

# Contemporary Causes of Skin and Soft Tissue Infections in Jamaica

# Delbert Robinson<sup>\*</sup>, Fabian Pitkin, Deandra Whitely

Department of Medical Technology, Northern Caribbean University, Mandeville, Jamaica

# ABSTRACT

Skin and soft tissue infections (SSTIs) are common clinical conditions ranging from mild superficial/cutaneous legions to life-threatening disseminated infections. Roughly 15% of the patients that seek medical intervention have a skin lesion or disease which is infectious. The emergence and rapid spread of antimicrobial resistance has complicated the therapy and negatively impacted patient outcomes in cases of SSTIs. This study serves to highlight the most common causative agents of SSTIs in Jamaica based on frequency of isolation, their drug resistance, and also their frequency associated with the different demographic groups during the time period covered. Data pertaining to culture and sensitivity of SSTIs done between 2012 and 2015 was collated from the main reference lab in Jamaica, with permission from Ministry of Health (MOH), and analyzed with the IBM SPSS 25 system.

The patients included 139 females, 163 males and 75 of unknown gender. The order etiological agents causing skin and soft tissue infections in Jamaica closely mirrors the order reported in North America, Latin America and Europe with S. aureus being the most prevalent followed by various *Enterobacteriaceae*, *P. aeruginosa and*  $\beta$ -hemolytic *Streptococci*. This study showed that 77.1% of the SSTI isolates were resistant to at least one drug while 18.8% were deemed to be multidrug-resistant (MDR) and one case of extensive drug-resistance (XDR) was noted in 2012. The frequency of overall drug resistance and MDR isolates increased from 2013 to 2015. With the etiology of SSTIs in Jamaica mirroring global trends, it critical that we pay close attention to current global trends and recommendations concerning the management of SSTIs in order to improve patient outcomes.

Keywords: Skin and soft tissue infections; Females; Multidrug-resistant

# INTRODUCTION

The skin is the largest organ of the body and serves as the barrier protecting the internal organs from the external environment. Any breach in the skin creates a portal of entry for microorganisms which then grow and multiply causing infections and inflammation [1]. Skin and soft tissue infections (SSTIs) are common clinical conditions ranging from mild superficial/cutaneous legions to life-threatening disseminated infections [2]. SSTIs are clinical manifestations frequently associated with vasculopathy, immunosuppression, decreased lymphatic drainage or neuropathy [3]. SSTIs can be caused by fungal, viral, parasitic, and bacterial agents with the most common and focus of this study being the bacterial and fungal agents.

SSTIs pose a global threat and health problem to the general public [4]. Roughly 15% of the patients that seek medical intervention have a skin lesion or disease which is infectious [2]. In most recent years, a noteworthy developing pattern of SSTIs, whether community or hospital acquired, shows a steady increase of health care services and socioeconomic burden[5].

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

Table 1 shows the order of bacteria causing skin and soft tissue infections in North America, Latin America and Europe from 1998-2004.

Correspondence to: Robinson D, Department of Medical Technology, Northern Caribbean University, Mandeville, Jamaica, E-mail: delbert.robinson@ncu.edu.jm

Received date: February 25, 2020; Accepted date: March 10, 2020; Published date: March 17, 2020

**Copyright:** © 2020 Robinson D, et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Citation: Robinson D, Pitkin P, Whitely D (2020) Contemporary Causes of Skin and Soft Tissue Infections in Jamaica. J Clin Trials. 10:399. DOI: 10.35248/2167-0870.20.10.399

**Table 1:** The order of bacteria causing skin and soft tissue infections inNorth America, Latin America and Europe 1998-2004 [6].

Rank	Pathogen	No. of isolates (% of total)
1	Staphylococcus aureus	2602 (44.6)
2	Pseudomonas aeruginosa	648 (11.1)
3	Enterococcus spp.	542 (9.3)
4	Escherichia coli	422 (7.2)
5	Enterobacter spp.	282 (4.8)
6	Klebsiella spp.	248 (4.2)
7	eta -Hemolytic streptococci	237 (4.1)
8	Proteus mirabilis	166 (2.8)
9	Coagulase-negative staphylococci	161 (2.8)
10	Serratia spp.	125 (2.1)

Based on the ranking [6], S. *aureus* is the most common causative agent of SSTIs and is known to produce a myriad of bacterial toxins and among other highly effective virulence factors. The emergence and rapid spread of antimicrobial resistance has complicated the therapy and negatively impacted patient outcomes in cases of SSTIs. The most frequent drug resistances are Methillicin-resistant S. *aureus* (MRSA), *vancomycin-resistant* Enterococcus (VRE), *imipenem-resistant* P. *aeruginosa*, and extended *spectrum* beta-lactamases (ESBL) among E. coli, Klebsiella spp. and P. mirabilis [7].

