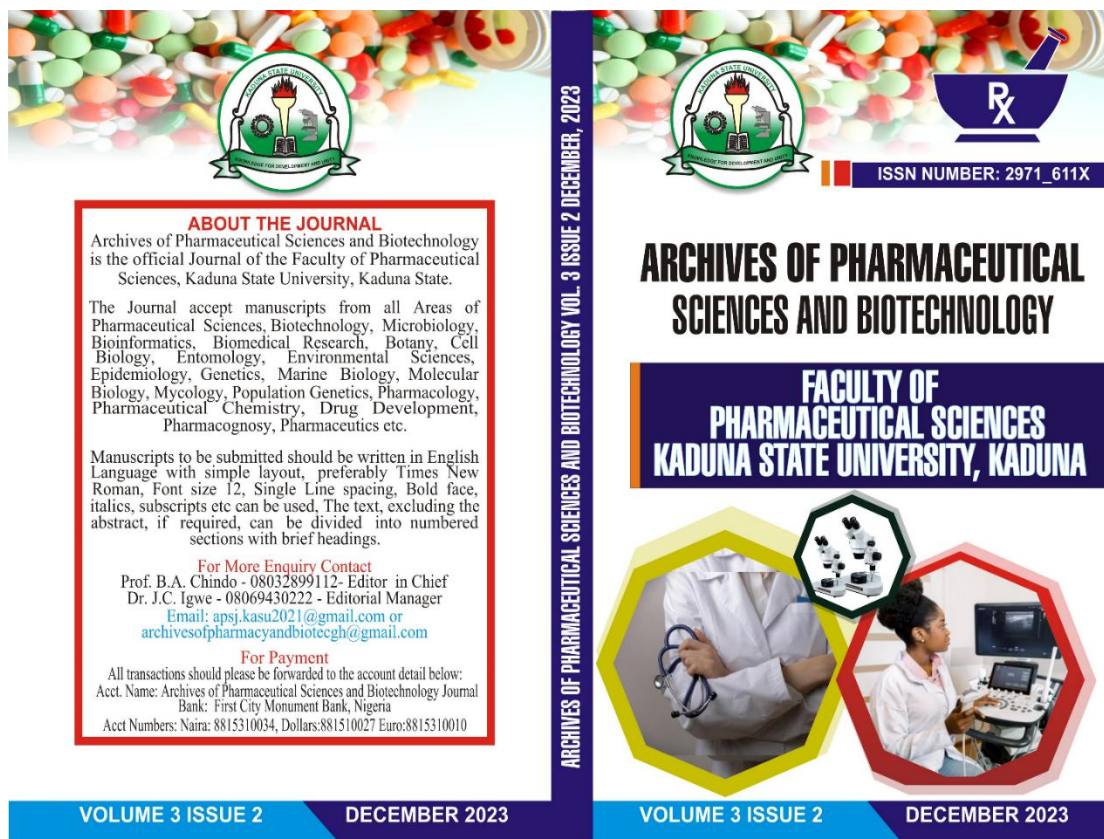




**ABOUT THE JOURNAL**  
Archives of Pharmaceutical Sciences and Biotechnology is the official Journal of the Faculty of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Kaduna State University, Kaduna State.

The Journal accept manuscripts from all Areas of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Biotechnology, Microbiology, Bioinformatics, Biomedical Research, Botany, Cell Biology, Entomology, Environmental Sciences, Epidemiology, Genetics, Marine Biology, Molecular Biology, Mycology, Population Genetics, Pharmacology, Pharmaceutical Chemistry, Drug Development, Pharmacognosy, Pharmaceutics etc.

Manuscripts to be submitted should be written in English Language with simple layout, preferably Times New Roman, Font size 12, Single Line spacing, Bold face, italics, subscripts etc can be used. The text, excluding the abstract, if required, can be divided into numbered sections with brief headings.

**For More Enquiry Contact**  
Prof. B.A. Chindo - 08032899112- Editor in Chief  
Dr. J.C. Igwe - 08069430222 - Editorial Manager  
Email: [apsj.kasu2021@gmail.com](mailto:apsj.kasu2021@gmail.com) or [archivesofpharmacyandbiotecgh@gmail.com](mailto:archivesofpharmacyandbiotecgh@gmail.com)

**For Payment**  
All transactions should please be forwarded to the account detail below:  
Acct. Name: Archives of Pharmaceutical Sciences and Biotechnology Journal  
Bank: First City Monument Bank, Nigeria  
Acct Numbers: Naira: 8815310034, Dollars: 881510027 Euro: 8815310010

**ARCHIVES OF PHARMACEUTICAL SCIENCES AND BIOTECHNOLOGY VOL. 3 ISSUE 2 DECEMBER, 2023**

**ISSN NUMBER: 2971\_611X**

**ARCHIVES OF PHARMACEUTICAL SCIENCES AND BIOTECHNOLOGY**

**FACULTY OF PHARMACEUTICAL SCIENCES  
KADUNA STATE UNIVERSITY, KADUNA**

**VOLUME 3 ISSUE 2 DECEMBER 2023**

**VOLUME 3 ISSUE 2 DECEMBER 2023**

## **ARCHIVES OF PHARMACEUTICAL SCIENCES AND BIOTECHNOLOGY JOURNAL**

**VOLUME 3 ISSUE 2, December 2023**

**ISSN 2971 – 611X**

**©ALL RIGHTS RESERVED**

**Published by the Faculty of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Kaduna State University, Kaduna**

## METHICILLIN RESISTANT *STAPHYLOCOCCUS AUREUS* COLONIZATION AMONG HIV PATIENTS ATTENDING A TERTIARY HOSPITAL IN KADUNA, NIGERIA

Igwe JC<sup>1</sup>, Nkom PJ<sup>1</sup>, Obajuluwa AF<sup>1</sup>, Ahmed DA<sup>2</sup>, David J.<sup>3</sup> Egbulefu CS<sup>4</sup> and Bello M<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Pharmaceutical Microbiology and Biotechnology, Kaduna State University

<sup>2</sup>Department of Pharmacology and Toxicology, Kaduna State University, Kaduna

<sup>3</sup>Department of Medical Biotechnology, National Biotech. Research & Dev. Agency, Abuja

<sup>4</sup>Department of Food & Industrial Biotech. National Biotech. Research & Dev. Agency, Abuja

**For Correspondence:** igwejames42@yahoo.com

### ABSTRACT

**Introduction:** Methicillin resistant *S. aureus* is known to have significant negative impact on both immunocompetent and immunocompromised individuals (HIV patients).

**Aim:** This study evaluated the antibiotics susceptibility profile of MRSA *staphylococcus aureus* isolated from HIV patients attending Barau Dikko Teaching Hospital Kaduna.

**Methods:** Using sterile wet swabs, within the period of 3 months (January – March, 2020), a total of 180 samples were collected from the skin, ear and nasal cavity of 60 HIV patients, who gave their consent to be part of the survey and *S. aureus* was isolated. Isolation, bacteria characterization and antimicrobial susceptibility tests were carryout using the methods described by Chesbrough and Kirby-Bauer respectively.

