





Stenotrophomonas maltophilia

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Stenotrophomonas maltophilia was first isolated in 1943 as Bacterium bookeri, renamed in 1961 to Pseudomonas maltophilia and later renamed again to Xanthomonas maltophilia in 1983, based on ribosomal RNA analysis. Further analysis revealed that this organism merits its own genus, and was renamed a final time to Stenotrophomonas maltophilia in 1993.

General characteristics of S. maltophilia:

- Gram-negative obligate aerobe that is rod shaped and motile with a few polar flagella. It is able to persist in nutrient-poor aqueous environments.
- A global emerging environmental, multi-drug resistant organism that is most commonly associated with respiratory tract infections in humans.
- A significant feature of *S. maltophilia* is its ability to form biofilms on surfaces including Teflon[®], glass, and plastics and on host tissues, including lung cells.
- It is NOT an extremely virulent pathogen, but it has emerged as an important nosocomial pathogen, with mortality rates up to 69% in patients with bacteraemia. Risk factors associated with increased mortality include organ failure, severe septic shock and malignancy.

Sources of S. maltophilia¹

Stenotrophomonas maltophilia has been isolated from various sources associated with water, both inside and outside the hospital setting.

Clinical / Medical	Non-clinical
Electronic ventilator temperature sensors Ventilator inspiratory/expiratory circuits Central venous catheter Nebulizers Endoscopes Dental suction system hoses Dental solid waste Haemodialysis water and dialysate from renal units Contaminated chlorhexidine-cetrimide disinfectant Hand-washing soap Irrigating solutions Sink drains Faucets/faucet aerators, showerheads Water fountain drains Patients' medical charts Cystic fibrosis patient cough-generated aerosols Ice machine Tap water Water treated by filtration, reverse osmosis, UV exposure, or deionization Micro-filtered water dispensers	Plant rhizosphere Washed salads Soda fountain machines Yellowtail fish, snakes, goats, buffalo, West-African dwarf crocodile Deep-sea invertebrates Water treatment process and distribution system Returned liquor from wastewater plant Biofilms on fracture surfaces in aquifers Sinkholes of the Yucatan Peninsula Saline subterranean Lake Martel (Spain) River water Water fountain drains and sink drains Showerheads Tap water and bottled water Micro-filtered water dispensers Home-use nebulizers of cystic fibrosis patients Contact lens stock solutions

S. maltophilia-associated infections^{1,4}

Infection with S. maltophilia has been associated with the following clinical conditions:

- Pneumonia
- Acute exacerbations of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease
- Bacteraemia
- Cellulitis/myositis
- Osteomyelitis
- Catheter-related bacteraemia/septicaemia
- Meningitis
- · Endophthalmitis/keratitis/scleritis of the eye; dacryocystitis
- Endocarditis
- Urinary tract infection
- Biliary sepsis

Risk factors for S. maltophilia infections include:

- Immunocompromised patients, including cancer patients receiving chemotherapy, transplant recipients on immunosuppressive therapy and patients with AIDS
- Chronic respiratory disease, including cystic fibrosis
- Presence of indwelling catheters
- Mechanical ventilation
- Prior broad-spectrum antibiotic use
- Prolonged hospitalisation or ICU stay

Treatment strategies for S. maltophilia infections

S. maltophilia is generally considered to be resistant to anti-pseudomonal beta-lactams and aminoglycosides². The preferred treatment of *S. maltophilia* infections has been the bacteriostatic compound trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole (TMP-SMX), but resistance to TMP-SMX is slowly emerging.

Levofloxacin may be used as an alternative antibiotic to treat infection. A recent study indicated that levofloxacin is noninferior to TMP-SMZ for the treatment of *S. maltophilia* infection³. Rapid development of resistance to fluoroquinolones has been observed *in vitro* and *in vivo*.

There is ongoing debate about the use of monotherapy versus combination therapy to treat *S. maltophilia* infections. New treatment strategies include the use of select antibiotics in synergy, e.g. TMP-SMX and tigecycline.

Other alternative treatment strategies for treating S. maltophilia infections include:

- Aerosolized colistin
- Aerosolized levofloxacin
- Tigecycline
- Moxifloxacin

Several studies are also investigating the use of antimicrobial peptides (including peptide inhibitors of beta-lactamase) and cationic compounds for the treatment of *S. maltophilia* infections.

References

- 1. Brooke JS. Stenotrophomonas maltophilia: an Emerging Global Opportunistic Pathogen. Clin Micro Rev 2012; 25(1): 2 41.
- 2. Hotta G, et al. Risk factors and outcomes of Stenotrophomonas maltophilia bacteraemia: a comparison with bacteraemia caused by Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Acinetobacter species. PLoS One 2014; 9(11): e112208.
- Wang YL, et al. Monotherapy with fluoroquinolone or trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole for treatment of Stenotrophomonas maltophilia infections. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2014; 58(1): 176 – 182.
- 4. Chang YT, et al. Update on infections caused by Stenotrophomonas maltophilia with particular attention to resistance mechanisms and therapeutic options. Front Microbiol 2015; 6: 893.

