- The major adverse reaction to penicillin is hypersensitivity.
- Many bacteria have developed resistance to these drugs.





#### Summary of therapeutic applications of penicillin G.



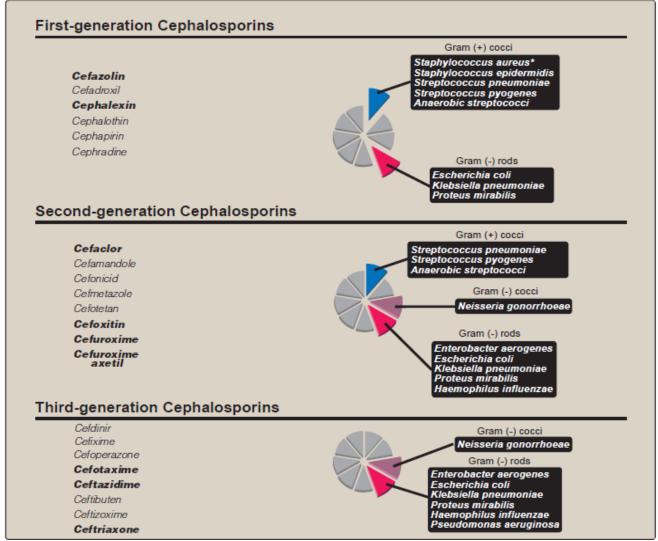
# 2- Cephalosporins

- Cephalosporins are β-lactam antibiotics that are closely related both structurally and functionally to the penicillin
- They are also bactericidal.
- Cephalosporins inhibit the synthesis of the bacterial cell wall
- Cephalosporins are classified as first, second, third, or fourth generation, largely on the basis of bacterial susceptibility patterns and resistance to β-lactamases.

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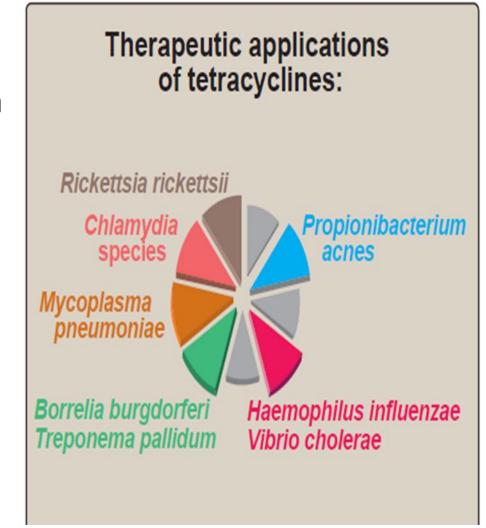


Summary of therapeutic applications of cephalosporins, with the more useful drugs shown in bold print. \*Except methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus.



# 3- Tetracyclines

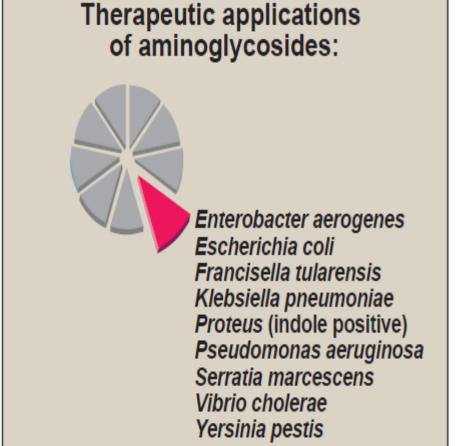
- Inhibiting bacterial protein synthesis.
- Tetracyclines are broadspectrum antibiotics
- Tetracyclines are generally bacteriostatic