**Results:** Bacteria isolation rate was 76.7% (138/180) in the samples collected, with 56.5% (78) been Gram positive. The incidence of *S. aureus* and MRSA were 12.8% and 8.6% respectively. From the sample sources, the distribution of *S. aureus* was more in nostrils followed by skin and ear swab. Resistance was observed against imipenem (86.9%), vancomycin (65.3%), tetracycline (65.3%) and erythromycin (60.9%) while susceptible to ciprofloxacin (60.9%), streptomycin (43.5%) and gentamycin (52.2%). High percentage (91.3%) of the *S. aureus* were multidrug resistant and had MARI > 0.2.

**Conclusion:** This study established that high resistant *S. aureus* with possible MRSA gene could be responsible for frequent staphylococcus associated infection and resistant to treatment among HIV patients in Kaduna, Nigeria.

**Keywords:** *Staphylococcus aureus*, HIV patients, antibiotics resistance, MRSA, Kaduna

### INTRODUCTION

Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)-infected individuals are often at risk of various opportunistic bacterial infections including *S. aureus* (1). This *S. aureus* is the leading cause of community and nosocomial infections, and it's been implicated in

bacteremia, joint and bone infection, surgical wound infections, endocarditis, osteomyelitis, meningitis and pneumonia (2). They are also observed to acquire drug resistance to various classes of antibiotics including all beta lactams including methicillin (3, 4). Among the deadliest *S.*



*aureus* strain with drug resistant profile is the methicillin resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA). MRSA is known with constantly evolving epidemic strains and different genetic diversities, which has made treatment options difficult and to include additional care such as infection source control, regular consultations and echocardiography due to their compromised immune system. These accruing factors have significantly influenced the rate of mortality and morbidity associated with MRSA infections. MRSA have been isolated from different sources both in human and animal, especially environment where antibiotics have been abused. Although the prevalent rate of MRSA is on the increase, recent studies showed that it poses high clinical threat among HIV patients. According to Crum-Cianflone *et al.*, (5) study in 2007, which assessed the retrospective data of HIV patients from 1993 to 2005, showed that there was 18-fold increase in incidence of community associated methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* among HIV patients in USA with 90% of the infections resulting to soft tissue/skin infection (SSI). HIV patient with this SSI also had evidence of scrotal abscess or buttocks injury, and 21% of them do have recurrent infection. Further assessment of their study showed that common risk factors associated with HIV patient infected with MRSA are high viral load, low CD4 count, syphilis infection and frequent use of beta-lactams. Also, in a study conducted in southern India by Swathirajan *et al.*, (6) revealed that there was a progressive increase in MRSA incidence

geometrically from 51.8% in 2012 to 86% in 2017 among HIV patients with significant morbidity and mortality. Another study conducted by Shinohara *et al.*, (7) using whole genomic sequencing of 28 isolates from 2016 – 2019 reported an apparent emergence of new clone  $\Psi$ USA300 among community associated MRSA (CA-MRSA) HIV patients in HIV/AIDS referral hospital Tokyo, Japan. The isolated new USA300 strain as at 1990s to early 2000 were only isolated among people living with HIV harboring MRSA in America. In this environment USA300 clone have never been reported and was extremely rare in Japan; indicating possible new introduction as a result of migration, horizontal gene transfers and other possible factors. This strain is known to cause altered soft tissue/skin infection (SSTI) due to the presence of staphylococcal cassette chromosome *mec* (SCC*mec*) type IV, sequence type (ST) 8 possessing arginine catabolic mobile element (ACME) and Panton-Valentine leucocidin (PVL) in their genome (1). The reports of Jung *et al.*, (8) and Huang *et al.*, (9) further revealed that the incidence of MRSA among HIV patients is on the increase in Korea and Taiwan respectively. Also, among people living with community acquired pneumonia, in both hospital and community settings, high incidence of CA-MRSA clones has been reported to be endemic and spreading rapidly in China (10). In northern Taiwan, Hsu *et al.*, (11) report nasal colonization of MRSA that are susceptible to trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole and fluoroquinolones

among HIV patients. Their study further identified risk factors among those infected with hepatitis C virus, cancer, smoking and those with frequent antibiotics use history within 1 year. In Ghana, West Africa and Ethiopia, East Africa, the studies of Boison *et al.*, (3) and Muhaba *et al.*, (12) also reported high nasal colonization of multidrug resistant MRSA among HIV patients with high occurrence among patients whom have been hospitalized. In Kano and Sokoto, Northwest Nigeria, nasal colonization of MRSA has been reported in both Children infected with HIV and non-HIV infected patients respectively (13, 14). Study by Garba (15) had documented that Kaduna state had the second highest HIV prevalence in Nigeria while the report of Joshua *et al.*, (16) further showed that in Zaria, Kaduna State, Nigeria; 50% of the *S. aureus* isolated harbor MRSA gene but sadly no study has reported the incidence of nasal colonization of MRSA among HIV patients in Kaduna. It's therefore relevant to sure period surveillance of MRSA among HIV patients to manage rising morbidity and mortality associated with the infection as few reports are available on nasal and skin colonization of MRSA among HIV patients in Nigeria including Kaduna, this led to its assessment among HIV patients attending a tertiary hospital in Kaduna, Nigeria.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Ethical Approval

A letter of ethical approval and informed consent were obtained from Barau Dikko Teaching Hospital Kaduna and the patients respectively. The confidentiality, privacy and

autonomy of the patients were preserved throughout the study period.

### Study Area, Sample Collection and Preparation

The study was carried out at the Special Treatment and Care (STC) Unit of Barau Dikko Teaching Hospital (BDTH), located at Lafiya road in Kaduna Metropolis. The Hospital was officially established on the 30<sup>th</sup> March, 2015. Using sterile swab stick moistened with sterile normal saline 180 swab samples from the nostril, ear and skin of 60 HIV patients were randomly collected and transferred on an ice pack to the Pharmaceutical Microbiology Laboratory, Kaduna State University for further analysis. The swab sticks were cut into already prepared and sterilized 5mL peptone water at room temperature, and incubated at 37°C for 24 hours. Growth from the overnight cultures was streaked on Mannitol salt agar and incubated again at 37°C for 24 hours.

### Isolation and Identification of *Staphylococcus aureus*

Colonies that grew on Mannitol salt agar plates with golden yellow and smooth edge or surface were Gram stained in accordance with standard Gram staining procedure, and microscopic examination carried out. Biochemical tests such as catalase, coagulase, indole, oxidase and sugar fermentation (lactose, fructose and glucose) tests. Gram staining and biochemical tests were carried out as described by Chesbrough (17).

### Gram Staining

A smear of the isolate was made on a clean glass slide and heat fixed. The smear was

then stained with crystal violet for 30 seconds, fixed with lugols iodine for 30 seconds and decolorized with 95% ethanol for 30 seconds, after which it was counterstained with dilute carbol fuchsin solution for 1 minute. On examination microscopically, the isolates that produced violet cocci (Gram positive) predominantly cocci in clusters were selected for further biochemical identification.

