

Microbes and Infectious Diseases

Journal homepage: https://mid.journals.ekb.eg/

Original article

Association between SCC*mec* types and antimicrobial resistance in clinical MRSA isolates

Shahinda Rezk^{*}, Mirette Roufaeil, Ola Abdel Kader, Aliaa Aboulela

Department of Microbiology, Medical Research Institute, Alexandria University, Egypt.

ARTICLEINFO

Article history: Received 13 August 2022 Received in revised form 29 August 2022 Accepted 30 August 2022

Keywords: MRSA SCCmec types Antibiotic Resistance

ABSTRACT

Background: Methicillin resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA) is the causative agent of serious infections. MRSA isolates carry mecA gene which confers resistance to all β-lactams, markedly limiting the therapeutic options. Staphylococcal Chromosomal Cassette mec (SCCmec) typing enables strain-based MRSA identification. Aim: This study aimed to identify the prevalent SCCmec types among clinical MRSA isolates in Alexandria, Egypt, and their association with antibiotic resistance. Methods: One hundred MRSA clinical isolates were phenotypically and genotypically identified and tested for susceptibility to different classes of antibiotics. Subsequently, SCCmec typing was done using both conventional and SYBR Green PCR. Results: Typeability was 75 %, SCCmec type V was the most predominant (45.3%), with significant association with pyogenic lesions (53%, ^{MC}p <0.001). Staphylococcal Chromosomal Cassette mec type IV was significantly associated with nasal colonizers (50%, MCp 0.049). Staphylococcal Chromosomal Cassette mec type II was the most prominent in blood stream infection (33 %). Various antibiotic resistance patterns were detected. SCCmec types II and III displayed the highest resistance, while SCCmec type IV showed the least resistance. There was a significant association between SCCmec types and antibiotic resistance (p = 0.02-0.001). Conclusions: The only SCCmec types detected by PCR were SCCmec II-VI, with high resistance to gentamicin among all types. SCCmec type V was the most prevalent and was of relatively low resistance to antibiotics. SCCmec type IV was the least prevalent and showed the least resistance to antibiotics. There was a significant association between SCCmec types II and III and resistance to fluoroquinolones. Macrolides resistance was significantly associated with SCCmec type II. Tetracyclines resistance was significantly associated with SCCmec type III.

Background

The rising threat of antibiotic resistance in methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) has made it an impetus of research, MRSA has been recognized as a causative agent of a diversity of serious hospital and community acquired infections, particularly pyogenic infections of the skin. It can also cause infections associated with medical instruments such as central-line associated bloodstream infection [1].

Clinically, resistance against many antibiotic classes is considered one of the characteristic features of MRSA infection, as it

DOI: 10.21608/MID.2022.155995.1367

^{*} Corresponding author: Shahinda Rezk

E-mail address: shahinda.rezk@alexu.edu.eg.

^{© 2020} The author (s). Published by Zagazig University. This is an open access article under the CC BY 4.0 license https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/.

carries an altered form of penicillin-binding protein; PBP2a, which renders it less sensitive to most semisynthetic penicillin drugs. This protein is expressed via an acquired gene named *mecA*, which is carried within a highly conserved mobile genetic element called the staphylococcal cassette chromosome *mec* (SCC*mec*) [2,3].

Methicillin resistant **Staphylococcus** aureus has been known as a healthcare associated (HA) infectious agent with high predominance all over the world since its emergence in 1960 [4]. It was highly implicated in multidrug resistant healthcare associated infections [5], unlike community-acquired MRSA (CA-MRSA) that first emerged in 2000s. Community-acquired -MRSA occurred in either healthy individuals or any individual within two days of admission to the hospital with no history of any hospitalizations, surgeries, or long-term care facility stays in the previous year, as per the definition published by the CDC in 2005 [6].

Nowadays, CA-MRSA healthcare associated outbreaks have been recorded in several countries around the world causing remarkable changes in the epidemiological distribution of MRSA worldwide, and implying an increasingly difficult distinction between CA-MRSA and HA-MRSA based on the aforementioned description [7]. Hence, the true prevalence of this communitydwelling organism may be underestimated or exaggerated [8]. Accordingly, it is now preferred to establish a strain-based definition for CA-MRSA because of its distinct epidemiology, genetic profile, antibiotic resistance pattern and clinical presentation [6].

Bacterial typing is an indispensable epidemiologic tool that enables identification of bacteria at the strain level, elaborating clonal relationships between them. It may be done phenotypically by methods such as antibiogram typing or serotyping. Alternatively, bacteria may be typed more precisely by genotypic methods, based on analyzing variations in the genetic elements [9].

Staphylococcal Chromosomal Cassette *mec* (SCC*mec*) typing is one of the well-recognized MRSA genotyping methods. It is based on identification of the SCC*mec* element, which is carried on a genomic island that can easily transfer horizontally between strains by the site-specific action of two recombinases. SCC consists of 3 components; (i) *mec* gene complex, (ii)Ccr (cassette

chromosome recombinase) gene complex, and (iii) J regions [10].

The *mec* gene complex encompasses the *mec* gene, insertion sequences (IS) and the regulatory components *mec*R1 (signal transducer protein) and *mec*I (repressor protein). Cassette chromosome recombinase gene complex contains 8 open reading frames in addition to *ccr* gene(s).