#### **4- Aminoglycosides**

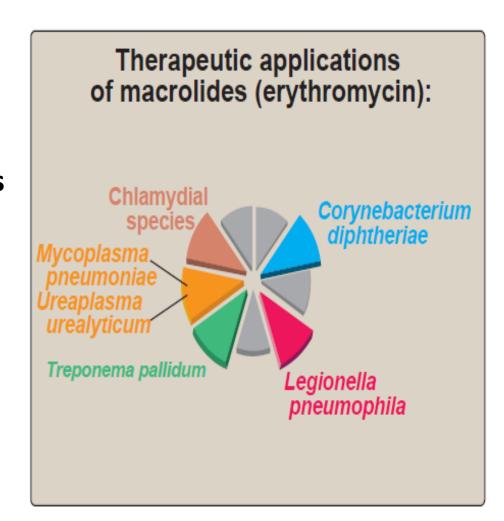
- Aminoglycosides inhibit bacterial protein synthesis.
- All aminoglycosides are bactericidal
- Gentamicin is example of aminoglycosides





#### 5- Macrolides

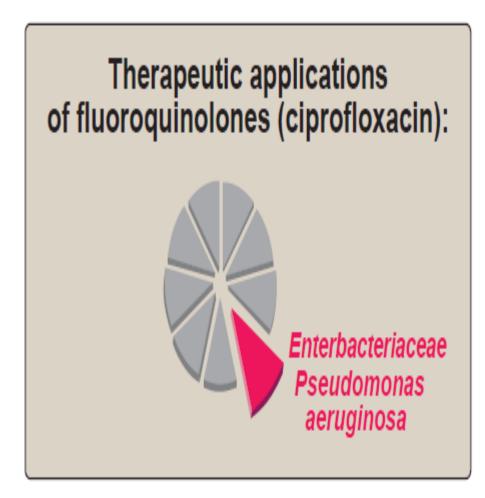
- Include Erythromycin, clarithromycin and azithromycin
- The drug of first choice, and as an alternative to penicillin in individuals who are allergic to β-lactam antibiotics.
- Macrolides inhibit bacterial protein synthesis.
- Generally considered to be bacteriostatic, they may be bactericidal at higher doses





## 6- Fluoroquinolones

- Fluoroquinolones inhibit the replication of bacterial DNA.
- All of the fluoroquinolones are bactericidal.





# 7- Other important antibacterial agents

**LO-2** 

A. Vancomycin: its effectiveness against multiple drugresistant organisms, such as methicillin resistant staphylococci.

Vancomycin inhibits synthesis of bacterial cell wall. Vancomycin is useful in patients with serious allergic reactions to β-lactam antibiotics

Vancomycin is also used for potentially life-threatening antibiotic-associated colitis caused by *Clostridium* difficile or *Staphylococci*.

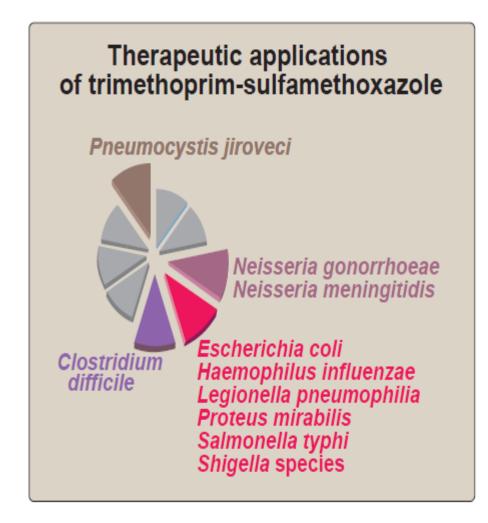


## G. Other important antibacterial agents

**LO-2** 

B. Trimethoprimsulfamethoxazole, a
combination called cotrimoxazole,
shows greater antimicrobial
activity than equivalent
quantities of either drug used
alone.

The synergistic antimicrobial activity of co-trimoxazole results from its inhibition of the synthesis of tetrahydrofolic acid and preventing bacterial DNA synthesis.





# Bacterial resistance to antimicrobics Mechanisms of Resistance

The major mechanisms of bacterial resistance are

1. Decreased uptake (or increased efflux) of antibiotic.

Pseudomonas aeruginosa has efflux pumps that expel tetracyclines and fluoroquinolones.

