

Faculty of Dentistry 22 September 2014 Dobay Orsolya

#### Structure of the lecture

- History of antibiotics
- Principles of antibiotic treatment
- Mode of actions of antibiotics
- Resistance to antibiotics
- Determination of antibiotic sensitivity

# HISTORY OF ANTIBIOTICS

#### History of antibiotics - 1

• 19th century:

-Louis Pasteur & Robert Koch:

Bacteria as causative agents & recognized need to control them

## History of antibiotics - 2

- Plant extracts
  - Quinine (against malaria)
  - Ipecacuanha root (emetic, e.g. in dysentery)
- Toxic metals
  - Mercury (against syphilis)
  - Arsenic (Atoxyl, against Trypanosoma)

#### • Dyes

- Trypan Blue (Ehrlich)
- Prontosil (azo-dye, Domagk, 1936)





# History of antibiotics - 3 Paul Ehrlich

- started science of chemotherapy
- systematic chemical modifications ("Magic Bullet")
  - no. 606 compound = Salvarsan (1910)
- selective toxicity !!

- developed the **Chemotherapeutic Index** 
  - Chemotherapeutic Index =  $\frac{\text{Toxic Concentration}}{\text{Effective Concentration}}$







DTMDCM

- DTM = dosis tolerata maxima (toxic)
- DCM = dosis curativa minima (effective)
- wide or narrow application concentration interval

# History of antibiotics - 4 Penicillin- the first antibiotic - 1928

- Alexander Fleming observed the killing of staphylococci by a fungus (*Penicillium notatum*)
- observed by others never exploited
- Florey & Chain purified it by freezedrying (1940) - Nobel prize 1945
- first used in a patient: 1942
- World War II: penicillin saved 12-15% of lives



### Fleming Museum, London



SIR ALEXANDER FLEMING 1881-1955 DISCOVERED PENICILLIN IN THE SECOND STOREY ROOM ABOVE THIS PLAQUE







## History of antibiotics - 5

- Selman Waksman Streptomycin (1943)
  - active against all Gram-negatives
  - first antibiotic active against Mycobacterium tuberculosis
  - most severe infections were caused by Gram-negatives and Mycobacterium tuberculosis
  - extracted from *Streptomyces*
  - 20 other antibiotics, incl. neomycin, actinomycin



Nobel prize 1952

# PRINCIPLES OF ANTIBIOTIC TREATMENT

#### **Principals of antibiotic treatment** Antibiotic **Bacterium** Patient Wide or narrow spectrum Bacteriostatic or •Basic disease Gram + / bactericid •Drug allergy Penetration ability Resistance !!! •Pregnancy, childhood

## Types of antibiotic therapy

#### Targeted

based on sensitivity tests

#### • Empiric

– based on the symptoms and habits

- knowledge of local epidemiological data

#### • Profilactic

- e.g. intestinal operation, dentical surgery

#### Possible side effects

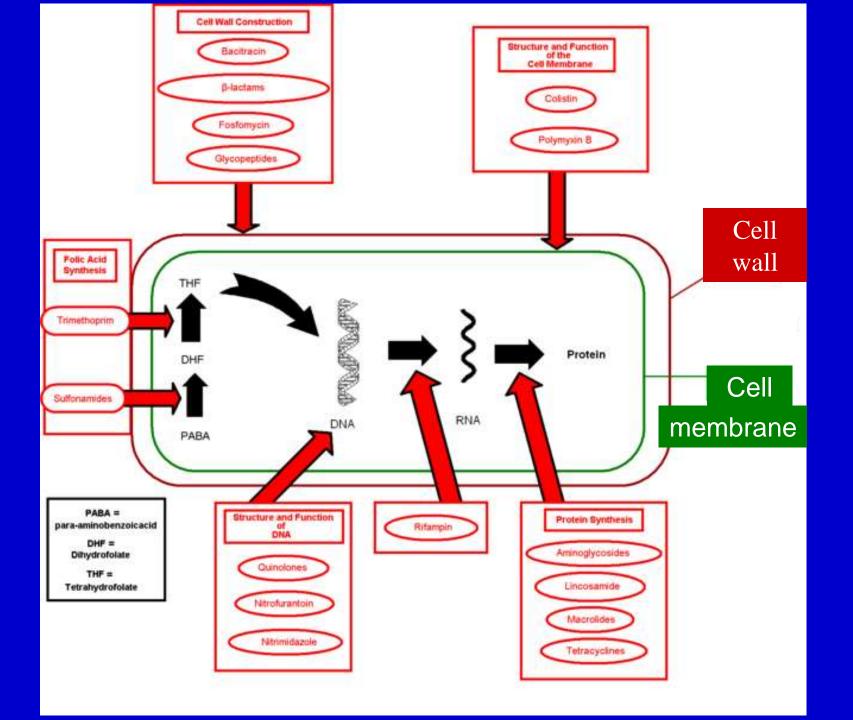
- Allergy
  - penicillins!
  - type I hypersensitivity reaction (anaphylaxy)
- Toxic effect
  - kidney, liver (alcoholism!), bone marrow
  - impaired hearing
  - bones, teeth (tetracyclin: complex with Ca<sup>2+</sup>)
  - fluoroquinolones: Achilles-tendon rupture
- Disbacteriosis
  - = killing of the normal flora
  - e.g. pseudomembranous colitis by C. difficile