The J regions are joining or junk regions that represent the third component of SCC. Despite being considered unessential components of the complex, they may contain determinants for additional antimicrobial resistance. SCC*mec* subtypes are defined by differences in the J-region DNA segment [6].

A unified nomenclature scheme for the cassette types has been established. SCC*mec* is the outcome of integrating the *mec* gene complex classes with the *ccr* gene complex types to categorize SCC*mec* components into types. There are thirteen different forms of SCC*mec* (I-XIII) found in MRSA strains so far [6], showed in **figure** (1).

Staphylococcal Chromosomal Cassette *mec* typing has recently become part of the well-recognized nomenclature of MRSA, that enables getting information about SCC*mec*-typed MRSA isolates. SCC*mec* typing can be performed by Whole genome sequencing and subsequent data analysis using bioinformatics tools such as SCC*mec*Finder. However, the conventional method of SCC*mec* typing using conventional PCR remains to be more widely applied.[11]

This study aimed to identify the SCC*mec* types of MRSA strains causing different clinical infections and their associated antibiotic resistance patterns in Alexandria, Egypt.

Methods

The study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by the Ethics Committee, Medical Research Institute, Alexandria University.

Bacterial isolates

Primary isolation of 100 *Staphylococcus aureus* (*S. aureus*) strains from clinical specimens was done by culture on Blood agar plates. Identification was done by colony morphology, and the characteristic microscopic morphology of Gram-stained films. This was further confirmed by positive reaction to biochemical tests; namely, catalase test, slide

coagulase test, tube coagulase test and mannitol fermentation.

Staphylococcus aureus colonies were tested for methicillin resistance by Kirby-Bauer method using cefoxitin disc (30 ug). Only cefoxitin resistant isolates (≤ 21 mm) after 16-18 hours were identified as MRSA and included in this study. Subculture on ORSAB (Oxacillin Resistance Screening Agar Base) and observation of the characteristic blue colonies of MRSA was also performed as a further confirmatory step for phenotypic identification.

The Kirby-Bauer disc diffusion method was used for antimicrobial susceptibility testing of the isolates to 14 types of antibiotics routinely tested in the Microbiology laboratory of the Medical Research Institute. The sizes of the zones of inhibition were interpreted according to the CLSI M100 (31st edition) recommendations. Susceptibility of the isolates to vancomycin was screened by means of vancomycin screening agar. Inducible clindamycin resistance was observed by D-test [12].

Molecular techniques

• PCR detection of *mecA* gene and SCC*mec* typing of MRSA

DNA was extracted from MRSA isolates by boiling method followed by molecular detection of methicillin resistance by conventional PCR amplification of *mec*A gene was done to all strains. Identification of SCC*mec* types was done using previously published SCC*mec* type-specific primers, and observation of the amplicon size corresponding to each type on agarose gel (**Table 1**) [13-16].

A 10 µmolar working solution of each primer was prepared using DNase free water. PCR reaction (25 µl) contained: 12.5 µl of MyTaqTM HS Red Mix (2x), 1µl of F primers (10 picomoles/µl), 1µl of R primers (10 picomoles/µl), 3 µl of DNA extract, and 7.5 µl of PCR grade water. A negative control was prepared by the addition of the same contents to the tubes with water placed instead of the extract. Conventional PCR amplification was carried out on Veriti Thermal Cycler (Applied Biosystems), using gene-specific thermal cycling conditions.

All thermal profiles included one cycle of initial denaturation at 95°C for 3 minutes, followed by 40 cycles of denaturation at 95°C, annealing at primer-specific temperatures, then extension at 72°C for 45 seconds, in addition to one cycle of final extension at 72°C for 1 minute.

Detection of the amplified target genes was done using gel electrophoresis with 1.7% (w/v) agarose, carried out on Mupid-exU System gel electrophoresis equipment. The size of the amplicons was determined using a 100 bp DNA ladder (Thermoscientific GeneRuler, US).

• Real time PCR confirmation of typing results

Further confirmation of PCR amplicon specificity was done for typed isolates by SYBR Green realtime PCR followed by melting curve analysis. Realtime PCR was carried out on Agilent Stratagene MX **Ouantitative** PCR 3000P System using SensiFAST[™] SYBR Lo-ROX[®] master mix, with gene-specific thermal cycling conditions. All thermal profiles started with an initial denaturation step (one cycle) at 95°C for 3 minutes, followed by 40 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 5 seconds, annealing at primer-specific temperatures, extension at 72°C for 20 seconds (Table 1), followed by one cycle of melting curve analysis as follows: 95 °C for 1 minute then (50°C for type III, V, 55°C for type II, IV, 54°C for type VI) for 30 seconds and finally 95 °C for 30 seconds.

Figure 1. Different SCCmec types [6].



Results

The 100 MRSA isolates collected during the study period included 60 isolates from pyogenic skin infection including abscess aspirates and wound swabs, 14 from blood stream infection, 9 from lower respiratory tract infection and 5 from urinary tract infection, in addition to 12 colonizing isolates collected from nasal swabs.