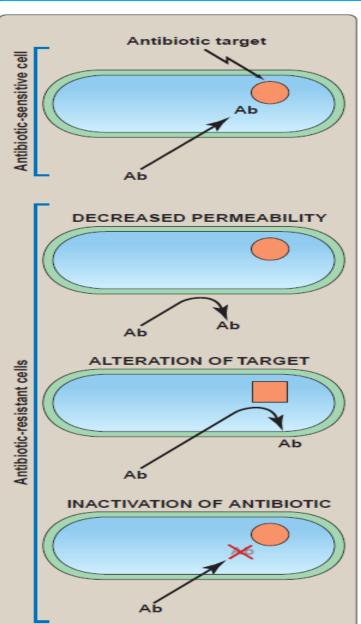
- 2. Alteration of the target site for antibiotic
- MRSA alters its penicillin-binding proteins (PBPs) by change in mecA gene encode PBPs, leading to resistance to  $\beta$ -lactams.
- 3. Acquisition of the ability to destroy or modify the antibiotic  $\beta$ -lactamases destroy penicillins and cephalosporins.
- 4. Changes in metabolic pathways can also translate into resistance in a few antimicrobic-organism combinations.

Enterococci can resist vancomycin by altering cell wall synthesis pathways.





# **Common mechanisms** of antibiotic resistance





#### **Genetics of Resistance**

#### **A-Intrinsic Resistance**

For any antimicrobic, there are bacterial species that are typically within its spectrum and those which are not. The resistance of the latter group is referred to as intrinsic or chromosomal to reflect its inherent nature. The resistant species have features such as permeability barriers, a lack of susceptibility of the cell wall, or ribosomal targets that make them inherently resistance.

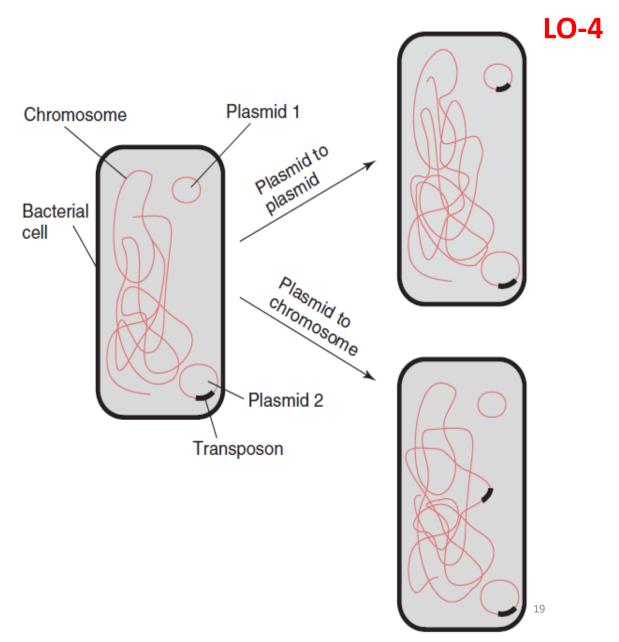


# **B- Acquired Resistance**

When an initially susceptible species develops resistance, such acquired resistance can be mutational or derived from another organism by the acquisition of new genes using one of the mechanisms of genetic exchange. Of these, conjugation and transposition are the most important and often work in tandem.



Plasmids and transposons
When passed to the next
generation, transposons
incorporated in plasmids
may be inserted in
another plasmid or in the
chromosome





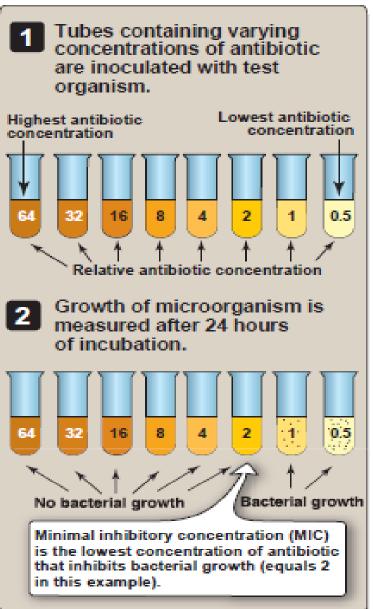
# Methods to calculate the minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC)