MODE OF ACTIONS OF ANTIBIOTICS

### Possible targets

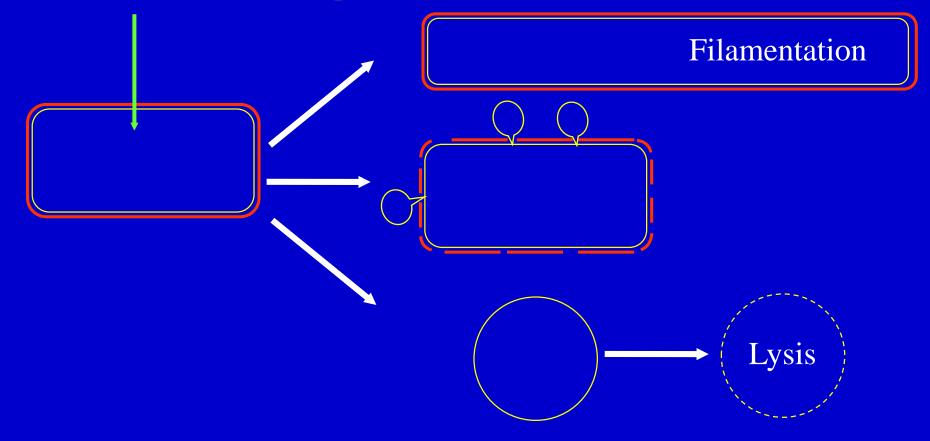
- Inhibition of cell-wall synthesis
  - inhibition of peptidoglycan cross-linking (beta-lactams)
  - inhibition of peptidoglycan synthesis (vancomycin)
- Disruption of cell membrane
  - polymyxins
- Inhibition of protein synthesis
  - at 30S ribosomal subunit (aminoglycosides, tetracyclines)
  - at 50S ribosomal subunit (macrolides, chloramphenicol)
- Inhibition of nucleic acid
  - inhibition of folic acid synthesis (sulphonamides, trimethoprim)
  - inhibition of DNA gyrase (fluoroquinolones)
  - inhibition of RNA synthesis (rifampin)

#### **SELECTIVE TOXICITY !!!**



# I. Inhibition of cell wall synthesis (bactericid)

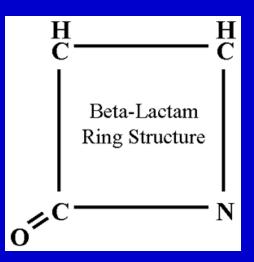
Cell wall controls osmotic pressure



### I.1. β-lactams

- Inhibit transpeptidation of peptidoglycan chains
- Important questions:
  - can be given orally? (acid stability)
  - $-\beta$ -lactamase (enzyme-) stability?
  - good against Gram negatives?
     (*Pseudomonas*, *Acinetobacter*!)

Structure of β–lactam ring: (very vulnerable!)