Antimicrobial susceptibility testing results

Antimicrobial resistance patterns to the 14 tested antibiotics, other than cefoxitin, varied among the 100 MRSA isolates. The highest resistance among all isolates was to gentamicin (71%), followed by Tetracycline (44%), while the highest sensitivity was to vancomycin (100 %), linezolid (97%) and rifampicin (93%). Resistance to ciprofloxacin was detected in 23% and to levofloxacin in 24%, while 10% resistant were to trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole. As for macrolides, resistance was detected in 24.2% to clarithromycin, in 25.2% to azithromycin and in 26.3% to erythromycin. Regarding clindamycin, out of the 100 MRSA isolates; 85 % were sensitive, while 8 % were constitutively resistant to clindamycin and 4 % showed induced resistance by positive D-test (Table 2).

The 100 MRSA isolates showed different antimicrobial resistance patterns, the two most prominent resistance patterns were resistance to gentamicin, doxycycline and tetracycline, as well as resistance to gentamicin only (17%) each. This was followed by resistance to gentamicin and tetracycline (12%). On the other hand,14 % of the isolates were sensitive to all tested antibiotics other than cefoxitin (**Table 3**).

Molecular identification and typing of MRSA strains

MecA gene was successfully amplified in the 100 MRSA isolates included in this study by conventional PCR. SCCmec typing of MRSA isolates was done by observing bands specific to each SCCmec type by conventional PCR and only the typed isolates were confirmed by SYBR- Green real time PCR to ensure the specificity of amplification by melting curve analysis. Out of the 100 MRSA isolates, only 75 (%) were successfully SCCmec-typed using previously published primers specific to each of SCCmec-types I-XII (Table 1). Among the 75 typed MRSA isolates: SCCmec type V (45.3%) was the most frequently encountered, followed by SCCmec type VI (16%), SCCmec types II and III which were found each in 13.3% of the isolates, and SCCmec type IV in 12% of the isolates. Specific bands for each type are shown in figure (2).

None of the isolates gave amplicons specific to SCCmec types I, VII, VIII, IX, X, XI, and XII.

The typed isolates included only 45/60 isolates from pyogenic skin lesions, 12/14 isolates from blood stream infection, 7/9 from lower respiratory tract infection, and all 5 isolates from urinary tract infection. As for the 12 nasal colonizers, only 6 isolates were typeable.

Statistical correlation between SCCmec types and clinical condition

A statistically significant association was found between SCCmec types and pyogenic skin infection $(^{MC}p<0.001)$, as SCCmec type V MRSA was the most prominent among all isolates from pyogenic skin lesions, isolated from 24/45 (53%) of the lesions. Type V was also the most prominent among isolates from lower respiratory tract infection 3/7 (43%), as well as urinary tract infection 3/5 (60%). As for blood stream infection, type II was the most prominent 4/12 (33 %), followed by type V 3/12 (25%). No statistically significant association was found between SCCmec types and different types of clinical infection, except for pyogenic skin lesions that showed a high statistically significant difference $(^{MC}p < 0.001)$ in which type V was most prominent 24/45(53.3%). In nasal colonization, type IV was the most prominent 3/6 (50%), with a statistically significant association, ${}^{MC}p = 0.049$ (Table 4).

Statistical correlation between SCC*mec* types and antibiotic resistance

Concerning Antimicrobial resistance, SCCmec types II and III had the highest resistance. SCCmec type II was resistant mainly to gentamicin, macrolides (p=0.002-0.001)followed by flouroquinolones (p<0.001). SCCmec type III showed high resistance to flouroquinolones followed (*p*<0.001) gentamicin by and Tetracyclines (p < 0.001). On the other hand, SCCmec type IV showed the least resistance to antibiotics followed by SCCmec type V and VI (Table 5). Intermediate susceptibility to Linezolid was detected in 3 isolates, that were of SCCmec types III, V and VI.

Most of the isolates with the same SCC*mec* type displayed the same pattern of resistance to antibiotics. For instance, simultaneous resistance to gentamicin and tetracycline was displayed by 8 isolates typed as SCC*mec* type V, also resistance to gentamicin, doxycycline and tetracycline was displayed by 5 isolates of SCC*mec* type V and 7 isolates of SCC*mec* type VI (**Table 3**).