This study serves to highlight the most common causative agents of SSTIs based on frequency of isolation, their drug resistance, and also their frequency associated with the different demographic groups during the time period covered.

#### METHODOLOGY

The data received from the main reference lab in Jamaica, with permission from Ministry of Health (MOH), was analyzed using IBM SPSS 25 software. Graphs and tables were constructed to illustrate and highlight the different trends, occurrence, and frequencies in the age, gender, and most common etiological causative agent.

# **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

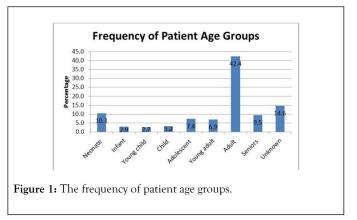
SSTIs represent approximately 6.3% of all specimens submitted to the microbiology department during the period studied with a slight increase in the number of specimens per year (Table 2).

Table 2: Number of SSTI specimens processed 2012-2015.

Year	Number of cases
2012	112
2013	130

2015	135	
Total	377	

The patients included 139 females, 163 males and 75 of unknown gender. A vast majority of the patients were adults (42.4%) followed by neonates (10.3%), seniors (9.5%), adolescents (7.4%) and young adults (6.9%) (Figure 1).



The order etiological agents causing skin and soft tissue infections in Jamaica (Table 3) closely mirrors the order reported in North America, Latin America and Europe (Table 1) [6] with *S. aureus* being the most prevalent followed by various *Enterobacteriaceae*, *P. aeruginosa and*  $\beta$ -hemolytic streptococci. This finding suggests that there might be possible similarities in the pathogenesis and prognosis of the infections caused by these microorganisms. It is therefore necessary for healthcare providers to stay abreast of best practices published in the regions showing similar patterns to inform the management these infections to improve patient outcomes.

**Table 3:** The order of bacteria causing skin and soft tissue infections inJamaica 2012-2015.

Ran k	Microbe	Number o cases	of Percent of cases
1	S.aureus	141	39.30%
2	Enterobacter spp	66	18.40%
3	Proteus spp	62	17.30%
4	Klebsiella spp	54	15.00%
5	E. coli	46	12.80%
6	Pseudomonas aeureginosa	41	11.40%
7	Acinetobacter spp	32	8.90%
8	Non hemolytic strep	26	7.20%

9	Enterococous spp.	19	5.30%
10	Beta-hemolytic strep	16	4.50%
11	Alcaligenes spp.	8	2.20%
12	Morganella morgarii	7	1.90%
13	Providencia spp.	7	1.90%
14	Citrobacter spp.	6	1.70%
15	Coagulase-negative Staph	4	1.10%
16	Alpha-hemolytic Strep	4	1.10%
17	Hemophilus spp.	4	1.10%
18	Candida spp.	3	0.80%
19	Salmonella spp.	1	0.30%
20	Serratia spp.	1	0.30%

When the prevalence of microorganisms is analyzed by groups (Figure 2), each year shows a similar distribution with the majority of isolates being *Enterobacteriaceae* followed by *Staphylococci*, *non-fermenting GNBs then Streptococci*. This finding was contrary to other regions where *Staphylococci* are the dominant isolates [6]. The primary pathogen affection all age groups except children and seniors was *S. aureus*. The primary pathogen for children and seniors were *P. aeruginosa* and *Proteus spp*. respectively (Table 4). These exceptions were contrary to the findings in literature where *S. aureus* is the main pathogen in SSTIs in children [8,9] and adults [10].

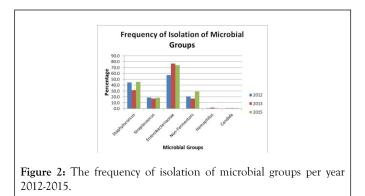


 Table 4: The most frequently isolated etiologic agent among different age groups.

Age group	No. 1 isolate	Frequency
Neonate (0-30 days)	S. aureus	27.10%
Infant (1 month-2 years)	S. aureus	38.50%
Young child (3-6 years)	S. aureus	46.20%

## OPEN O ACCESS Freely available online

Child (7-12 years)	P. aeruginosa	27.80%
Adolescent (13-18 years)	S. aureus	45.90%
Young adult (19-25 years)	S. aureus	48.40%
Adult (26-64 years)	S. aureus	23.90%
Seniors (65+ years)	Proteus spp.	19.40%

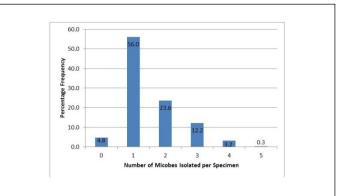


Figure 3: The frequency of isolation of multiple microbes from specimens.