# I.1.1. Penicillins

 $\beta$ –lactam ring

+ 5 membered /=tiazolidin-/ ring with sulphur

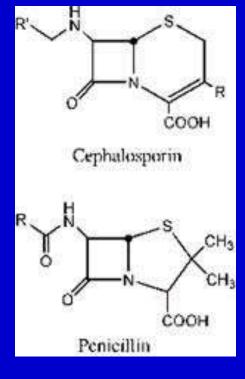
- natural penicillins: *penicillin G, V*
- enzyme stable: *methicillin, oxacillin* (MRSA!!)
- amino-penicillins: *ampicillin, amoxicillin* (given *per os*, but not enzyme stable)
- ureido-penicillins: *piperacillin, mezlocillin* (nor acid or enzyme stable, but good against *Pseudomonas*)
- carboxi-penicillins: carbenicillin



# I.1.2. Cephalosporins

β–lactam + 6 membered /=cephem-/ ring with sulphur

- more possibilities for substitution
- also against Gram negatives!
- I. gen.: cefazolin, cephalexin, ...
- II. gen: cefuroxim, cefaclor, cefoxitin, ...
- III. gen.: cefotaxim, ceftriaxon, ...
- IV. gen.: cefepim, cefpirom
- V. gen.: *ceftaroline*, *ceftobiprol*



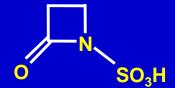
# I.1.3. Carbapenems

- widest spectrum!
- derived from penicillins
- imipenem, meropenem, ertapenem
- class B  $\beta$ -lactamase = carbapenemase

## I.1.4. Carbacephems

- derived from cephalosporins
- loracarbef

#### I.1.5. Monobactams

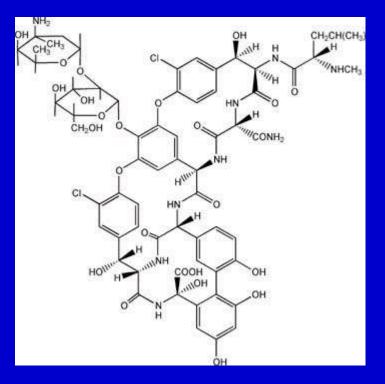


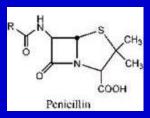




# I.2. Glycopeptides

- vancomycin, teicoplanin
- giant molecules
- triple effect:
  - cell wall synthesis
  - membrane permeability
  - DNA synthesis (?)
- last resort antibiotics
- VRE!!





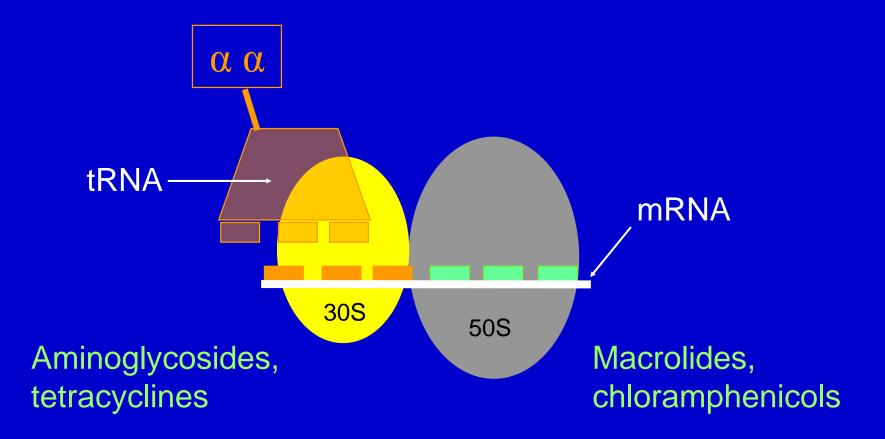
# I.3. Polypeptides

- Bacitracin:
  - mainly against *S. aureus* and *Str. pyogenes*, for local treatment (skin infections)
  - by Bacillus licheniformis
  - inhibits cell wall synthesis

#### II. Disruption of cell membrane

- Polymixins (e.g. Colistin):
  - desintegration of <u>cell membrane</u>
  - against Gram-negatives, for local treatment
  - (burns, ear, eye *Pseudomonas*!)
  - bactericid, narrow spectrum