Primers		Nucleotide sequences	Amplicon	Annealing	References	
			size (bp)	temp. (°C)		
mec A F		CCTAGTAAAGCTCCGGAA	331	53	[13]	
mec A R	mecA	CTAGTCCATTCGGTCCA				
Type I-F	SCCmec I	GCTTTAAAGAGTGTCGTTACAGG	613	50	[14]	
Type I-R		GTTCTCTCATAGTATGACGTCC				
Type II- F	SCCmec II	CGTTGAAGATGATGAAGCG	398			
Type II-R		CGAAATCAATGGTTAATGGACC				
Type III-F	SCCmec III	CCATATTGTGTACGATGCG	280			
Type III- R		CCTTAGTTGTCGTAACAGATCG				
Type IV-F	SCCmec IV	GCCTTATTCGAAGAAACCG	776			
Type IV-R		CTACTCTTCTGAAAAGCGTCG		53		
Type V- F	SCCmec V	GAACATTGTTACTTAAATGAGCG	325	50		
Type V- R		TGAAAGTTGTACCCTTGACACC				
mecI F		CGTTATAAGTGTACGAATGGTTTTTG	126			
mec I R	SCCmec VI	TCATCTGCAGAATGGGAAGTT				
ccrB4 F		CGAAGTATAGACACTGGAGCGATA	134		[15]	
ccrB4 R		GCGACTCTCTTGGCGTTTA				
IS1272J- F		GAAGCTTTGGGCGATAAAGA	98			
IS1272J-R		GCACTGTCTCGTTTAGACCAATC				
Type VII F	SCCmec VII	GTGACGTTGATATTGCAGTGGT	473	54		
Type VII R		TGAAGAAGTTTGTTCCGCGT			[16]	
Type VIII F	SCCmec	AGCGACGATGAACAACACCGCTACT	138			
	VIII	ТАСТСАА	-			
Type VIII R		TTGGTTGAGAATGAGAACAGTGGTA AGATC				
Type IX F	SCCmec IX	TGGCATGGTTGATAGAACAGTG	642			
Type IX R		TCACTAATTTTGCCTCACGTCT	-			
Type X F	SCCmec X	ATTTACGCCGATGCGTTGAC	708			
Type X R		TATGCGATTGCGCAGGTGAT	1	48		
Type XI F	SCCmec XI	GGCGATACAACGACACATCC	255			
Type XI R		TGTTAGTGCTTGACCGCTCTT				
Type XII F	SCCmec XII	AGAAGACGGAGGACATCGACA	371			
Type XII R		TCGCTTCTTCAACGCCATCTT				

 Table 1. Sequence of primers used in this study.

Antibiotics (Oxoid TM , Thermo Scientific TM)	No. of	Resistant		Intern	nediate	Sensitive		
	samples							
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
	100	100	1000/			0	0.01	
Cefoxitin (FOX, 30 µg)	100	100	100%			0	0%	
Gentamicin (CN, 10 µg)	100	71	71%	0	0%	29	29%	
Azithromycin (AZM, 15 µg)	95*	24	25.2%	1	1%	70	73.6%	
Clarithromycin (CLR, 15 µg)	95*	23	24.2%	0	0%	72	75.7%	
			/ .	-	- / -			
Erythromycin (E, 15 µg)	95*	25	26.3%	0	0%	70	73.6%	
	100	12	100/		201	0.5	0.50/	
Clindamycin (DA, 2 µg)	100	12	12%	3	3%	85	85%	
Tetracycline (TE, 30 μg)	100	44	44%	1	1%	55	55%	
Doxycycline (DO, 30 µg)	100	29	29%	2	2%	69	69%	
Minocycline (MH, 30 µg)	100	9	9%	15	15%	76	76%	
Ciprofloxacin (CIP, 5 µg)	100	23	23%	5	5%	72	72%	
Longflows die (LEW 5 de)	100	24	2.40/	1	10/	75	750/	
Levonoxaciii (LE v, 5 µg)	100	24	24%	1	1 %0	75	13%	
Trimethoprim/Sulfamethoxazole (SXT,	100	10	10%	2	2%	88	88%	
1.25/23.75 µg)								
Rifampicin (RD, 5 µg)	100	5	5%	2	2%	93	93%	
Linezolid (LZD, 30 µg)	100	0	0%	3	3%	97	97%	
	100		5 /0		570		2110	
Vancomycin (6 µg/ml) **	100%	100	-	-	0%	0	100	

Table 2. Results of antibiotic susceptibility testing of the 100 MRSA isolates

* Macrolides (Azithromycin, Erythromycin and Clarithromycin) were not tested with the 5 isolates from urine.

** Testing was done by Vancomycin screening agar according to CLSI guidelines [12].

Fable 3. Antibiotic resistance patterns	and the corresponding SCCmec types.
--	-------------------------------------

Antibiotic resistance patterns	All isolates (No.)	Untyped isolates (No.)	SCCmec types				
			II	III	IV	V	VI
CN, AZM, CLR, E, CIP, LEV, DO, MH, DA, RIF, TE	1						1
CN, AZM, CLR, E, CIP, LEV, DO, MH, TE, DA	4			3		1	
CN, AZM, CLR, E, CIP, LEV, DA, RIF, TE, SXT	1				1		
CN, AZM, CLR, E, CIP, LEV, DA, SXT, RIF	1						1
CN, AZM, CLR, E, CIP, LEV, RIF, SXT	1		1				
CN, AZM, CLR, E, CIP, LEV, TE	1					1	
CN, AZM, CLR, E, DA	2	2					
CN, AZM, CLR, E, CIP, LEV, SXT	3		2	1			
CN, AZM, CLR, E, CIP, LEV	3		3				
AZM, CLR, E, DO, TE, DA	1					1	
CN, CIP, LEV, DO, MIN, TE	3			3			
AZM, CLR, E, CIP, LEV	1					1	
CN, E, CIP, LEV, DA	2	1		1			
CIP, LEV, DO, MIN, TE	1					1	
CN, AZM, CLR, E	1	1					
CN, DO, TE, RD	1						1
AZM, CLR, E	1		1				
CN, CIP, LEV	1					1	
CN, DO, TE	17	4			1	5	7
CN, TE	12	4				8	
CN, DA	1					1	
DO, TE	1	1					
CN, E	1	1					
CIP, LEV	2			1		1	
ТЕ	1						1
SXT	4	1			2	1	
CN	17	6	3		1	7	
No resistance	15	4		1	4	5	1