### Biochemical Test

#### Catalase Test

This test shows the ability of the organisms to produce the enzyme catalase. A drop of 30% hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ) was placed on a glass slide and portions of an overnight culture of the bacteria were picked using a sterile wire loop and make a smear. A positive test was indicated by bubbling and fruiting, which was absent in a negative test.

#### Oxidase Test

*S. aureus* produces cytochrome oxidase enzymes during oxidation of the substrate "tetramethyl-p-phenylenediamine dichloride" to indophenols. a dark purple colored end product shows positive reaction. A piece of filter paper was placed in a clean petri-dish and 2-3 drops of freshly prepared oxidase reagent (1% tetra methyl-p-Phenylenediamine dihydrochloride) was added. With the help of inoculation loop, small portion of the isolate was placed on the filter paper and a smear was made. It was then observed for immediate colour change to blue purple within 10 minutes.

#### Indole Test

Indole is one of the metabolic degradation products of amino acid (tryptophan). Bacteria that possess the enzyme tryptophanase are capable of hydrolyzing and deaminating

tryptophan to produce indole, pyruvic acid and ammonia. Tryptophan broth was inoculated with the isolated colony and incubated at  $37^{\circ}C$  for 72 hours. 0.5 ml Kovac's reagent was then added to the broth culture and colour change to pink-red was observed. *S. aureus* is indole negative as such no colour change is expected.

#### Citrate Test

The citrate test shows the ability of a bacteria to utilize citrate in a sodium citrate medium as the only source of carbon and energy and nitrogen from ammonium salts. The utilization of citrate results in the release of ammonia, leading to a colour change in the medium from green to blue. Tubes of Simon's citrate agar were inoculated with the test organism and incubated at  $35^{\circ}C$  for 48 hours. *S. aureus* utilizes citrate (positive) and this causes a change in the medium from green to royal blue.

#### Coagulase Test

The coagulase test was used to confirm the presence or absence of coagulase positive or negative Staphylococci isolate. Two drops of physiological saline were placed about 2cm apart on the slide that had been divided into two with a grease pencil. One colony each of the isolate was carefully emulsified on each drop of saline. A loop full of human plasma was added to the bacteria suspension on the side and rocked gently for 60 seconds. Viable clumping of cells showed the presence of coagulase enzyme indicating the presence of coagulase positive Staphylococci.

#### Antibiotic Susceptibility Testing (AST)

Antibiotic susceptibility testing was carried out on each purified *S. aureus* isolates using CLSI modified disc diffusion method as described by Chesbrough (17). Standardized (0.5 McFarland) inoculums of each isolate were aseptically streaked on a fairly dried surface of

sterile Mueller Hinton agar plate to evenly cover the surface of the agar, excess was drained off and the surface of the agar was allowed to be absorbed within the agar with the petri dish lid in place for 10 minutes. Single antibiotic discs were aseptically distributed evenly on the inoculated plate with each disc slightly pressed down to ensure its contact with the Mueller Hinton agar. Each plate contains maximum of five different antibiotics. Within 15 minutes of applying the disc, the plate was inverted and incubated aerobically at 30

degrees Celsius for 18 h. After the 18 h incubation, the diameters of the zone of inhibition for each of the isolates were measured underside of the plate to the nearest millimeter (mm). The same procedures were carried out for the other isolates. After incubation the zone of inhibition of each antibiotic was measured and the results were interpreted as susceptible, intermediate and resistant based on the Clinical Laboratory Standards Institute (18) recommendation shown in Table 1 below

**Table:1 CLSI Interpretative Chart Diameter Zone of Inhibition for *Staphylococcus aureus* Isolates**

| S/N | Antibiotic              | Zone of Inhibition (mm) |              |           |
|-----|-------------------------|-------------------------|--------------|-----------|
|     |                         | Susceptible             | Intermediate | Resistant |
| 1   | Erythromycin (15 µg)    | ≥23                     | 14-22        | ≤13       |
| 2   | Gentamicin (30 µg)      | ≥15                     | 13-14        | ≤12       |
| 3   | Chloramphenicol (10 µg) | ≥18                     | 13-17        | ≤12       |
| 4   | Vancomycin (30 µg)      | ≥15                     | -            | -         |
| 5   | Augmentin (30 µg)       | ≥18                     | 14-17        | ≤13       |
| 6   | Imipenem (10 µg)        | ≥16                     | 14-15        | ≤13       |
| 7   | Tetracycline (30 µg)    | ≥19                     | 15-18        | ≤14       |
| 8   | Ciprofloxacin (5 µg)    | ≥21                     | 16-20        | ≤21       |
| 9   | Streptomycin (10 µg)    | ≥15                     | 12-14        | ≤11       |
| 10  | Cefoxitin (30 µg)       | ≥22                     | -            | ≤21       |
| 11  | Oxacillin (1 µg)        | ≥13                     | 11-12        | ≤10       |

#### Determination of Multiple Antibiotic Resistance (MAR) Index

The multiple antibiotic resistance (MAR) index was determined for each isolate by dividing the number of antibiotics to which the organism was resistant to by the total number of antibiotics tested. This was carried out as described by Christopher *et al*, (19).

#### Determination of Methicillin Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*

*Staphylococcus aureus* suspension equivalent to 0.5 McFarland standard were

prepared for all isolates and tested with Cefoxitin (30µg) and Oxacillin (1µg) disc, using Muller Hinton agar. All plates were incubated at 35<sup>0</sup>C for 24 hours. Zone of inhibitions were measured and interpreted as guideline recommended by CLSI, (2019). For cefoxitin disc, zone diameter ≤21mm was reported as MRSA and ≥22 mm as MSSA. For oxacillin disc, zone diameter < 10 mm was reported as MRSA and >13 mm as MSSA (Table 1).

## RESULTS

### Sample Collection and Bacteria Identification

A total number of 180 samples were collected from 60 HIV patients' skin, ear and nasal cavity of in Barau Dikko Teaching Hospital, Kaduna. There was high occurrence of HIV

in female (58.3%) compared to male (41.7%) (Table 2). There was also 76.7% (138/180) bacteria isolation rate of which 43.5% (60) were Gram negative while 56.5% (78) were Gram positive. Skin had the highest bacteria isolation followed by nostril then ear (Table 3).

**Table 2: Gender and Samples Source Distribution of HIV Patients in the Hospital**

| Samples      | Gender          |                  | Total      |
|--------------|-----------------|------------------|------------|
|              | Male %          | Female %         |            |
| Nose         | 25              | 35               | 60         |
| Ear          | 25              | 35               | 60         |
| Skin         | 25              | 35               | 60         |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>75(41.7)</b> | <b>105(58.3)</b> | <b>180</b> |

**Table 3: Isolation and Characterization of Bacteria Isolates from HIV Patients in BDTH, Kaduna**

| Staining     | Nose      | Skin      | Ear       | Total      | %          |
|--------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|------------|
| Gram +       | 22        | 20        | 18        | 78         | 43.5       |
| Gram -       | 26        | 28        | 24        | 60         | 56.5       |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>46</b> | <b>48</b> | <b>42</b> | <b>138</b> | <b>100</b> |

### Distribution of *Staphylococcus aureus* among Gram Positive Bacteria Isolated

On mannitol salt agar, 60.3% (47/78) of the Gram-positive isolates grew with only 33.3% (26/78) showing golden yellow colonies with smooth surface (Table 4). Further biochemical analysis identified 23 out of the 26 isolates to be *S. aureus* (Table 5).