# III. Inhibition of protein synthesis (usually bacteriostatic)

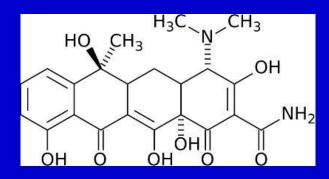


## III.1. Aminoglycosides

- bactericid!
- act on 30S ribosomal subunit
- *streptomycin*: also against TB (today: only)
- today mainly:
  - amikacin, netilmycin: severe systemic infections
  - tobramycin, gentamicin: parenteral or eye drops
  - neomycin: eye drops
- often toxic (deafness!, kidney failure)

## III.2. Tetracyclines

• chlortetracyclin, doxycyclin, oxytetracyclin (Tetran)



- act on 30S ribosomal subunit, inhibiting the binding of aminoacil-tRNA
- very wide spectrum (also for animals!)
- active against IC bacteria!!
  - Chlamydia, Mycoplasma, Rickettsia
- side effects:
  - liver failure (pregnancy!), kidney failure
  - acculmulation in bones (teeth of children!)
  - severe diarrhoea, mucosal inflammation

### III.3. Chloramphenicol

- acts on 50S ribosomal subunit
- Streptomyces venezuelae (Ehrlich)
- wide spectrum  $\rightarrow$  dysbacteriosis !!
- today mainly for:
  - typhus abdominalis, amp<sup>R</sup> *Haem. influenzae*
- but: often in developing countries (cheap)
- per os, or eye drops / ointments (Chlorocid)
- toxic effects:
  - bone marrow malfunction
  - ,, Grey baby syndrome" in newborns

#### **III.4.** Macrolides

- act on 50S ribosomal subunit
- inhibit the elongation of peptide chain
- higher concentration: becomes bactericid
- groups:
  - 14 membered ring: erythromycin, clarithromycin
  - 15 membered ring : *azythromycin*
  - 16 membered ring : josamycin
- wide spectrum (*Streptococci*; *Bordetella*, STD, RTI /*Haemophilus*, *pneumo*/, *Helicobacter*, *Chlamydia*)
- cross resistance exists!

#### III.5. Lincosamides

• clindamycin, lincomycin

### III.6. Streptogramins

- quinupristin, dalfopristin
- in combination = Synercid

## III.7. Ketolids

• telithromycin

## III.8. Oxazolidinons

• linezolid

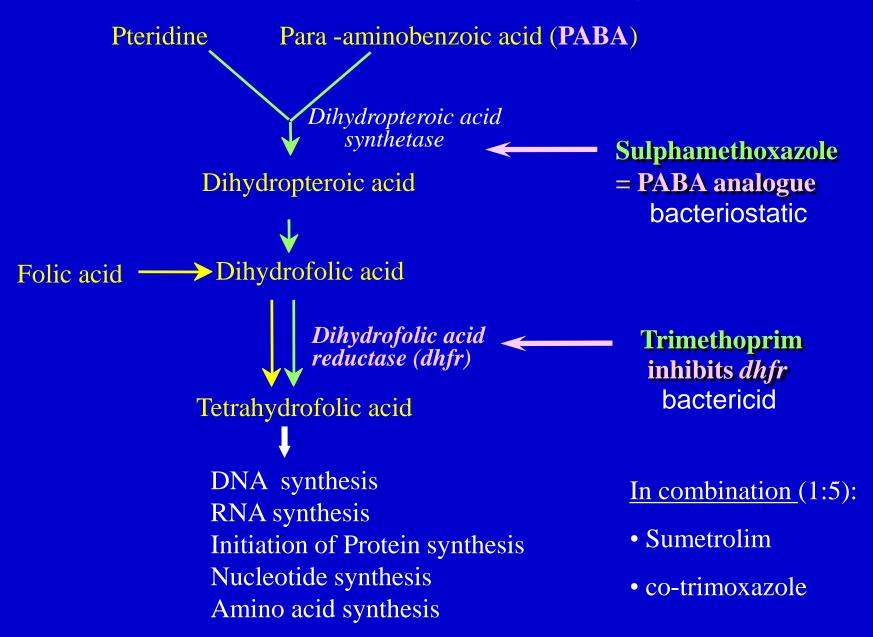
# IV. Inhibition of nucleic acid synthesis IV.1. Quinolons

