Comparative analysis of resistance profile of Pseudomonas aeruginosa against clinically relevant antibiotics

Enrollment No-111808 Name of student-Akanksha Tomar Name of supervisor-Dr. Jitendraa Vashistt

Name of co-supervisor- Dr. Rahul Shrivastava



May 2015

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the

5 Year Dual Degree Programme B.Tech-M.Tech

Department of Biotechnology and Bioinformatics

Jaypee University of Information Technology,

Waknaghat

Contents

Certificate from the Supervisor	iii
Acknowledgement	iv
Summary	V
List of symbols and acronyms	vi
List of tables	vii
List of figures	viii-ix
Chapter 1: Introduction	10-12
Chapter 2: Review of Literature	14-21
Chapter 3: Objectives	20-21
Chapter 4: Material and method	22-49
Chapter 5: Results and discussion	50-67
Conclusion	68
References	69-78
Appendices	79-94

Certificate

This is to certify that project report entitled "**Comparative analysis of resistance profile of** *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* **against clinically relevant antibiotics**", submitted by **Ms.Akanksha Tomar** in partial fulfillment for the award of degree of Bachelor of Technology in biotechnology to Jaypee University of Information Technology, Waknaghat, Solan has been carried out under my supervision.

This work has not been submitted partially or fully to any other University or Institute for the award of this or any other degree or diploma.

Supervisor:

Dr. Jitendraa Vashistt

Co-Supervisor: Dr. Rahul Shrivastava

Acknowledgement

First and foremost I would thank the omnipresent 'GOD' for bestowing up on me his choicest blessings without which this work would have not been accomplished.

It was a great pleasure and privilege to work under the guidance of Dr. Jitendraa Vashistt as my project guide and Dr. Rahul Shrivastava who have been incessantly motivating and encouraging me since the inception of the project to work hard and put in every possible effort to make the project a success.

I would like to pay most sincere thanks to Dr. R.S.Chauhan, Head of Department, Department of Biotechnology and Bioinformatics, for providing me with opportunities and facilities to carry out the project.

I am also thankful and indebted to PhD scholar Miss. Nutan Thakur who has been supervising me day and night and has been helping me at every odd hour acquainting me with the basics and subtleties of Microbiology and Molecular biology. I would like to acknowledge Venus medical research centre for providing us amniotic which we used in experiment.

I feel short of words while rendering my thanks to my friend Shilpa for her immense support, love, care and timely help she has given me. I would like to thank the lab technician staff Mr. Baleshwar Shukla, Mr. Kamlesh.

Lastly I fold my hands to thank my parents Mr. Shailendra Singh Tomar and Mrs. Bina Singh for all their love, care, support and motivation.

Date:

Name of the student

Summary

Antibiotic resistance is an increasing concern worldwide, especially in Gram negative bacilli where there is a paucity of new and effective antimicrobial agents. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is inherently resistant to various antimicrobial agents like beta-lactams, aminoglycosides and fluoroquinolone. This makes *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* a potent pathogen which is responsible for increased rates of mortality and morbidity in infected person. It is the fourth most common isolated nosocomial pathogen accounting for approximately 10% of all hospital acquired infections. Case mortality rate for patients infected with *P.aeruginosa* approaches 50%.

The aim of the study was to find the prevalence of *P. aeruginosa* in different clinical samples and their resistance pattern against different classes of antibiotics. Biochemical characterization of *P. aeruginosa* was done by the following tests: Indole test, Methyl Red test, Vogues Proskauer test, Citrate test, Triple Sugar Iron (TSI) test and Catalase test. Antibiotic sensitivity testing (AST) was performed by the Kirby-Bauer disc diffusion method in accordance with the CLSI 2014 guidelines. Minimum inhibitory concentrations of single conventional drug and combined drugs for each isolate were also determined.

Percentage prevalence of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* was found to be 5%. These isolates were completely susceptible to netilitin, tobramycin, streptomycin, ofloaxcin and levofloaxcin. High rate of sensitivity was found in case aminoglycosides amikacin (75%), beta-lactam cetriaxone (75%) and fuoroqounolone norfloaxcin (75%). Increased susceptibility of 50% was found in case of cefepime, ceftazidime and ciprofloxacin. Total resistance to drugs vancomycin and nalidixic acid was also observed. No synergistic effect was found in case of combination drugs. The evaluation of MIC studies showed antibiotic breakpoints at elevated concentration.