The polymicrobial nature of SSTIs has been well documented [11-15]. This study found that 39.3% of cases were found to have two or more isolates with the maximum number of isolates in any one case being five (Figure 3). Polymicrobial infections can prove challenging to distinguish from specimen contamination due to the fact that most of the etiological agents are normal or transient flora thereby posing a risk of misinterpretation and misdiagnosis which in turn compromises patient management and outcomes. It is crucial then, to ensure the best quality results, that each laboratory adapt a protocol for investigating and distinguishing polymicrobial infections from contamination. Antimicrobial Resistance (AMR) is growing problem on a global scale [6]. Drug resistance has is expressed in varying degrees and therefore definitions have been prescribed for different categories. Multidrug-Resistance (MDR) is defined as acquired non-susceptibility to at least one agent in three or more antimicrobial categories, extensive drug-resistance (XDR) is defined as non-susceptibility to at least one agent in all but two or fewer antimicrobial categories and pandrug-resistance (PDR) is defined as non-susceptibility to all agents in all antimicrobial categories. This study showed that 77.1% of the SSTI isolates were resistant to at least one drug while 18.8% were deemed to be MDR and one case of XDR was noted in 2012. The frequency of overall drug resistance and MDR isolates increased from 2013 to 2015 (Table 5). These observations are congruent with global trends where steadily increasing prevalence of AMR is reported.

Desistance estadomy	Year (%)			Total (%)
Resistance category	2012	2013	2015	
Drug resistance	74.9	73.4	81.9	77.1
Multidrug resistance	22.2	13	21.3	18.8
Extensive drug resistance	2.4	0	0	0.5

Table 5: The frequency of isolation of drug-resistant microbes.

MRSA and VRSA were found to be at an overall prevalence of 14.2% and 10% respectively with neither strain being reported in 2015 (Table 6); this suggests either eradication or false negative tests for MRSA and VRSA in 2015 as the global trends show increasing prevalence[16,17]. Against the background of rising non-susceptibility to vancomycin among S. *aureus* and the contradicting decrease observed in this study, the protocols being used to detect MRSA and VRSA need to be reviewed and steps taken to ensure the highest sensitivity is maintained to avoid false negative results.

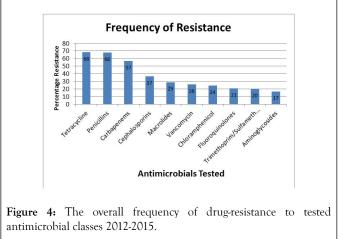
Table 6: The frequency of isolation of notable drug-resistant strains.

Microbe	Year (%)	Overall (%)		
Microbe	2012	2013	2015	
MRSA	33.3	10.8	0	14.2
VRSA <sup>‡</sup>	12.5	0	0	10
MRSE	0	50	100	50
VRE	14.3	50	100	47.4
Carbapenem- Resistant GNB	17.5	1.1	6.5	7.2

<sup>‡</sup> VRSA is represented as percentage of MRSA isolates

A steady increase in the prevalence was observed for VRE across the period studied (Table 6). This is consistent with global trends [18,19]. The prevalence of carbapenem-resistant GNBs stood at 7.2% showing an increase between 2013 and 2015. This trend is also consistent with literature as *carbapenemase-producing Enterobacteriaceae* (CRE) has spread worldwide during the last decades [20]. Of note is the observation that 50% of the isolated coagulase-negative *Staphylococcus* were found to be methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus epidermidis* (MRSE). This is however consistent with the emergence of MRSE in other regions with a prevalence of 56.3% reported in one study [21].

Significant resistance was observed to all drug classes tested with over 30% resistance to tetracycline, penicillins, carbapenems and cephalosporins with an increase in resistance reported for each of these drug classes between 2013 and 2015 (Figure 4) which is consistent with the reported increases around the world [6,15].



## CONCLUSION

The etiology of SSTIs in Jamaica closely mirrors that reported in North America and the rest of the world. We therefore need to pay close attention to current global trends and recommendations concerning the management of SSTIs in order to improve patient outcomes. AMR among the etiological agents of SSTIs is relatively high in all classes of drugs thereby posing a threat to successful patient therapy and increasing the risks of complications. The findings in this research support the need for broader studies into the etiology and AMR trends in other types of infections.