- inhibition of DNA gyrase (supercoiling)
- original compound: nalidixic acid
- fluoroquinolones (FQs):
  - ciprofloxacin, ofloxacin, norfloxacin, sparfloxacin
- wide spectrum (also IC !)
- newer FQs (wider spectrum, better activity) mainly against Gram-positive upper RTI:

– levofloxacin, moxifloxacin, gatifloxacin, gemifloxacin

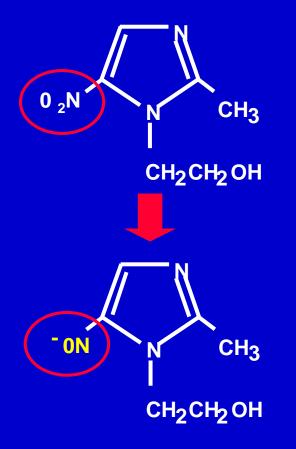
• Not in pregnancy or for young children!

#### IV.2. Inhibitors of folate synthesis



### IV.3. Metronidazol

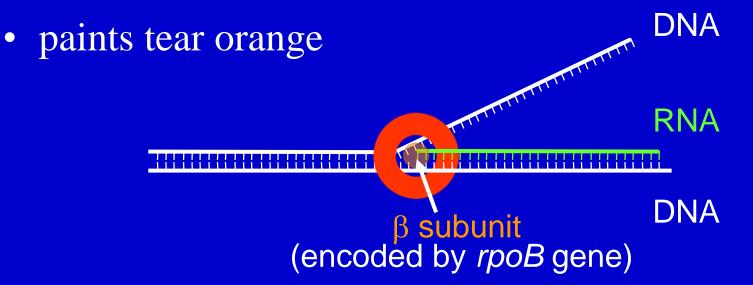
- against anaerobes + some protozoa
- directly breaks down DNA



 activated in the host cells by reduction of the nitro group at low redox potential (anaerobes!)

# IV.4. RNA synthesis inhibition Rifampin

- inhibition of DNA dependent RNA polymerase by binding to its β subunit
- if polymerisation has started already, it is ineffective



#### Aim of combinations

#### synergy

- Sumetrolim: TMP + SMX
- Synercid: quinupristin + dalfopristin
- penicillin + gentamycin
- avoiding resistance
  - ß-lactam + enzyme inhibitors
- polymicrobial infection

#### – <u>contraindicated</u>:

• ß-lactam + bacteriostatic !!

Acts only on multiplying bacteria

Inhibits multiplication of bacteria

RESISTANCE TO ANTIBIOTICS First emergence of resistance

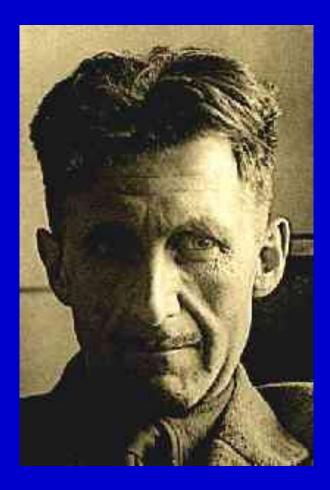
• 1928: discovery of penicillin

• 1940: first identification of a β-lactamase

 1945: 50% resistance to penicillin in Staphylococcus aureus Antibiotic resistant Mycobacterium tuberculosis

•1943: discovery of streptomycin

21 January 1950: George
 Orwell died from an untreatable
 streptomycin-resistant strain of
 Mycobacterium tuberculosis

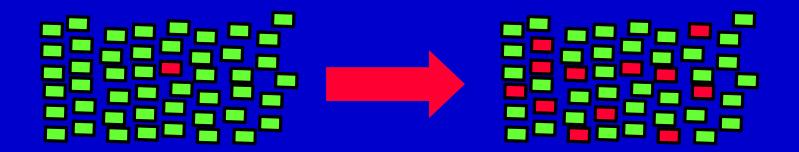


### Natural resistance

- against the antibiotic produced by themselves
- cell wall barrier (Gram-negatives), or lack of cell wall (*Mycoplasma*)
- lack of transport system
- lack of receptors