		SCCmec types (n= 75)										
Source	No. of typed isolates	Type II (n = 10)		Type III (n = 10)		Type IV (n = 9)		Type V (n = 34)		Type VI (n = 12)		^{мс} р
		No.	%	No	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Pyogenic lesions	45	3	13.6	7	15.5	3	6.7	24	53.3	8	17.8	< 0.001*
Blood stream infection	12	4	33.3	1	8.3	2	16.6	3	25	2	16.6	0.092
Nasal swab	6	1	16.6	0	0.0	3	50.0	1	16.6	1	16.6	0.049*
Respiratory tract infection	7	1	14.2	2	28.5	0	0.0	3	42.8	1	14.2	0.711
Urinary tract infection	5	1	20.0	0	0.0	1	20.0	3	60.0	0	0.0	0.142

Table 4. Correlation between SCCmec types and their source clinical condition.

p: p value for Chi square test (Monte Carlo) association between different categories

*: Statistically significant at $p \le 0.05$

 Table 5. Correlation between SCCmec types and antibiotic resistance.

		SCCmec types (n=75)											
Resistant antibiotics	No.	Type II (n = 10)		Type III (n = 10)		Type IV (n = 9)		Type V (n = 34)		Type VI (n = 12)		мср	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Gentamicin (CN)	54	9	90.0	8	80.0	3	33.3	24	70.6	10	83.3	0.075	
Azithromycin (AZM)	19	7	70.0	5	50.0	1	11.1	4	11.8	2	16.7	0.001*	
Clarithromycin (CLR)	18	7	70.0	4	40.0	1	11.1	4	11.8	2	16.7	0.002*	
Erythromycin (E)	19	7	70.0	5	50.0	1	11.1	4	11.8	2	16.7	0.001*	
Clindamycin (DA)	11	0	0.0	4	40.0	1	11.1	4	11.8	2	16.7	0.133	
Tetracycline (TE)	35	0	0.0	6	60.0	2	22.2	17	50.0	10	83.8	< 0.001*	
Doxycycline (DO)	24	0	0.0	6	60.0	1	11.1	8	23.5	9	75.0	< 0.001*	
Minocycline (MH)	9	0	0.0	6	60.0	0	0.0	2	5.9	1	8.3	0.001*	
Ciprofloxacin (CIP)	22	6	60.0	9	90.0	1	11.1	4	11.8	2	16.7	< 0.001*	
Levofloxacin (LEV)	23	6	60.0	9	90.0	1	11.1	5	14.7	2	16.7	< 0.001*	
Trimethoprim/ Sulfamethoxazole (SXT)	9	3	30.0	1	10.0	3	33.3	1	2.9	1	8.3	0.020*	
Rifampicin (RD)	5	1	10.0	0	0.0	1	11.1	0	0.0	3	25.0	0.020^{*}	

p: p value for Chi square test (Monte Carlo) association between different categories

*: Statistically significant at $p \le 0.05$.

Figure 2. Showing specific band sizes for each SCCmec type.



Discussion

Methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* infection is of global concern worldwide. Epidemiologic studies about MRSA rely on the use of standard nomenclature that identifies the prevailing strains at the chromosomal level [11]. Staphylococcal Chromosomal Cassette *mec* (SCC*mec*) typing is one of the internationally recognized MRSA typing methods [17,18].

Pyogenic skin infection is the most common clinical presentation of MRSA infection. Sixty percent of the isolates in this study were collected from pyogenic skin lesions, followed by blood stream infection (14%), lower respiratory tract infection (9%) and urinary tract infection (5%). Another study about MRSA in Egyptian hospital laboratories also reported a similar proportion of isolates from pyogenic lesions (64.3%) and blood stream infection (9.5%) [14]. Similarly, it was reported in Kuwait that the majority of MRSA isolates were from wound and pus, followed by blood [15]. Also, in United Arab Emirates, pyogenic lesions and blood stream infection were the source of 73.4% and 15.2% of MRSA isolates, respectively [19].

Seventy five percent of our isolates were SCC*mec* typeable by PCR. Several studies worldwide employed SCC*mec* typing by PCR for identification of the prevailing SCC*mec* types in their regions and reported varying degrees of typeability that were all less than 100%. For instance, a study in Denmark reported 98% typeability by multiplex PCR [18]. Another study in Portugal reported 97.4 % typeability[20]. A more recent study in Palestine reported typeability of 96.4% [21]. Also in Alexandria, Mansoura, and Cairo, Egypt, the reported typeability was 90%, 94% and 88.8%, respectively [22-24]. Lower percentage of typeability (77%) was reported by a study in Rwanda [25], which was close to the findings of the current study.

The high percentage of isolation of SCCmec type V (45.3%) followed by SCCmec type IV (16%) and types II and III (13.3% each) among the 75 typeable MRSA isolates in our study was in accordance with the findings of several studies, worldwide. A recent study in a tertiary hospital in Cairo, Egypt, reported that half of their MRSA isolates were SCCmec type V (50%) followed by SCCmec type VI (17%) [24]. Also, a study carried out in four University Teaching Hospitals in Iran, reported that SCCmec type V was the most prevalent (66.7%) among their clinical MRSA isolates [26]. Moreover, other studies conducted in Armenia [27], and in Iran [28] stated that, SCCmec types V and VI were the most identified among MRSA isolated from hospitals.