**Table 4: Evaluation on *Staphylococcus spp.* on Mannitol Sugar Agar**

| CMA           | Nose      | Ear       | Skin      | Total (%)       |
|---------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------------|
| Golden Yellow | 10        | 7         | 9         | 26 (33.3)       |
| Red           | 7         | 8         | 6         | 21 (26.9)       |
| No Growth     | 6         | 6         | 4         | 31 (39.8)       |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>23</b> | <b>21</b> | <b>19</b> | <b>78 (100)</b> |

Key: CMA= colour on mannitol

Table 5: Biochemical Test for Identification of *Staphylococcus aureus*

| S/n | Isolate | TSI              |     |       | Ind. | Cit. | Cat. | Oxi. | Coag. | Organism              |
|-----|---------|------------------|-----|-------|------|------|------|------|-------|-----------------------|
|     |         | H <sub>2</sub> S | Gas | Sugar |      |      |      |      |       |                       |
| 1   | F1      | -                | -   | +     | -    | +    | +    | -    | +     | <i>S. aureus</i>      |
| 2   | F2      | -                | -   | +     | -    | +    | +    | -    | +     | <i>S. aureus</i>      |
| 3   | F3      | +                | +   | +     | +    | +    | +    | -    | -     | <i>S. epidermidis</i> |
| 4   | F6      | +                | +   | +     | +    | +    | +    | -    | -     | <i>S. epidermidis</i> |
| 5   | F8      | -                | -   | +     | -    | +    | +    | -    | +     | <i>S. aureus</i>      |
| 6   | F10     | +                | +   | +     | +    | -    | +    | -    | -     | <i>S. epidermidis</i> |
| 7   | F11     | -                | -   | +     | -    | +    | +    | -    | +     | <i>S. aureus</i>      |
| 8   | F12     | -                | -   | +     | -    | +    | +    | -    | +     | <i>S. aureus</i>      |
| 9   | F14     | -                | -   | +     | -    | +    | +    | -    | +     | <i>S. aureus</i>      |
| 10  | F15     | -                | -   | -     | -    | +    | +    | -    | +     | <i>S. aureus</i>      |
| 11  | F16     | +                | +   | -     | +    | +    | +    | +    | -     | <i>S. epidermidis</i> |
| 12  | F18     | +                | +   | +     | -    | -    | -    | -    | -     | <i>S. epidermidis</i> |
| 13  | F20     | -                | -   | +     | -    | +    | +    | -    | +     | <i>S. aureus</i>      |
| 14  | F21     | +                | +   | -     | -    | +    | +    | +    | -     | <i>S. epidermidis</i> |
| 15  | F22     | -                | -   | +     | -    | +    | +    | -    | +     | <i>S. aureus</i>      |
| 16  | F23     | -                | -   | +     | -    | +    | +    | -    | +     | <i>S. aureus</i>      |
| 17  | F25     | +                | -   | +     | +    | -    | +    | -    | -     | <i>S. epidermidis</i> |
| 18  | F27     | -                | +   | +     | +    | +    | +    | +    | -     | <i>S. epidermidis</i> |
| 19  | F29     | +                | -   | -     | +    | -    | +    | -    | -     | <i>S. epidermidis</i> |
| 20  | F31     | +                | -   | +     | -    | +    | -    | +    | +     | <i>S. epidermidis</i> |
| 21  | F32     | -                | -   | +     | -    | +    | +    | -    | +     | <i>S. aureus</i>      |
| 22  | F34     | -                | -   | +     | -    | +    | +    | -    | +     | <i>S. aureus</i>      |
| 23  | F35     | -                | -   | +     | -    | +    | +    | -    | +     | <i>S. aureus</i>      |
| 24  | M36     | -                | +   | +     | -    | +    | +    | +    | -     | <i>S. epidermidis</i> |
| 25  | M37     | -                | -   | +     | -    | +    | +    | -    | +     | <i>S. aureus</i>      |
| 26  | M38     | -                | -   | +     | -    | +    | +    | -    | +     | <i>S. aureus</i>      |
| 27  | M39     | -                | -   | -     | -    | +    | +    | -    | +     | <i>S. aureus</i>      |
| 28  | M40     | +                | -   | +     | +    | +    | +    | -    | -     | <i>S. epidermidis</i> |
| 29  | M41     | -                | -   | +     | -    | +    | +    | -    | +     | <i>S. aureus</i>      |
| 30  | M43     | +                | +   | +     | -    | +    | +    | +    | -     | <i>S. epidermidis</i> |
| 31  | M44     | -                | -   | +     | -    | +    | +    | -    | +     | <i>S. aureus</i>      |
| 32  | M47     | -                | -   | +     | -    | +    | +    | -    | +     | <i>S. aureus</i>      |
| 33  | M48     | +                | -   | +     | +    | +    | +    | +    | -     | <i>S. spp.</i>        |
| 34  | M49     | +                | +   | +     | -    | +    | +    | +    | -     | <i>S. epidermidis</i> |
| 35  | M50     | -                | -   | +     | -    | +    | +    | -    | +     | <i>S. aureus</i>      |
| 36  | M51     | +                | +   | +     | -    | +    | +    | +    | -     | <i>S. epidermidis</i> |
| 37  | M52     | -                | -   | +     | -    | +    | +    | -    | +     | <i>S. aureus</i>      |

|    |     |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |                       |
|----|-----|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|-----------------------|
| 38 | M53 | + | - | + | + | + | + | + | - | <i>S. epidermidis</i> |
| 39 | M54 | + | - | + | + | - | - | + | - | <i>S. spp.</i>        |
| 40 | M55 | + | - | + | - | + | + | - | - | <i>S. epidermidis</i> |
| 41 | M56 | + | + | + | + | + | + | - | + | <i>S. aureus</i>      |
| 42 | M58 | - | - | + | - | + | + | - | + | <i>S. aureus</i>      |
| 43 | M59 | - | - | + | + | + | - | - | + | <i>S. spp.</i>        |
| 44 | M60 | + | - | - | - | + | + | + | + | <i>S. epidermidis</i> |
| 45 | F36 | - | - | + | + | + | - | - | + | <i>S. spp.</i>        |
| 46 | F38 | + | - | - | - | + | + | + | + | <i>S. epidermidis</i> |
| 47 | F43 | + | - | - | - | + | + | + | + | <i>S. spp.</i>        |

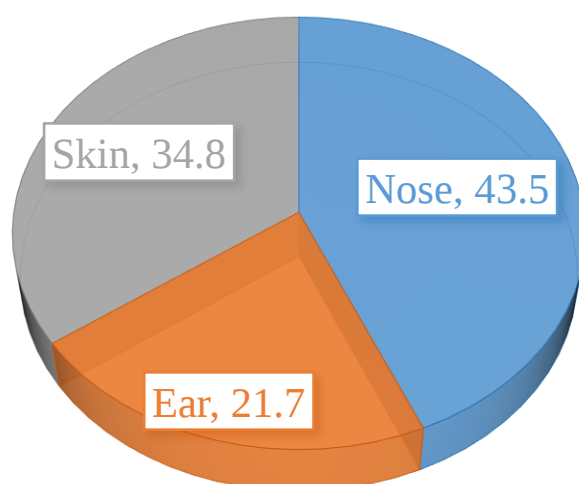
**Keys: F= Female                      M= Male    + = Positive                      - = Negative**

#### Percentage of *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates

The incidence of *S. aureus* was 12.8% (23/180) while among the Gram-positive bacteria isolated, 29.5% (23/78) were *S. aureus* (Table 6). Assessment of the distribution of *S. aureus* base on sample source showed that nasal swabs had more *S. aureus* followed by skin and ear (Figure 1).