#### REFERENCES

- Cogen AL, Nizet, V, Gallo RL. Skin microbiota: A source of disease or defence. British J Dermatolo. 2008;158(3):442-455.
- 2. Bailey WR, Finegold SM, Martin WJ, Scott EG. Bailey and Scotts Diagnostic microbiology: A Textbook for the Isolation and Identification of Pathogenic Microorganisms. 1978;891-892.
- Lopez FA, Lartchenko S. Skin and soft tissue infections Infect disease clinics of North America, 2006;20(4):759-772.
- Stryjewski ME, Chambers HF. Skin and soft-tissue infections caused by community-acquired methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus. Clin Infect Dis. 2008;46(5):368-377.
- Uhlemann AC, Dumortier C, Hafer C, Taylor BS, Rodriguez-Taveras C, Leon P et al. Molecular characterization of Staphylococcus aureus from outpatients in the Caribbean reveals the presence of pandemic clones. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis. 2012;31(4):505-511.
- Moet GJ, Jones RN, Biedenbach DJ, Stilwell MG, Fritsche TR. Contemporary causes of skin and soft tissue infections in North America, Latin America, and Europe: Report from the SENTRY Antimicrobial Surveillance Program (1998 – 2004). Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis. 2007;57(1):7-13.
- 7. World Health Organization Antimicrobial resistance: Global report on surveillance. World Health Organization. 2014
- 8. Vayalumkal JV, Jadavji T. Children hospitalized with skin and soft tissue infections. Paediatr Drugs. 2006;8(2):99-111.
- Chen AE, Cantey JB, Carroll KC, Ross T, Speser S, Siberry GK. Discordance between Staphylococcus aureus nasal colonization and skin infections in children. Pediatr Infect Dis J. 2009;28(3): 244-246.
- 10. Ki V, Rotstein C. Bacterial skin and soft tissue infections in adults: A review of their epidemiology, pathogenesis, diagnosis, treatment

and site of care. Can J Infect Dis Med Microbiol. 2008 ;19(2): 173-184.

- 11. Stevens DL, Bisno AL, Chambers HF, Everett ED, Dellinger P, Goldstein EJ et al. Practice guidelines for the diagnosis and management of skin and soft-tissue infections. Clin Infect Dis. 2005;41(10):1373-1406.
- 12. Heitkamp RA, LiP, Mende K, Demons ST, Tribble DR, Tyner SD. Association of Enterococcus spp. with severe combat extremity injury, intensive care, and polymicrobial wound infection. Surg infect. 2018;19(1):95-103.
- 13. Esposito S, Bassetti M, Concia E, De Simone G, De Rosa FG, Grossi P et al. Diagnosis and management of skin and soft-tissue infections (SSTI). A literature review and consensus statement: An update. J Chemother. 2017;29(4):197-214.
- Banerjee B, Madiyal M, Ramchandra L, Mukhopadhyay C, Garg R, Chawla K. Unusual severe extra-intestinal manifestations of a common enteric pathogen-Aeromonas spp. J Clin Diagn Res. 2017;11(5)
- Gelband H, Miller-Petrie M, Pant S, Gandra S, Levinson J, Barter D. The state of the world's antibiotics: Center for disease dynamics. Ecomomics and Policy. 2015
- 16. Mera RM, Suaya JA, Amrine-Madsen H, Hogea CS, Miller LA, Lu EP et al. Increasing role of Staphylococcus aureus and communityacquired methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus infections in

the United States: A 10-year trend of replacement and expansion. Microbial Drug Resistance. 2011;17(2):321-328.

- 17. Zhang S, Sun X, Chang W, Dai Y, Ma X. Systematic review and meta-analysis of the epidemiology of vancomycin-intermediate and heterogeneous vancomycin-intermediate Staphylococcus aureus isolates. PloS One. 2015;10(8):136082.
- Tacconelli E, Cataldo MA. Vancomycin-resistant enterococci (VRE): Transmission and control. Int J Antimicrob Agents. 2008;31(2):99-106.
- Hidron AI, Edwards JR, Patel J, Horan TC, Sievert DM, Pollock DA et al. Antimicrobial-resistant pathogens associated with healthcare-associated infections: Annual summary of data reported to the National Healthcare Safety Network at the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2006 – 2007. 2008;29(11): 996-1011.
- Nordmann P, Naas T, Poirel L. Global spread of carbapenemaseproducing Enterobacteriaceae. Emerg Infect Dis. 2011;17(10), 1791.
- 21. Gill SR, Fouts DE, Archer GL, Mongodin EF, DeBoy RT, Ravel J et al. Insights on evolution of virulence and resistance from the complete genome analysis of an early methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus strain and a biofilm-producing methicillinresistant Staphylococcus epidermidis strain. J bacterial. 2005;187(7):2426-2438.