Signature of student

Signature of Supervisor

Name of student

Signature of Co-supervisor

Date

List of symbols and acronyms

mg	-	Milli gram
° C	-	Degree centigrade
ml	-	Milli liter
μl	-	Micro-liter
μg	-	Microgram
A.S.T	-	Antibiotic Susceptibility Test
M.I.C	-	Minimum Inhibitory Concentration
X.D.R	-	Extreme Drug Resistant
P.D.R	-	Pan Drug Resistant
M.D.R	-	Multi Drug Resistant
cAMP	-	cyclic Adenosine Mono-Phosphate
E.S.B.L	-	Extended Spectrum Beta Lactamases
M.B.L	-	Metallo Beta Lactamases

List of tables

Table 1: List of conventional antibiotics tested with their code and concentration

Table 2: List of combination drugs tested with their code and concentration

Table 3: Prevalence of *P.aseruginosa* in different clinical samples

Table 4- Diameter of zone of inhibition (in mm) for each isolate against all the beta-lactams tested along with their interpretation

Table 5: Diameter of zone of inhibition (in mm) for each isolate against all the aminoglycosides tested along with their interpretation

Table 6- Diameter of zone of inhibition (in mm) for each isolate against all the fluoroquinolone and glycopeptides tested along with their interpretation

Table 7 - Interpretation of combination drug Potentox (cefepime and amikacin)

Table 8- Interpretation of combination drug Supime (cefepime and sulbactam)

Table 9- Interpretation of combination drug Elores (cefrtiaxone, disodium EDTA and sulbactam)

 Table 10- Interpretation of combination drug Vancoplus (ceftriaxone and vancomycin)

List of figures

Figure 1- Diagrammatic representation of antibiotic resistance mechanism in P.aeruginosa.

Figure 2- Enrichment of clinical samples in nutrient broth

Figure 3- Lactose fermenting colonies on Mac Conkey agar

Figure 4- Bright yellow colonies on Xylose-lysin deoxycholate (XLD) agar

Figure 5- Sucrose and lactose fermenting colonies on EBM (Eosin-methylene blue) agar

Figure 6- (a) (b)- Shows biochemical characterization of isolates using Indole, Methyl Red, Voges Prausker, Citrate agar and Triple Sugar Iron agar test(test sample is ---+, k/k)

Figure 7- Shows catalase test results for P.aeruginosa

Figure 8- Depicts different diameters of zone of inhibition against different isolates of *P.aeruginosa* against tested antibiotics of class beta-lactams, aminogycoside, furoquinolone and glycopeptide

Figure 9- Shows antibiotic sensitivity test of combination drugs (ceftriaxone\disodium edeate\sulbactum III and ceftriaxone& vancomycin) against *Pseudomonas* spp.

Figure 10- Shows U-bottom microtitre 96 well plate used to determine the MIC for piperacillin (a). Column B represents bacterial control, column M represents media control and column P represents plate control. Columns 1 to 6 have decreasing antibiotic concentrations of 2000 μ g/100ml, 1000 μ g/100ml, 500 μ g/100ml, 250 μ g/100ml, 125 μ g/100ml and 62.5 μ g/100ml. each row represents different bacterial isolate. Rows A, B, C and D have *P. aeruginosa* isolates.

Figure 11- shows the percentage prevalence of various organisms in the tested clinical isolates

Figure 12- Sensitivity distribution patterns of Pseudomonas spp. for cefotaxime

Figure 13- Shows sensitivity distribution patterns of Pseudomonas spp. for cefepime

Figure 14-Shows sensitivity distribution patterns of *Pseudomonas spp*. for ceftazidime

Figure 15- Shows sensitivity distribution patterns of Pseudomonas spp. for ceftriaxone

Figure 16- Shows sensitivity distribution patterns of *Pseudomonas spp.* for amikacin

Figure 17- Shows sensitivity distribution patterns of *Pseudomonas spp.* for tobramycin

Figure 18- Shows sensitivity distribution patterns of *Pseudomonas spp*. for netimicin sulphate and streptomycin

Figure 19- Shows sensitivity distribution patterns of Pseudomonas spp. for ciprofloxacin