**Table 6: Percentage occurrence of *Staphylococcus aureus* Isolates among HIV Patients in Barau Dikko Teaching Hospital**

| Sample                       | % (Number)      |
|------------------------------|-----------------|
| <i>S. aureus</i> isolates    | 29.5 (23)       |
| Other Staphylococci isolates | 35 (21)         |
| No Growth                    | 43.6 (34)       |
| <b>Total</b>                 | <b>100 (78)</b> |



**Figure 1: Percentage Distribution of *Staphylococcus aureus* from the Sample Source**

### ANTIBIOTIC SUSCEPTIBILITY TEST (AST)

The antibiotics susceptibility profile of the isolates is presented in Table 7 below. The result revealed differences among *S. aureus* isolates in their susceptibility patterns to antibiotics. The highest rate of resistance was observed against Imipenem (86.9%), Cefoxitin (65.3%), Vancomycin (65.3%) and Tetracycline (65.3%) followed by Erythromycin (60.9%). The isolates were

more susceptible to Ciprofloxacin (34.8%), Streptomycin (43.5%), Gentamycin (43.5%) and Chloramphenicol (47.8%). High percentage (91.3%) of the *S. aureus* isolated were multidrug resistant while 65.2% were resistant to more than 4 class of antibiotics tested. Also, 30% of the isolates had VA, AUG, IMI, FOX pattern of resistant profile (Table 8). Table 9 showed that 91.3% of the isolates had MARI > 0.2.

**Table 7: Percentage Antibiotics Susceptibility Profile of *Staphylococcus aureus* Isolated from HIV Patients in Barau Dikko Teaching Hospital, Kaduna**

| S/N | Antibiotics | Resistant | Intermediate | Sensitive |
|-----|-------------|-----------|--------------|-----------|
| 1   | VA          | 15 (65.3) | 0 (0)        | 8 (34.8)  |
| 2   | AUG         | 18 (78.3) | 2 (8.7)      | 3 (13.0)  |
| 3   | IMI         | 20 (86.9) | 1 (4.3)      | 2 (8.7)   |
| 4   | FOX         | 15 (65.3) | 11 (47.8)    | 8 (34.8)  |
| 5   | C           | 11 (47.8) | 11 (47.8)    | 1 (4.3)   |
| 6   | CN          | 10 (43.5) | 1 (4.3)      | 12 (52.2) |
| 7   | TE          | 15 (65.3) | 1 (4.3)      | 7 (30.4)  |
| 8   | CP          | 8 (34.8)  | 1 (4.3)      | 14 (60.9) |
| 9   | S           | 10 (43.5) | 4 (17.4)     | 4 (17.4)  |
| 10  | E           | 14 (60.9) | 4 (17.4)     | 5 (21.7)  |

**Key:** Erythromycin (15µg)-E, Gentamicin (30µg) -CN, Chloramphenicol (10µg)-C, Vancomycin 30 µg -VA, Augmentin (30 µg)-AUG, Imipenem (10 µg) -IMI, Tetracycline (30 µg) - TE, Ciprofloxacin (5 µg) - CIP, Streptomycin (10 µg) -S, Cefoxitine (30 µg) -FOX.

**Table 8: Multidrug Resistance Pattern of *Staphylococcus aureus* Isolated from HIV Patients in Barau Dikko Teaching Hospital, Kaduna**

| S/N | Isolates Code | Antibiotic Resistance Pattern | NART | NCART | CR  |
|-----|---------------|-------------------------------|------|-------|-----|
| 1   | F1            | VA,AUG,IMI,FOX,C,CN,TE,E      | 8    | 8     | MDR |
| 2   | F2            | AUG,IMI,CM,S                  | 4    | 3     | MDR |
| 3   | F8            | IMI,FOX,CN                    | 3    | 3     | MDR |
| 4   | F11           | VA,AUG,IMI,FOX,CN,TE,CIP,S,E  | 9    | 8     | MDR |
| 5   | F12           | VA,AUG,IMI,FOX,C,TE,CIP,S,E   | 9    | 9     | MDR |
| 6   | F14           | VA,AUG,IMI,FOX,C,CN,TE,S,E    | 9    | 8     | MDR |
| 7   | F15           | AUG,IMI,FOX                   | 3    | 3     | MDR |
| 8   | F20           | VA,AUG,IMI,TE,S,E             | 6    | 6     | MDR |
| 9   | F22           | IMI,FOX,C                     | 3    | 3     | MDR |

|    |     |                                |    |   |      |
|----|-----|--------------------------------|----|---|------|
| 10 | F23 | AUG,FOX                        | 2  | 2 | NMDR |
| 11 | F32 | VA,AUG,IMI,TE,CIP,S,E          | 7  | 7 | MDR  |
| 12 | F34 | VA,AUG,IMI,FOX,C,CIP           | 6  | 6 | MDR  |
| 13 | F35 | IMI,FOX,E                      | 3  | 3 | MDR  |
| 14 | F37 | VA,AUG,FOX,CN,E,CIP,S          | 7  | 6 | MDR  |
| 15 | F38 | VA,IMI,TE,CIP,E                | 5  | 5 | MDR  |
| 16 | F39 | VA,AUG,FOX,TE                  | 4  | 4 | MDR  |
| 17 | M41 | VA,AUG,IMI,FOX,C,TE            | 6  | 6 | MDR  |
| 18 | M44 | VA,AUG,IMI,C,CN,TE,E           | 7  | 7 | MDR  |
| 19 | M47 | AUG,IMI,FOX,C,TE,E             | 6  | 6 | MDR  |
| 20 | M50 | VA,AUG,IMI,C,CM,TE,CIP,S,E     | 9  | 8 | MDR  |
| 21 | M53 | VA,AUG,IMI,FOX,C,CN,TE,CIP,S,E | 10 | 9 | MDR  |
| 22 | M55 | IMI,E                          | 2  | 2 | NMDR |
| 23 | M58 | VA,AUG,IMI,C,CN,TE,S,E         | 8  | 7 | MDR  |

Key: NART = Number of Antibiotics Resistance, NCART = Number of Class of Antibiotics Resistant to, CR = Classification Resistance, MDR = Multi Drug Resistance, NMDR = Non Multi Drug Resistance, Erythromycin (15µg) -E, Gentamicin (30 µg) -CN, Chloramphenicol (10 µg) -C, Vancomycin (30µg) -VA, Augmentin (30µg) -AUG, Imipenem (10µg) -IMI, Tetracycline (30 µg) -TE, Ciprofloxacin (5 µg) -CIP, Streptomycin (10µg) -S, Cefoxitin (30µg) -FOX.