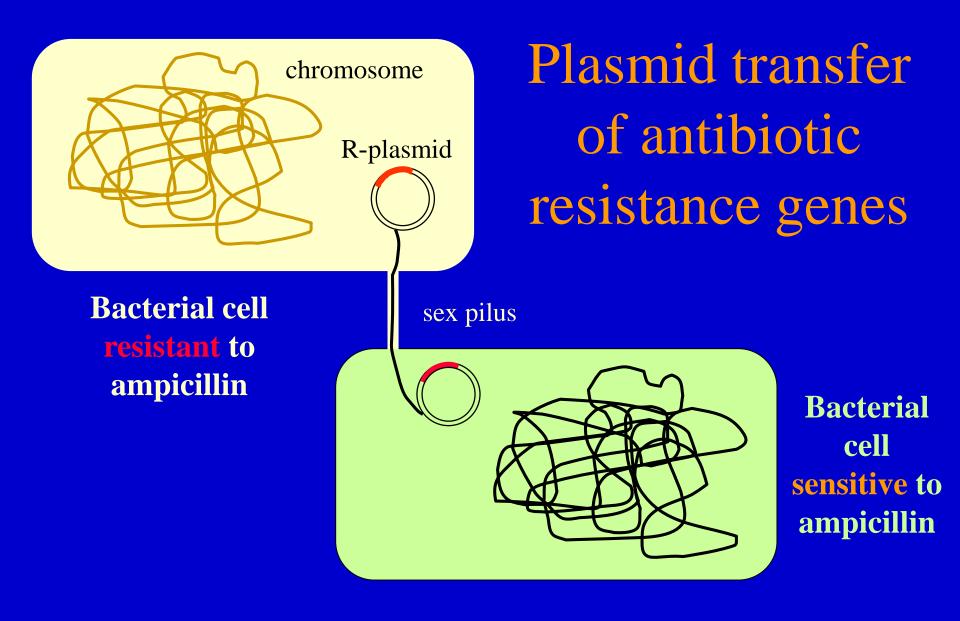
# Acquired resistance - 1

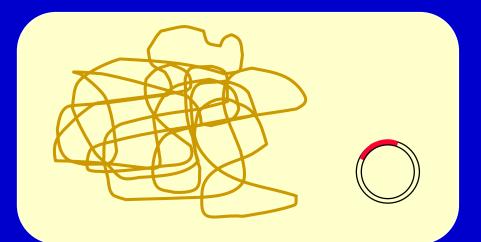
- vertical: spontaneous mutations (evolution, selection)
- normal mutation rate: 1 in 10<sup>7</sup>
- selection of resistant mutants:



# Acquired resistance - 2

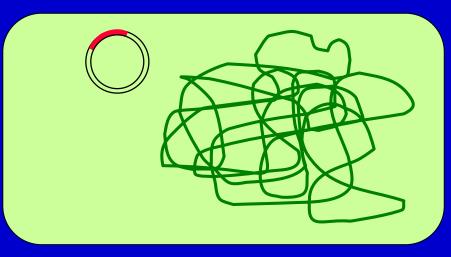
- horizontal: giving resistance genes to other bacteria
  - by plasmid (conjugation)
  - by phage (transduction)
  - by transposon (mobile genetic elements)
  - by transformation (naked DNS)