Figure 20- Shows sensitivity distribution patterns of Pseudomonas spp. for Norfloaxcin

Figure 21- Shows sensitivity distribution patterns of *Pseudomonas spp*. for ofloaxcin and levofloaxcin

Figure 22- Shows sensitivity distribution patterns of *Pseudomonas spp.* for nalidixic acid and vancomycin

Chapter 1

Introduction



P. aeruginosa septicemia incidence on the rise among hospitalized adults

September 8, 2014

🗩 READ OR SUBMIT ARTICLE COMMENTS 🛛 EMAIL 🔒 PRINT 🔭 SAVE 🛛 🕤 🔽 📠 😵

WASHINGTON, D.C. — The incidence of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* septicemia has increased among hospitalized adults within recent years and there has been no evident improvement in mortality or length of hospital stay, according to data presented here at ICAAC 2014.

See Also

Top 10 stories from ICAAC 2014 Public health approach needed to curb incidence of neonatal ... ICS use for COPD treatment increases incidence of ...

Featured

CROI 2015 Current Concepts in MRSA IDWeek 2014 Ebola Resource Center 2015 Annual Conference on Vaccine Research "Data from a recent study demonstrated that the incidence of septicemia overall increased 32.4% from 2005-2010, but in the same time period, we found that <u>P. aeruginosa</u> septicemia increased by 51.2%," **Brian Werth, PharmD**, assistant professor in the University of Washington School of Pharmacy, told *Infectious Disease News*. "It's outpacing the general trend of septicemia as a whole, which may be an indicator that the increase in septicemia might be related to multidrug-resistant pathogens."

Werth and colleagues conducted a retrospective study using data from the CDC's National Hospital Discharge Surveys. They identified adult patients who had a *P. aeruginosa* septicemia discharge from 1996 to 2010. They also described the all-cause, in-hospital mortality rates and the hospital lengths of stay among the patients.



Within the 15-year period, there were 213,553 patients who had a *P. aeruginosa* septicemia discharge. The incidence in 1996 was

6.5 per 10,000 discharges, which declined to 3.1 per 10,000 discharges in 2001. However, the incidence more than doubled from 2001 to 2010, back to 6.5 per 10,000 discharges.

"The incidence has increased to the same rate it was in 1996, which is really troubling," Werth said. "We know from other studies that the number of isolates resistant to antibiotics is increasing, and if the incidence is also

Pseudomonas aeruginosa is an aerobic, non spore forming Gram negative straight or slightly curved rod about 1-3 μ m long and 0.5-1.0 μ m wide and has polar flagella. It is also a non fomenter of lactose, glucose and sucrose ^[3]. Carle Gessard first discovered *P.aeruginosa* in 1882^[2]. The genome of this microbe is among the largest in the bacterial kingdom allowing for great genetic capacity and high

adaptability to environmental changes. In fact *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* has 55567 genes in 6.26 Mbp of DNA^[4].

Pseudomonas aeruginosa naturally occurs in soil and water reservoirs. It is frequently found in aerators and taps of sink, in respiratory therapy equipments and shower heads. It also contaminates bronchoscopes and lead to outbreak of infection. Finally, *P.aeruginosa* may be found on the surface of many types of raw fruits and vegetables ^[2].

Pseudomonas aeruginosa is an opportunistic nosocomial pathogen responsible for a wide range of infections that may present high rates of antimicrobial resistance ^[5, 6, 7]. It is the fourth most common isolated nosocomial pathogen accounting for approximately 10% of all hospital acquired infections. Case mortality rate for patients infected with *P.aeruginosa* approaches 50%. Severe immunodeficiency and medical devices predispose the patients to *P.aeruginosa* infections ^{[6].}

Pseudomonas aeruginosa is becoming more resistant to conventional drug therapy due to indiscriminate use of antibiotics. There is a need to frame rational drug therapy to prevent the misuse of antibiotics. Prior AST (antibiotic susceptibility test) and MIC determination is required to reduce the incidences of morbidity and mortality due to *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* infections.