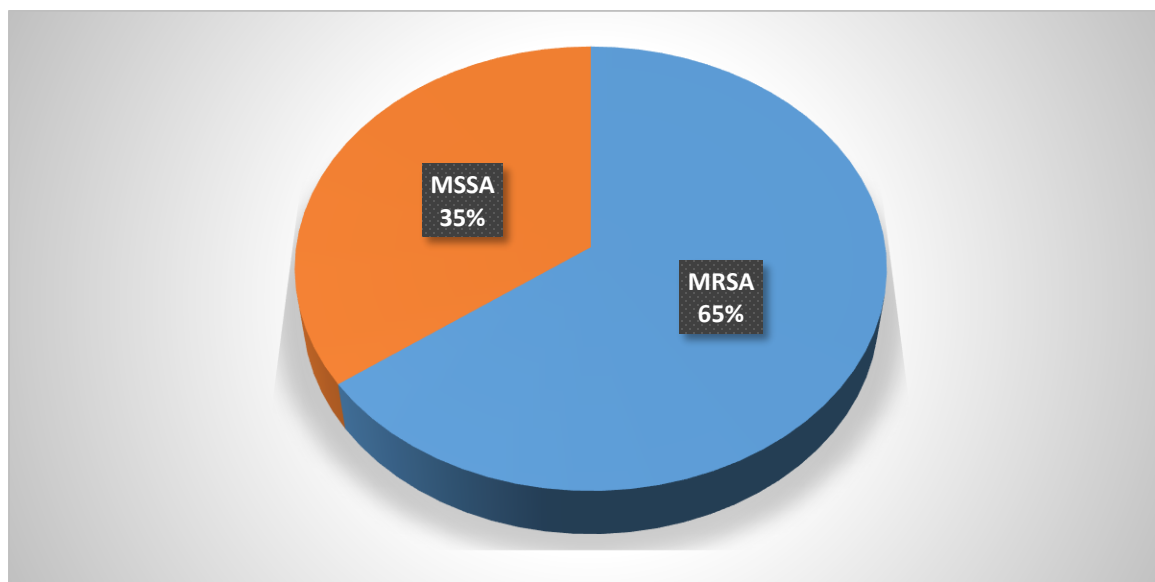
**Table 9: Multiple Antibiotics Resistant Indices (MARI) of *Staphylococcus aureus* Isolate**

| MARI  | Number of Organism | Percentage |
|-------|--------------------|------------|
| 0.1   | 0                  | 0          |
| 0.2   | 2                  | 8.7        |
| 0.3   | 4                  | 17.4       |
| 0.4   | 2                  | 8.7        |
| 0.5   | 1                  | 4.3        |
| 0.6   | 4                  | 17.4       |
| 0.7   | 3                  | 13.1       |
| 0.8   | 2                  | 8.7        |
| 0.9   | 4                  | 17.4       |
| 1     | 1                  | 4.3        |
| Total | 23                 | 100        |

91.3%

Key: MARI = Multiple antibiotics resistant index

Higher percenatge [65% (15/23)] of the *S. aureus* were methicillin resistant *S. aureu* (MRSA) (Figure 2). This implies that the incidence of MRSA in this study is 8.3%.



**Figure 2: Percentage Occurrence of MRSA Among *Staphylococcus aureus* Isolated from HIV Patient in BDTH.**

## DISCUSSION

At the end of 2022 survey by WHO, the global incidence rate of HIV infection was estimated around 39million with 66.7% (25.6 million) in Africa. Mortality rate was estimated around 1.62% (630,000) while 1.3 million people were newly infected (20). This shows that HIV infection is still on the raise (3.33%) and infections associated with *S. aureus* such as sepsis, pneumonia, deep tissue infections will frequently be reported in more than 50% patients especially among advanced HIV-1 infected patients. This is evidence in their autopsy studies (21). According to Boison *et al.*, (3), high nasal colonization of MRSA (8.2%) and *S. aureus* (44.7%) multiple antibiotics resistant profile have been reported among HIV infected patients in Ghana. From Onovo *et al.*, (22) study in Nigeria, 2021 statistics showed that the prevalent of HIV in Nigeria was 1.3% with an increase to 2.1% in 2022. The study

conducted by Abdullahi *et al.*, (23) revealed that the prevalence of *S. aureus* colonization of nasal cavity (29.6%) of people living with HIV/AIDS were far higher than those isolated from their UTI (6.8%). They further observed the prevalence of MRSA to be 13% among the nasal samples with MSSA-ST15-t084 and MRSA-ST8-t064 been the most common genetic lineages after molecular typing from 3 studies. Knowing the aforementioned, there is need for periodic surveillance of pathogenic infections associated with HIV patients to ensure strict implementation of guidelines to prevent new infections. This will reduce morbidity and mortality rate among HIV patients (24). Although epidemiological progression of HIV wasn't the primary aim of this study, sex distribution of HIV in this study agrees with USAID (25) report that high percentage of HIV patients were girls and women. USAID (25) further reported that 2.5% of the women

were commercial sex workers. This dilemma might be linked to the premise stated by Ikuteyijo *et al.*, (26) that greater probability exists for women to use sex as means of livelihood to generate support for their dependents. There was 76.7% bacteria isolation rate among HIV patients evaluated in Kaduna, of which 43.5% (60) were Gram negative while 56.5% (78) were Gram positive. Nasal cavity had the highest bacteria isolation rate followed by the skin then ear. This finding is in line with the study of Kinman *et al.*, (27), who reported that *S. aureus* infection among HIV patients has the propensity to proliferate in both skin and nasal cavity diseases such as lesions, sores and rashes.

Further evaluation showed that only 33.3% (26/78) were *Staphylococcus spp.* with 29.5% been *S. aureus*. This finding agrees with the report of the European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control on microorganisms isolated in HAIs (all HAI types) in acute care hospitals in EU/EEA, ECDC-PPS 2011-2012, which showed possibility of isolating 32.71% *S. aureus* out of the total Gram-positive bacteria isolated (28). Reason to this might be associated with Ogawa *et al.*, (29) report that Gram positive bacteria enhances the susceptibility of HIV patients to infections and HIV replication in monocyte-derived Langerhans cells. According to Adetokunbo *et al.*, (30), *Staphylococcus aureus* isolated from people living with HIV/AIDS leverage on the deficiency of  $\beta$ -cell and dysfunctional macrophage to weaken patients' immune system, exhibit high virulence and pathogenicity.