Plasmid transfer of antibiotic resistance genes

Bacterial cell resistant to ampicillin



Bacterial cell RESISTANT to ampicillin

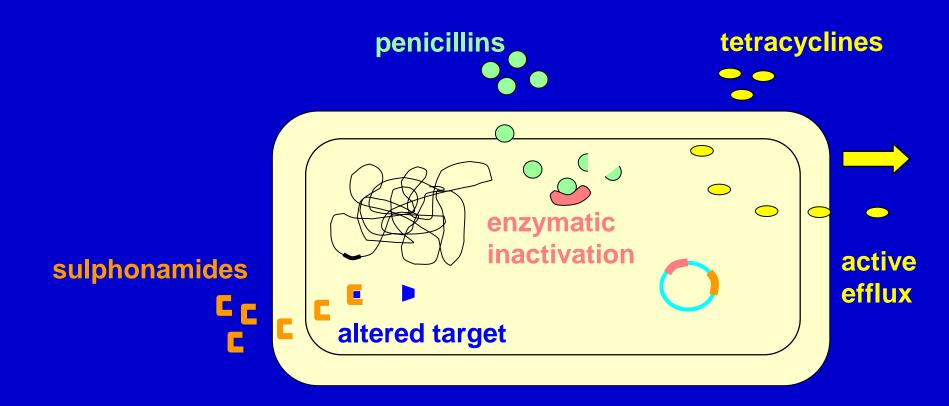
### Human reasons leading to resistance

- prescribing antibiotics too often
- too long therapy, too low dose
- stop taking the antibiotic before completing the therapy
- usage of antibiotics in animal husbandry
- spread of resistant hospital strains (hygiene!)

MULTI DRUG RESISTANCE !!!

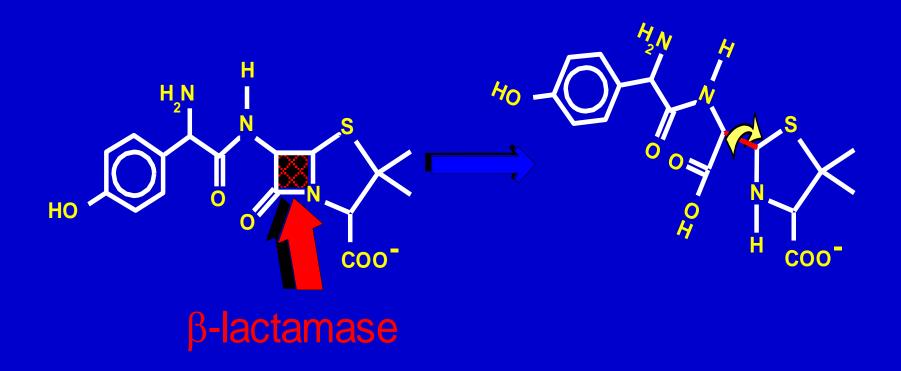
# **RESISTANCE MECHANISMS**

# The 3 major mechanisms



# 1. Enzymatic inactivation - 1

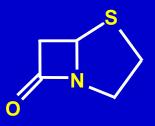
cleaving (hydrolysis) of antibiotics !!
 – e.g. β–lactamase action on *ampicillin*:



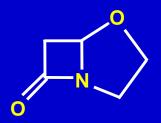
Penicillin + enzyme inhibitor combination

- enzyme inhibitor = β–lactam analogue (suicidal molecules)
- ampicillin-sulbactam =
- amoxicillin-clavulanic acid =
- piperacillin-tazobactam =

Unasyn Augmentin Tazocin



penicillin



clavulanic acid



sulbactam

# β-lactamases

- very many different ~
- mostly plasmid-encoded (sometimes chromosomal)
- constitutive or inducible (= in the presence of the  $\beta$ -lactam)
- ESBL: extended spectrum β-lactamases !! TEM, SHV, CTX, OXA by Gram negative bacteria
   (*E. coli*, Klebsiella, Pseudomonas, Acinetobacter, ...)

#### 1. Enzymatic inactivation - 2 • chemical modification: CCI, - acetylation O<sub>2</sub>N - adenylation OH OH Acetyl CoA - phosphorylation – methylation СН — СН CH • aminoglycosides, o Ac OH chloramphenicol Acetyl CoA NH — CO e.g. acetylation of Сн — сн — сн chloramphenicol:

OAC

OAC

# 2. Alteration of target by mutation

- decreased or no affinity
- penicillins (pbp),
- aminoglycosides and macrolides (30S and 50S ribosomal subunits),
- quinolons (gyrase genes: gyrA,B)