Chapter 2

Review of literature

P.aeruginosa was first discovered by Carle Gessard, a chemist and bacteriologist from France, in 1882, through an experiment that identified this microbe by its water soluble pigment that turned blue-green when exposed to ultra violet light. This experiment was the focus point of his paper on "The Blue and Green Coloration that Appears on Bandages". Along with the findings from his experiment he went to properly name the strain *P.aeruginosa*, determine its pigment derivative, and developed theory to its pathogenic nature and its infectious similarities found in similar microbes ^[2].

Taxonomical classification of *P.aeruginosa* is as follows:

Kingdom: Bacteria Phylum: *Proteobacteria* Class: *Gamma Proteobacteria* Order: *Pseudomonadales* Family: *Pseudomonadaceae* Genus: *Pseudomonas* Species: *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*^[1]

Mechanism of Pathogenesis

Break in the first line of defense, such as cuts in skin, burns, wounds or compromised immune system are usually required by *P.aeruginosa* to initiate infection in a patient. The bacteria have a wide range of secreted virulence factors which enables it to cause widespread and often overwhelming infections. Cell-to-cell signaling system controls the production of these factors in a co-ordinate and cell-density-dependent manner^[8].

According to Lark *et al P.aeruginosa* has been shown to possess a type III secretion system which enables it to secrete proteins without cleavage of a signal peptide and transfer the virulence factors into eukaryotic cells. The type III secretion systems are activated by host cell contact. The information of secretion is located in the amino-terminal portion of the protein. The translocated factors from *P.aeruginosa* identified so far are Exoenzyme Y (Exo Y), Exoenzyme U (Exo U), Exoenzyme T (Exo T) and Exoenzyme S (Exo S). Clinical isolates contain either the exoS or exoU gene, while almost all

forms of *P.aeruginosa* have exoT and exoY, which indicates that ExoT and ExoY are important for the pathogenesis ^[9].

ExoY is an adenylated cyclase and the cells intoxicated with ExoY show a round morphology that correlates with increased cAMP levels ^[11].

ExoU (**PepA**) expression is correlated with acute cytotoxicity and bacterial-mediated epthilial cell damage in a mouse model of acute pneumonia. Recently, it has been reported that ExoU poissesses lipase activity and disrupts the membranes of the infected host cells ^[12].

ExoS causes decrease in host cell DNA. Recently has been reported that the amino-terminal (AA 96-232) is a Secr./Transl.GAP ADP-ribotranssferase E381 GTPase Activating Protein (GAP) for the members of the Rho family. The carboxyterminal has been shown to be cytotoxic to eukaryotic cells. It contains an ADPribosylatransferase activity (AA 233-453), which covalently transfer ADP-ribose from NAD to eukaryotic target proteins ^[13]. It has previously been suggested that this enzymatic activity induces programmed cell death in the infected cell. The first target found for ExoS *in vitro* was Ras, which shown to be ADP-ribosylated on Arg41 and Arg 128 by ExoS ^[14]. The ADP- ribosyltransferase activity of ExoS Has been shown to be dependent on eukaryotic co-factor named FAS, for Factor Activating exoenzyme S. FAS has been identified as a member of the eukaryotic family 14-3-3 family, which is involved in many eukaryotic signal transduction pathways. Amino acids 51-72 of ExoS harbor a membrane localization domain (MLD), which localizes the toxin to membrane region inside the eukaryotic cell ^[15].

ExoT like ExoS, has been reported to contain a carboxy-terminal ADP-ribosytransferase activity, however ExoT only possesses 0.2-1% of 14-3-3 dependent ADP-ribsyltranseferase activity in vitro as compared to ExoS. The candidate active site residue e385 is homologous to e381 in ExoS. The amino terminal part of Exot also displays high homology to ExoS, which suggests that ExoT also harbor GAP activity ^[16].

P.aeruginosa also produces certain virulence factors, not translocated by type III apparatus, which contribute to the overall virulence of bacterium. These factors can cause extensive tissue damage, bloodstream invasion and dissemination. These factors are described as follows:

Exotoxin A catalyses the ADP-ribosylation and inactivation of elongation factor2, leading to inhibition of protein synthesis and cell death ^[17].

Phospholipase C and rhamnolipid are the two types of hemolysins produced by *P.aeruginosa*. These hemolysins act synergistically to breakdown lipids and contribute to tissue invasion. Rhamnolipid also keep fluid/nutrient channels open in the biofilms produced by the bacteria ^[18].