Consistently, a study in Saudi Arabia reported the detection of SCC*mec* type IV in 77.3% of their isolates, followed by SCC*mec* type V (13.2%), and type III (9.4%) [17]. Similarly, a study from Kuwait reported that the majority of their isolates belonged to SCC*mec* type IV (39.5%) followed by SCC*mec* type III (34.4%) [29]. In Africa, a study assessed the SCC*mec* types in correlation with spa types and reported that isolates of the common spa types harbored SCCmec types IV followed by type V, with a minority harboring SCC*mec* type I [30].

Conversely, a study in Alexandria conducted on 72 MRSA isolates collected over a 4 months period in 2015, reported that 57% of their MRSA isolates harbored SCC*mec* type III and only 11% were of SCC*mec* type V [22]. The discrepancy between their most prevalent SCC*mec* type (type III) and our results (type V) may be attributed to the fact that their study was conducted 4 years earlier, and it focused mainly on typing of MRSA isolates collected from healthcare associated infection which represented 80% of their typed isolates. On the other hand, our study totally disregarded the source of infection and typing was performed on randomly selected isolates including nasal colonizers, to allow

for better representation of the SCCmec types prevalent in Alexandria, Egypt.

Staphylococcal Chromosomal Cassette *mec* (SCC*mec*) type I was not detected in any of our isolates. Despite being undetected in Egypt and nearby regions, a study on a small scale in Rwanda, reported the detection of SCC*mec* type I in 56% of the 39 MRSA isolates included in their study. They also reported that SCC*mec* type IV was the second most common type among their isolates (17.9%), while SCC*mec* types II and V were undetectable [25].

Apart from that, a study in Hungary stated that SCC*mec* type IV accounted for the vast majority of their MRSA isolates (66.7 %), followed by SCC*mec* type II (23.5%), and SCC*mec* type I (9.2%). They reported that SCC*mec* type V was detected in only one isolate, while SCC*mec* types III and VI were not found [31].

The discrepancy in the distribution of SCC*mec* types reported from different geographic regions, and even from the same region at different points of time, can be attributed to the high plasticity of this region, and the limited capabilities of the conventional PCR detection method, in addition to the differences in the sensitivity and specificity of the primers used, which may eventually result in missed identification of some SCC*mec* types.

In the present study, SCC*mec* type V isolates were the most predominantly isolated (53%) from pyogenic skin lesions, with statistically significant correlation (p < 0.001). This was in accordance with the findings reported by a study in Mansoura University Hospital which stated that SCC*mec* type V is significantly associated with burns and abscesses, and of a moderate association with wound sources [23].

Staphylococcal Chromosomal Cassette *mec* IV showed the least resistance to antibiotics, while SCC*mec* types II and III displayed the highest resistance to antibiotics and were significantly associated with resistance to fluoroquinolones (p<0.001). The association between SCC*mec* type III and fluoroquinolones resistance was in accordance with the findings of previous studies in Egypt and in Iran [22,32].

Similarly, in Hungary it was reported that SCC*mec* type II is associated with the highest level of resistance to antibiotics while SCC*mec* type IV is associated with low resistance [31]. Also, a Russian study reported that Isolates carrying SCC*mec* type

III demonstrated higher antibiotics resistance than SCC*mec* type IV [33].

The most common resistance patterns among our isolates were; resistance to gentamicin only, and simultaneous resistance to gentamicin, doxycycline and tetracycline, each detected in 17% of the isolates. Contrary to our findings, a study conducted in a Hungarian tertiary care hospital reported that the most prevalent phenotype of resistance was to erythromycin, clindamycin and ciprofloxacin [31]. On the other hand, a study in Kuwait reported that a high proportion of their isolates was resistant to tetracycline, erythromycin, ciprofloxacin and trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole [29].

Our isolates displayed very high resistance to gentamicin (71%), with no statistical difference between different SCC*mec* types. This was followed by resistance to tetracycline (44%). Resistance to fluroquinolones and macrolides was less (23-25%), while resistance to trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole (10%) and rifampicin (5%) was low. All isolates were susceptible to vancomycin, however, 3 isolates displayed intermediate susceptibility to linezolid. This could be probably due to over-prescription of this drug by physicians in Egypt.

In Spain, it was reported that ciprofloxacin resistance was the highest (85%) in MRSA, followed by erythromycin resistance (65%), gentamicin resistance (35%), and tetracycline resistance (30%). All MRSA strains were susceptible to trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole and rifampicin, which was not far from our susceptibility results for these 2 antibiotics [34]. Also, a study in Palestine reported that resistance to erythromycin in MRSA was 63.4%, and to ciprofloxacin was 39.3%, with 18.8% resistance to trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole [21].

Constitutive clindamycin resistance was displayed by 8% of our isolates, while 4% showed inducible resistance with a positive D-test. The percentage of clindamycin resistance was slightly higher in a study conducted in Spain which reported that 11.7% of their MRSA isolates have inducible clindamycin resistance [34]. Even higher percentages were reported in Kuwait, where the authors reported that inducible and constitutive clindamycin resistance among their MRSA isolates were 14.4% and 37.8%, respectively [29].