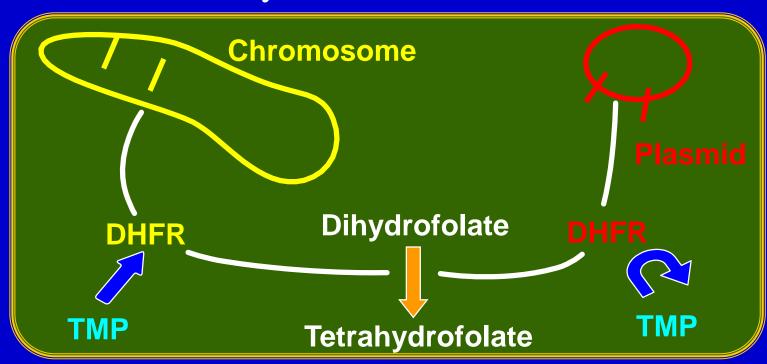
# 3. Efflux pump

- removal of antibiotic
- not very effective
- macrolides, quinolons, tetracycline

4. Overproduction of targets
e.g. overproduction of PABA (*SMX*)

5. Metabolite by-pass
production of another target

e.g. an additional dihydrofolate reductase



# 6. Change of membrane permeability

- blocking active transport
- e.g. MRSA: altered membrane lipid structure
- e.g. tetracycline

# 7. Decreased modification to active component

• e.g. loss of nitrofurantoin-reductase

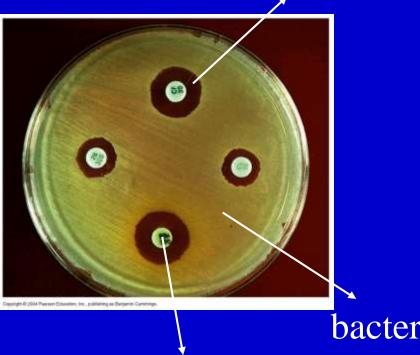
# Problem bacteria

- Staphylococcus aureus MRSA, VRSA (methicillin- and vancomycin resistance)
- Enterococcus faecalis and faecium VRE (vancomycin resistance)
- MDR, XDR Mycobacterium tuberculosis
- Carbapenem resistant Gram negatives
  - Acinetobacter baumannii
  - Pseudomonas aeruginosa
  - Klebsiella spp.
  - Stenotrophomonas maltophilia

# DETERMINATION OF ANTIBIOTIC SENSITIVITY

# Disc diffusion test

- Based on zone diameter:
  - R (resistant)
  - -I (intermediate)
  - -S (sensitive)



- this is used in routine
- good for screening

antibiotic discs bacterium lawn

inhibition zone

"antibiogram"

#### Determination of MIC

• definitions:

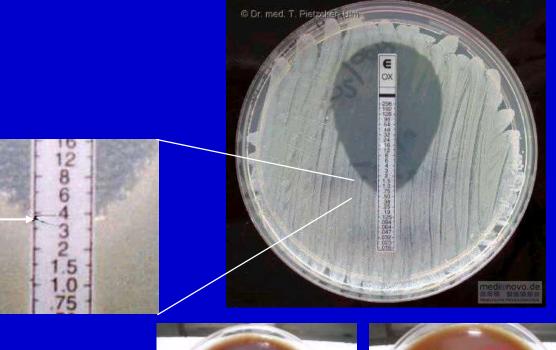
- MIC = minimal inhibitory concentration

= the minimum concentration (in mg/L) of an antibiotic enough to inhibit the growth of a certain bacterial isolate

– MBC = minimal bactericid concentration

# MIC determination by diffusion

• **Etest**: concentration-gradient on a strip

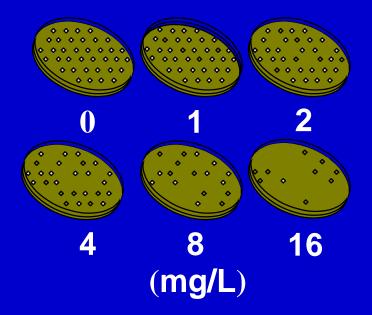






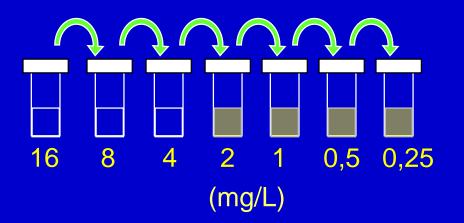


# MIC determination by dilution





agar dilution (AB mixed into the medium)



broth dilution (AB mixed into the medium)