- 1. Dilution Tests
- 2. Diffusion Tests
- 3. Automated Tests
- 4. Molecular Testing (detect resistance genes)



#### **Dilution Tests**

- Tubes containing serial dilutions of an antibiotic are inoculated with the microorganism is to be tested.
- The MIC of the antibiotic necessary to prevent bacterial growth

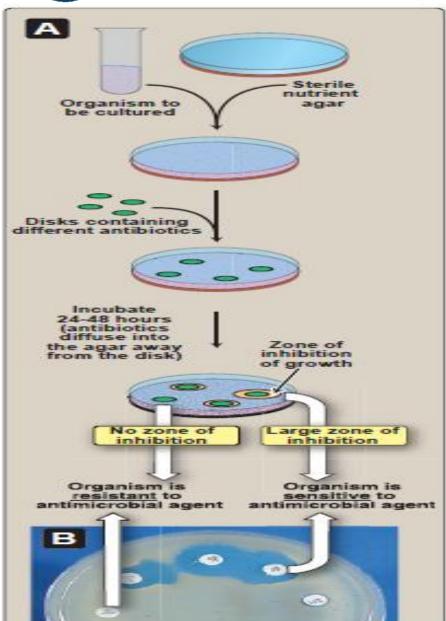






#### **Diffusion Tests**

- The organism's growth (resistance to the drug)
- Lack of growth
   (sensitivity to the drug)



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# **Epidemiology of Resistance**

- Clinical use is followed by resistance
- Predominant susceptibility can turn to resistance
- Resistance may emerge after decades of use



#### **Control of Resistance**

- 1. Use antimicrobics conservatively and specifically in therapy.
- 2. Use an adequate dosage and duration of therapy to eliminate the infecting microorganism and reduce the risk of selecting resistant variants.
- 3. Select antimicrobics according to the known susceptibility of the infecting strain whenever possible.
- 4. Use narrow-spectrum rather than broad-spectrum antimicrobics when the specific etiology of an infection is known, if possible.
- 5. Use antimicrobic combinations when they are known to prevent emergence of resistant mutants.



#### **Control of Resistance**

- 6. Avoid environmental contamination with antimicrobics.
- 7. Rigidly apply careful, aseptic and handwashing procedures to help prevent spread of resistant microorganisms.
- 8. Epidemiologically monitor resistant microorganisms and apply enhanced control measures.
- 9. Restrict the use of therapeutically valuable antimicrobics for nonmedical purposes



# **Antiviral therapy**

Among the unique viral events are attachment, penetration, uncoating, RNA-directed DNA synthesis (reverse transcription), and assembly and release of the intact virion.

Each of these steps may have complex elements with the potential for inhibition.



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Summary of Antiviral Agents					
MECHANISM OF ACTION	ANTIVIRAL AGENT	VIRAL SPECTRUM <sup>a</sup>			
Inhibition of viral					
uncoating, penetration					
	Amantadine	Flu A			
<b>**</b>	Rimantadine	Flu A			
Neuraminidase inhibition	Oseltamivir	Flu A, Flu B			
	Zanamiyir	Flu A, Flu B			
Inhibition of viral DNA	2-33-33-33-33	11011,11013			
polymerase					
	Acyclovir	HSV, VZV			
	Famciclovir	HSV, VZV			
	Penciclovir	HSV			
	Valacyclovir	HSV, VZV			
	Ganciclovir	CMV, HSV, VZV			
	Foscarnet	CMV, resistant HSV			
	Cidofovir	CMV			
	Trifluridine	HSV, VZV			
Inhibition of viral reverse transcriptase					
	Zidovudine	HIV			
	Dideoxyinosine	HIV			
	Dideoxycytidine	HIV			
	Stavudine	HIV			
	Lamivudine	HIV, HBV $^b$			
	Nevirapine	HIV			
	Delavirdine	HIV			
	Efavirenz	HIV			
Inhibition of viral protease					
	Saquinavir	HIV			
	Indinavir	HIV			
	Ritonavir	HIV			
	Nelfinavir	HIV			
	Lopinavir	HIV			
Inhibition of viral protein synthesis					
oj ildiesis	Interferon α	HBV, HCV, HPV			
Inhibition of viral RNA polymerase					
Parjanetase	Ribavirin	RSV, HCV,b Lassa fever			
Antisense inhibition of viral mRNA synthesis					
mana symmons	Fomivirsen	CMV			