Conclusions

The only SCCmec types detected by PCR were SCCmec II-VI, with high resistance to gentamicin among all types. SCCmec type V was the most prevalent and was significantly associated with pyogenic lesions and of relatively low resistance to antibiotics. SCCmec type IV was the least prevalent and showed the least resistance to antibiotics. There was a significant association between SCCmec types II and III and resistance to fluoroquinolones. Macrolides resistance was significantly associated with SCCmec type II. Tetracyclines resistance was significantly associated with SCCmec type III.

Conflict of interest

The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

Funding

This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or notfor-profit sectors.

Author contributions

Aliaa Aboulela: planned and supervised the experiments, worked out almost all of the technical details, discussed the results, and wrote the final manuscript with input from all authors.

Mirette Roufaeil: carried out the experiments, performed the analysis, discussed the results and wrote the draft manuscript.

Ola Abdel Kader: conceived the original idea, supervised the findings of this work, discussed the results, and critically revised the manuscript.

Shahinda Rezk: planned and supervised the experiments, worked out almost all of the technical details, discussed the results and contributed to writing of the final manuscript.

Abbreviation

SCCmec: staphylococcal cassette chromosome *mec* **MRSA:** Methicillin Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

CA-MRSA: community-acquired MRSA **HA-MRSA:** healthcare associated MRSA **CCR:** (cassette chromosome recombinase)

Acknowledgement

The authors would like to thank Dr. Asmaaa Abdelhameed, lecturer of Biomedical statistics in the Medical Research Institute, for her contribution to statistical analysis of results

References

1-Schito GC. The importance of the development

of antibiotic resistance in Staphylococcus

aureus. Clinical microbiology and infection 2006; 12: p. 3-8.

- 2-Baddour MM, AbuElKheir MM, Fatani AJ. Comparison of mecA polymerase chain reaction with phenotypic methods for the detection of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. Current microbiology 2007. 55(6): p. 473-479.
- 3-Katayama Y, Ito T, Hiramatsu K. A new class of genetic element, staphylococcus cassette chromosome mec, encodes methicillin resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*. Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy 2000. 44(6): p. 1549-1555.
- 4-Stefani S, Chung DR, Lindsay JA, Friedrich AW, Kearns AM, Westh H, et al. Meticillinresistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA): global epidemiology and harmonisation of typing methods. International journal of antimicrobial agents 2012; 39(4): p. 273-282.
- 5-Köck R, Becker K, Cookson B, van Gemert-Pijnen JE, Harbarth S, Kluytmans J, et al. Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA): burden of disease and control challenges in Europe. Eurosurveillance 2010; 15(41): p. 19688.
- 6-Lakhundi S, Zhang K. Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus: molecular characterization, evolution, and epidemiology. Clinical microbiology reviews 2018; 31(4): p. e00020-18.
- 7-Lee A, de Lencastre H, Garau J, Kluytmans J, Malhotra-Kumar S, Peschel A, et al. Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. Nature reviews Disease primers 2018; 4(1): p. 1-23.
- 8-Otter J, French G. Community-associated meticillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* strains as a cause of healthcare-associated

infection. Journal of Hospital Infection 2011; 79(3): p. 189-193.

- 9-Li W, Raoult D, Fournier PE. Bacterial strain typing in the genomic era. FEMS microbiology reviews 2009; 33(5): p. 892-916.
- 10-Yamaguchi T, Ono D, Sato A. Staphylococcal cassette chromosome mec (SCCmec) analysis of MRSA, in Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus Aureus* (MRSA) Protocols. 2020 Springer; p. 59-78.
- 11-Kaya H, Hasman H, Larsen J, Stegger M, Johannesen TB, Allesøe RL, et al. SCC mec Finder, a web-based tool for typing of staphylococcal cassette chromosome mec in *Staphylococcus aureus* using whole-genome sequence data Msphere 2018; 3(1), e00612-17.
- 12-Clinical Laboratory Standards Institute
 (CLSI) Performance standards for antimicrobial susceptibility testing of anaerobic bacteria: informational supplemen 2021, CLSI: Pittsburgh, PA. ISBN : 978-1-68440-105-5
- 13-Bhowmik D, Chetri S, Paul D, Chanda DD, Bhattacharjee A. Detection and molecular typing of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* from northeastern part of India. medical journal armed forces india 2019;75(1):86-9
- 14-Zhang, K., McClure JA, Elsayed S, Louie T, Conly JM. Novel multiplex PCR assay for characterization and concomitant subtyping of staphylococcal cassette chromosome mec types I to V in methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. Journal of clinical microbiology 2005; 43(10): p. 5026-5033.
- 15-Chen L, Mediavilla JR, Oliveira DC, Willey BM, De Lencastre H, Kreiswirth BN. Multiplex real-time PCR for rapid staphylococcal cassette chromosome mec typing. Journal of clinical microbiology 2009;47(11):3692-706.