Antibiotics susceptibility profile revealed high resistance to commonly prescribed

drugs against *S. aureus* especially to Imipenem (86.9%), Cefoxitin (65.3%), Vancomycin (65.3%), Tetracycline (65.3%) and Erythromycin (60.9%). High percentage (91.3%) of the *S. aureus* isolated were multidrug resistant while 65.2% were resistant to more than 4 classes of antibiotics tested. Also, 30% of the isolates were sequentially resistant to Vancomycin, Augmentin, Imipenem and Cefoxitin, making the most common pattern of resistant profile. These reports on resistant profile agrees with the study of Muhaba *et al.*, (31), who observed that *S. aureus* isolated from HIV patients were 96.5% multidrug resistant and showed significant resistance to cotrimoxazole (86.2%), erythromycin (84.5%) and tetracycline (53.4%). Their study further showed high rate of *S. aureus* and MRSA nasal colonization. Further analysis showed that 91.3% of the isolates had  $MARI > 0.2$ . This implies that the isolates have been pre-exposed to the antibiotics tested and might encode resistance gene to these antibiotics. Although, the causative factors are divers such as low CD4+ T lymphocyte counts ( $<200$  cells/ $\mu$ l), previous hospitalization and antimicrobials (32), high resistance to commonly prescribed antibiotics especially cotrimoxazole and penicillin's by *S. aureus* isolated from HIV patients are on the increase and have been reported by various studies in recent time (33, 34). Most studies attributes resistance profile of *S. aureus* to encoding MRSA genes and also acknowledged that they limit treatment regimens and challenge available clinical management options for infection control (34). This could inadvertently reduce time cure of HIV patients and also influence increase in secondary infections, loss of time

hour at work, morbidity and mortality. Irrespective of the high resistant reports from periodic surveillance, susceptible to Ciprofloxacin, Streptomycin, Gentamycin and Chloramphenicol have also been documented. Kengne *et al.*, (33) reported high susceptibility rate to Chloramphenicol and gentamicin.

High percentage (65%) of the *S. aureus* isolates obtained from HIV patients were MRSA. This implies that *S. aureus* isolation rate in the total sample was 12.8% while MRSA was 8.3%. This result concurs with the findings of Abdullahi *et al.*, (2022), who observed that the prevalence of nasal (29.6%) colonization of *S. aureus* is higher than other body sites including blood bacteremia and UTI. But also have high accruing profile of MRSA (13.4%) among the *S. aureus* evaluated. The study conducted by Saud *et al.*, (35) showed 65.3% *S. aureus* isolation among non-HIV patients with 47.4% MRSA and 73.9% multidrug-resistant. These findings signify polarity and wide spread of MRSA among *S. aureus* susceptible candidates. This according to Ferreira *et al.*, (32), could be attributed to previous

hospitalization, ability to produce biofilm and antimicrobials resistant; indicating that possible colonization or infection by MRSA might be related to vast antimicrobial usage HIV and non-HIV patients in both community and hospital patients (35, 36).

#### CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

This study evaluated the incidence of *S. aureus* among people living with HIV and found that Gram positive were the most frequently isolated bacteria species from their nasal, ear and skin. The incidence of *S. aureus* and MRSA were 12.8% and 8.3% respectively. High percentage (65.2%) were resistant to more than 4 classes of antibiotics tested, but significantly susceptible to Ciprofloxacin, Streptomycin, Gentamycin and Chloramphenicol. This study recommends periodic surveillance on *S. aureus* among people living with HIV to be able to understand the dynamics and resistant profile within the study area. This will control the development of resistance to most effective drugs for the treatment of *S. aureus* associated infection.

#### REFERENCES

1. Turner, N.A., Sharma-Kuinkel, B.K., Maskarinec, S.A. et al. Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*: an overview of basic and clinical research. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 17, 203–218 (2019). <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41579-018-0147-4>
2. Andrijašević, N.; Perešin Vranjković, M.; Dobrović, K.; Pristaš, I.; Andrašević, S.; Tambić Andrašević, A. Tricuspid Valve Endocarditis Due to Methicillin Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in a Previously Healthy Young Patient without a Drug Abuse History: A Case Report and a Review of the Literature. *Infect. Dis. Rep.* 2023, 15, 327-338.
3. Boison D, Akwetey SA Osei AS, Kelechi S, Barnie PA (2022). Nasal colonization of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in HIV-infected patients at the Cape Coast Teaching Hospital, Ghana. *Front. Trop. Dis, Sec. Antimicrobial*

- Resistance,  
3. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fitd.2022.976567>
4. Taylor TA, Unakal CG. Staphylococcus aureus Infection. [Updated 2022 Jul 18]. In: StatPearls [Internet]. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing; 2023 Jan. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK441868/>
5. Crum-Cianflone NF, Burgi AA, Hale BR. Increasing rates of community-acquired methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus infections among HIV-infected persons. International Journal of STD & AIDS. 2007;18(8):521-526. doi:10.1258/095646207781439702
6. Swathirajan CR, Rameshkumar MR, Solomon S.S., Pradeep A, Vignesh R, Balakrishnan P (2020). Changing antibiotic resistance profile of Staphylococcus aureus isolated from HIV patients (2012–2017) in Southern India. *Journal of Infection and Public Health*, 13(1): 75-79
7. Shinohara K, Uehara Y, Teruya K, Sasaki T, Baba T, Nakaminami H, Kananizadeh P, Morimoto Y, Kikuchi Y, Oka S. Emergence of community-associated methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus ΨUSA300 among Japanese people with HIV, resulted from stepwise mutations in 2010s. Sci Rep. 2023 May 23;13(1):8322.
8. Jung, J. et al. Emergence of Pantone-Valentine leucocidin-positive ST8-methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus (USA300 clone) in Korea causing healthcare-associated and hospital-acquired bacteraemia. Eur. J. Clin. Microbiol. Infect. Dis. 35, 1323–1329 (2016). [Return to ref 15 in article](#)
9. Huang, Y.-C., Chen, C.-J., Kuo, C.-C. & Lu, M.-C. Emergence, transmission and phylogeny of methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus sequence type 8 (USA300) in Taiwan. J. Hosp. Infect. 100, 355–358 (2018).
10. Yang L, Yuanyue T, Zhuang Q, Zhongyi J, Zhenyu Wang, Haiyan Xu, Xinan Jiao, Qiuchun L (2023). Prevalence and molecular characteristics of community-associated methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus in the respiratory tracts of Chinese adults with community-acquired pneumonia. *Journal of Infection and Public Health*, 16 (5): 713-718
11. Hsu, YY., Wu, D., Hung, CC. et al. Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus nasal colonization among HIV-infected patients in Taiwan: prevalence, molecular characteristics and associated factors with nasal carriage. BMC Infect Dis 20, 254 (2020). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12879-020-04979-8>
12. Muhaba H, Fenta GM, Gebretsadik D (2022) Methicillin resistance Staphylococcus aureus nasal carriage and its associated factors among HIV patients attending art clinic at Dessie comprehensive specialized hospital,