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Flu A, influenza A; Flu B, influenza B; HSV, herpes simplex viruses; VZV, varicella-zoster virus; CMV, cytomegalovirus; HIV, human immunodeficiency virus; HBV, hepatitis B virus; HCV, hepatitis C virus; RSV, respiratory syncytial virus; HPV, human papillomavirus.
<sup>b</sup> Used in combination with interferon.



#### Inhibitors of HIV

Nucleoside Reverse Transcriptase Inhibitors, e.g., Azidothymidine (AZT)

Non-Nucleoside Reverse Transcriptase Inhibitors (NNRTIs), e.g., nevirapine, delavirdine, and efavirenz Protease Inhibitor received approval: Ritonavir, indinavir, and nelfinavir



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# Feature of antifungal agents

	2017			
AGENT	MECHANISM OF ACTION	MECHANISM OF RESISTANCE	Route	CLINICAL USE
POLYENES				
Nystatin	Membrane disruption	Sterol modification	Topical	Most fungi
Amphotericin B	Membrane disruption	Sterol modification	Intravenous	Most fungi
Azoles				
Ketoconazole	Demethylase block of ergosterol synthesis	Active efflux, demethylase alteration, or overproduction <sup>a</sup>	Oral	Candida, Cryptococci dimorphic fungi <sup>b</sup>
Fluconazole	Demethylase block of ergosterol synthesis	Active efflux, demethylase alteration, or overproduction <sup>a</sup>	Oral, intravenous	Candida, Cryptococci dimorphic fungi
Itraconazole	Demethylase block of ergosterol synthesis	Active efflux, demethylase alteration, or overproduction <sup>a</sup>	Oral, intravenous	Candida, Cryptococci dimorphic fungi, invasive molds (Aspergillus)
Clotrimazole	Demethylase block of ergosterol synthesis	Unknown <sup>c</sup>	Topical	Candida, some other yeasts
Miconazole	Demethylase block of ergosterol synthesis	Unknown <sup>c</sup>	Topical	Candida, some other yeasts
Voriconazole	Demethylase block of ergosterol synthesis	Unknown <sup>c</sup>	Oral, intravenous	Candida, some other yeasts and molds
ALLYLAMINES				
Terbinafine	Squalene accumulation	?Active efflux	Oral	Dermatophytes, combined with azoles for Candida, Aspergillus
Naftifine	Squalene accumulation	Unknown	Topical	Dermatophytes
FLUCYTOSINE				
	RNA and DNA synthesis	Permease or modifying enzymes <sup>d</sup> absent or decreased	Oral	Candida and Cryptococcus, resistance emerges in monotherapy
ECHINOCANDINS				
Caspofungin	Block of glucan synthesis	Unknown	Intravenous	Aspergillus, Candida
GRISEOFULVIN	Microtubule disruption	Unknown	Oral	Dermatophytes
POTASSIUM IODIDE	Unknown	Unknown	Oral	Sporothrix schenckii
TOLNAFTATE	Unknown	Unknown	Oral	Dermatophytes

Abbreviation: 5FC, 5-flucytosine.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Most work is with fluconazole and Candida, other azoles are to be assumed similar.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Generally less absorbed and less active than fluconazole or itraconazole.

Probably similar to other azoles, but resistance to the concentrations in topical preparations may differ.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>d</sup>Cytosine deaminase and uracil phosphoribosyltransferase (the enzyme that forms 5-fluorodoxyuridine from 5FC).



# Anti protozoa

**LO-7** 

The majority of anti protozoa drugs interfere with nucleic acid synthesis or, less commonly, with carbohydrate metabolism.

Metronidazole is an example.

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# "We always work together as a team"