- 16-Bhowmik D, Das BJ, Pandey P, Chetri S, Chanda DD, Bhattacharjee A. An array of multiplex PCR assays for detection of staphylococcal chromosomal cassette mec (SCCmec) types among staphylococcal isolates. Journal of microbiological methods 2019; 166: p. 105733.
- 17-Alkharsah KR, Rehman S, Alkhamis F, Alnimr A, Diab A, Al-Ali AK. Comparative and molecular analysis of MRSA isolates from infection sites and carrier colonization sites. Annals of clinical microbiology and antimicrobials 2018; 17(1): p. 1-11.
- 18-Mediavilla JR, Chen L, Mathema B, Kreiswirth BN. Global epidemiology of community-associated methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (CA-MRSA). Current opinion in microbiology 2012; 15(5): p. 588-595.
- 19-Senok A, Nassar R, Celiloglu H, Nabi A, Alfaresi M, Weber S, et al. Genotyping of methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* from the United Arab Emirates. Scientific reports 2020; 10(1): p. 1-8.
- 20-Faria NA, Carrico JA, Oliveira DC, Ramirez M, de Lencastre H. Analysis of typing methods for epidemiological surveillance of both methicillin-resistant and methicillinsusceptible *Staphylococcus aureus* strains. Journal of clinical microbiology 2008; 46(1): p. 136-144.
- 21-Hadyeh E, Azmi K, Seir RA, Abdellatief I, Abdeen Z. Molecular characterization of methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in west bank-palestine. Frontiers in public health 2019; 7: p. 130.
- 22-Alseqely M, Newton-Foot M, Khalil A, El-Nakeeb M, Whitelaw A, Abouelfetouh A. Association between fluoroquinolone

resistance and MRSA genotype in Alexandria, Egypt. Scientific reports 2021; 11(1): p. 1-9.

- 23-El-Baz R, Rizk DE, Barwa R, Hassan R. Virulence characteristics and molecular relatedness of methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* harboring different staphylococcal cassette chromosome mec. Microbial pathogenesis 2017; 113: p. 385-395.
- 24-Soliman MS, Soliman NS, El-Manakhly AR, ElBanna SA, Aziz RK, El-Kholy AA. Genomic Characterization of Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) by High-Throughput Sequencing in a Tertiary Care Hospital. Genes 2020; 11(10): p. 1219.
- 25-Masaisa F, Kayigi E, Seni J, Bwanga F, Muvunyi CM. Antibiotic resistance patterns and molecular characterization of methicillinresistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in clinical settings in Rwanda. The American journal of tropical medicine and hygiene 2018; 99(5): p. 1239.
- 26-Firoozeh F, Omidi M, Saffari M, Sedaghat H, Zibaei M. Molecular analysis of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates from four teaching hospitals in Iran: the emergence of novel MRSA clones. Antimicrobial Resistance & Infection Control 2020; 9(1): p. 1-8.
- 27-Mkrtchyan HV, Xu Z, Yacoub M, Ter-Stepanyan MM, Karapetyan HD, Kearns AM, et al. Detection of diverse genotypes of Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* from hospital personnel and the environment in Armenia. Antimicrobial Resistance & Infection Control 2017; 6(1): p. 1-5.
- 28-Havaei SA, Halaji M, Vidovic S, R. Dillon J, Karbalaei M, Ghanbari F, et al. Prevalence and genotyping of methicillin-resistant andsusceptible *Staphylococcus aureus* strains isolated from patients in a university hospital,

Isfahan, Iran. Jundishapur Journal of Microbiology 2017; 10(5).

- 29-Alfouzan W, Udo EE, Modhaffer A, Alosaimi A. Molecular characterization of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus in a* tertiary care hospital in Kuwait. Scientific reports 2019; 9(1): p. 1-8.
- 30-Asadollahi P, Farahani NN, Mirzaii M, Khoramrooz SS, van Belkum A, Asadollahi K, et al. Distribution of the Most Prevalent Spa Types among Clinical Isolates of Methicillin-Resistant and -Susceptible Staphylococcus aureus around the World: A Review. Frontiers in Microbiology 2018; 9.
- 31-Horváth A, Dobay O, Sahin-Tóth J, Juhász E, Pongrácz J, Iván M, et al. Characterisation of antibiotic resistance, virulence, clonality and mortality in MRSA and MSSA bloodstream infections at a tertiary-level hospital in Hungary: A 6-year retrospective study. Annals of clinical microbiology and antimicrobials 2020; 19(1): p. 1-11.
- 32-Japoni A, Jamalidoust M, Farshad S, Ziyaeyan M, Alborzi A, Japoni S, et al. Characterization of SCCmec types and antibacterial susceptibility patterns of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in Southern Iran. Japanese journal of infectious diseases 2011; 64(1): p. 28-33.
- 33-Gostev V, Kruglov A, Kalinogorskaya O, Dmitrenko O, Khokhlova O, Yamamoto T, et al. Molecular epidemiology and antibiotic resistance of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* circulating in the Russian Federation. Infection, Genetics and Evolution 2017; 53: p. 189-194.
- 34-Cabrera R, Fernández-Barat L, Motos A, López-Aladid R, Vázquez N, Panigada M, et al. Molecular characterization of methicillinresistant *Staphylococcus aureus* clinical strains

from the endotracheal tubes of patients with nosocomial pneumonia. Antimicrobial Resistance & Infection Control 2020;9(1):1-0.