- Dessie, North East Ethiopia. PLOS Glob Public Health 2(9): e0000838.
13. Adeiza SS, Onalapo JA, Olayinka BO. Prevalence, risk-factors, and antimicrobial susceptibility profile of methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA) obtained from nares of patients and staff of Sokoto state-owned hospitals in Nigeria. GMS Hyg Infect Control. 2020 Oct 12;15: Doc25. doi: 10.3205/dgkh000360. PMID: 33214990; PMCID: PMC7656983.
14. Sadauki AH, Olorukooba AA, Balogun MS, Dalhat MM, Waziri H, Abdulaziz MM, Umeokonkwo CD, Hassan-Hanga F, Sabitu K. Nasal carriage of methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus among children living with HIV attending Infectious Diseases Clinics in Kano, Nigeria. Infect Prev Pract. 2022 Apr 22;4(2):100213. doi: 10.1016/j.infpip.2022.100213.
15. Garba M (2015). Kaduna State has the second highest HIV prevalence in the country. <https://www.premiumtimesng.com/regional/nwest/185147-kaduna-has-nigerias-second-highest-hiv-prevalence-el-rufai.html?tztc=1>
16. Joshua IA, Giwa FJ, Kwaga JKP, Kabir J, Owolodun OA, Umaru GA, Habib AG. Phenotypic Characterisation of Staphylococcus aureus Isolated from Patients in Healthcare Institutions in Zaria Metropolis, Kaduna State, Nigeria. West Afr J Med. 2022 Nov 30;39 (11):1148-1155. PMID: 36453526
17. Chesbrough M. (2006). Isolation & identification of Bacteria. District Laboratory Practice in Tropical Countries Part 2 Second Edition. Pp. 10 - 89 <https://www.medbox.org/preview/5255d6e1-05d4-41a9-beb2-02b60e695ecc/doc.pdf>
18. Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute, CLSI-M100S25 *Performance Standards for Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing: Twenty-six Informational Supplement*. CLSI, Document M100S, CLSI, 2016; Wayne, PA.
19. Christopher, AF, Hora S, Ali Z (2013). Investigation of plasmid profile, antibiotic susceptibility pattern and MAR index of E. coli from patients of Bareilly city, India. Annals of Tropical Medicine and Public Health 6(3): 285-289
20. World Health Organization (2023). HIV and AIDS: Fact Sheet. <https://www.who.int/news-room/factsheets/detail/hivaids#:~:text=There%20were%20an%20estimate d%2039.0,1.7%20million%5D%20p eople%20acquired%20HIV.>
21. Linz, M.S.; Mattappallil, A.; Finkel, D.; Parker, D. (2023). Clinical Impact of Staphylococcus aureus Skin and Soft Tissue Infections. Antibiotics, 12: 557. <https://doi.org/10.3390/antibiotics12030557>
22. Onovo AA, Adeyemi A, Onime D, Kalnoky M, Kagniniwa B, Dessie M, Lee L, Parrish D, Adebobola B, Ahefor G, Ogorry O, Goldstein R and Meri H (2023). Estimation of HIV

- prevalence and burden in Nigeria: a Bayesian predictive modelling study. *eClinical medicine-Lacent*, 62: 102098, DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eclinm.2023.102098>
23. Abdullahi NI, Issaoui R, Usman Y (2022). Prevalence and genetic lineages of *Staphylococcus aureus* nasal colonization and urinary tract infection among people living with HIV/AIDS in Nigeria: A systematic review. *IJID Regions*, 4: 17-24,
24. Federal ministry of Health [FMoH] (2020). National AIDs and STIs Control programme. National guideline for HIV prevention, treatment and care.
25. USAID (2023). Global HIV statistics. fact Sheet. [https://www.unaids.org/sites/default/files/media\\_asset/UNAIDS\\_FactSheet\\_en.pdf](https://www.unaids.org/sites/default/files/media_asset/UNAIDS_FactSheet_en.pdf)
26. Ikuteyijo, O.O., Akinyemi, A.I. & Merten, S. Exposure to job-related violence among young female sex workers in urban slums of Southwest Nigeria. *BMC Public Health* 22, 1021 (2022). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-022-13440-1>
27. Kinman T, Jewell T, Verville J (2023). Rashes and Skin Conditions Associated with HIV and AIDS: Symptoms and More. <https://www.healthline.com/health/hiv-aids/rashes-and-skin-conditions-hiv#dermatitis>
28. European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control (2013). Microorganisms isolated in HAIs (all HAI types) in acute care hospitals in EU/EEA, ECDC-PPS 2011-2012. <https://www.ecdc.europa.eu/en/healthcare-associated-infections-acute-care-hospitals/database/microorganisms-and-antimicrobial-resistance/list>.
29. Ogawa Y, Kawamura T, Kimura T, Ito M, Blauvelt A, Shimada S (2009). Gram-positive bacteria enhance HIV-1 susceptibility in Langerhans cells, but not in dendritic cells, via Toll-like receptor activation. *Blood*, 113 (21): 5157–5166. <https://doi.org/10.1182/blood-2008-10-185728>
30. Adetokunbo O, Ojo-bola O, Alo B and Okunnuga N (2021). Prevalence and Antibiotics Resistance of *Staphylococcus Aureus* Among Hiv/Aids Patients on Highly Active Antiretroviral Therapy in Ekiti State. *Cell and developmental biology*, 10(4)
31. Muhaba H, Fenta GM, Gebretsadik D (2022) Methicillin resistance *Staphylococcus aureus* nasal carriage and its associated factors among HIV patients attending art clinic at Dessie comprehensive specialized hospital, Dessie, North East Ethiopia. *PLOS Glob Public Health* 2(9): e0000838. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgph.0000838>
32. Ferreira CD, Silva DR, Cavalcante FS, Carmo FL, Fernandes LA, Moreira S, Passos MRL, Colombo APV, Santos KRN (2014). Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in HIV patients: Risk factors



- associated with colonization and/or infection and methods for characterization of isolates – a systematic review. Elsevier-Clinics, 69 (11): 770-776
33. Kengne M, Fotie HBN, Nwobegahay JM, Achiangia PN, Tamoufe U, Goon DT, Mboua JB, Tchanana G, Fualefac A, Echelibe H, Djonkam RK, Nkeza  
Antibiotic sensitivity profile of *Staphylococcus aureus* isolated from HIV/AIDS patients presenting with pyoderma, at the Yaounde Central Hospital, Cameroon. Pan Afr Med J. 2020 Oct 27;37:185. doi: 10.11604/pamj.2020.37.185.14595. PMID: 33447340; PMCID: PMC7778160.
34. Chinnambedu RS, Ragavan Rameshkumar Marimuthu, Suhas Solomon Sunil, Pradeep Amrose, Vignesh Ramachandran, Balakrishnan Pachamuthu (2020). Changing antibiotic resistance profile of *Staphylococcus aureus* isolated from HIV patients (2012–2017) in Southern India. Journal of Infection and Public Health, 13(1): 75-79, ISSN 1876-0341
35. Saud B, Khatri G, Amatya N, Paudel G, Shrestha V. Methicillin-Resistant and Biofilm-Producing *Staphylococcus aureus* in Nasal Carriage among Health Care Workers and Medical Students. Can J Infect Dis Med Microbiol. 2023 Jan 4; 2023:8424486.
36. O'Brien-carelli C, Steuben K, Stafford KA, Aliogo R, Alagi M, Johanns CK, et al. (2022). Mapping HIV prevalence in Nigeria using small area estimates to develop a targeted HIV intervention strategy. PLoS ONE 17(6): e0268892. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0268892>