Proteases LasA and LasB has elastase activity and destroys elastin-containing human lung-tissues and cause pulmonary haemorrhage in invasive infections. LasB also degrades fibrin and collagen and inactivates immunoglobulins G and A, and complement components which not only destroy tissue components, but also interfere with host defense mechanisms ^[19, 20].

Type IV pili are important for colonization of the host by giving *P.aeruginosa* ability to adhere to eukaryotic cells. Tye IV pili also mediate the motility on surfaces. Pili also aid in initiation of biofilm formation ^[21, 22].

Adhesins are the part of the bacteria that aid them to adhere to host cells. *P.aeruginosa* adhere to the epithelial cell of its host through its fimbrae, which bind to specific receptors on host epithelial cells, such as mannose, sialic acid or galactose receptors. fimbrial adherence is required for colonization of the respiratory tract. In this case protease enzymes are used to degrade the extra cellular matrix and expose the appropriate receptors on epithelial cell surface. It has been shown that tissue injury of the respiratory tract, eyes and urinary tract is important part of colonization. Exopolysaccharide producing mucoidal strains of *P.aeruginosa* have an additional or alternative adhesin that attaches to mucin on the host cells. The adhesins present on the surface of *P.aeruginosa* are fully understood and characterized [10].

Alignate/biofilm formation allows *P.aeruginosa* to grow encapsulated in a slime layer consisting of bacteria and polysaccharide alginate. Its biofilm consist of the polysaccharides Pel, Psl and alginate, extracellular DNA and proteins like CupA, CupB and CupC, fimbrae and LecB. Biofilms help the bacterium survive on uninhabitable surfaces. After attachment to a surface, movement across that surface by twitching mobility leads to the formation of microcolnies. Biofilm matrix determines the development and evolution of biofilm architecture.

The oxygen and nutrient gradient in the biofilm affects this susceptibility to antibiotics. The matrix delays diffusion of some antibiotics into some biofilm, effectively making it more and more resistant to antibiotics ^[10].

Clinical manifestation of P.aeruginosa infections

Any part of the body can be infected by *P.aeruginosa*. This bacterium often creates biofilms in the area where they cause infection, which make it much harder to cure and more antibiotic resistant. The most vulnerable individuals to *P.aeruginosa* infections are those that have compromised immune system which include - certain populations of patients such as those with intravenous lines, burns, cancer, cystic fibrosis, diabetes, surgery trauma catheters and neonatal infants ^{[23].}

Respiratory Tract

Nosocomially acquired pneumonia is observed in patients with cystic fibrosis and is often a cause of severe decline in the health of these patients. In patients with airway affecting diseases, chronic lung colonization and chronic infection has been reported ^[24].

Central Nervous System

CNS infection of *P.aeruginosa* can cause meningitis and brain absecese, most often following an extension from a contiguous parameningial structure, such as an ear, a mastoid, paranasal sinus surgery or diagnostic procedures ^[25].

Ear

'Swimmer's ear', which is presented in patients with pain, is also caused by *P.aeruginosa* infection. This condition is worsened by friction on the ear, itching and ear discharge. Chronic otitis media (middle ear infection) is also commonly caused by *P.aeruginosa* ^[26].

Eye

Infection in the eye is the most common pseudomonas infection in immune-competent patients. It can cause bacterial keratitis (infection of the cornea), endophthalmitis (infection of the intraocular cavity) and sclera abscess in adults and ophthalmia neonatrum in children. To do so it produces extracellular enzymes that creates a rapidly destructive lesion ^[27].

Bone and Joints

P.aeruginosa infections of the skeletal system most often involve the vertebral column, the pelvis and the sternoclavicular joint. These infection arise from intravenous drug use , pelvic infections or urinary

tract infections or contiguous from an open wound due to trauma, surgery or a soft tissue infection which most often causes blood-borne infections ^[28].

Gastrointestinal Tract

GI tract infection is an aspect of Pseudomonal infection that is often underestimated. GI tract infections can affect every portion of GI tract especially in very young children and adults with cancers and undergoing chemotherapy. Nursery epidemic of *P.aeruginosa* may cause contract of the in young infants. This may present symptoms of irritability, vomiting, diarrhea and dehydration. Shanghai fever is enteritis manifestation of Pseudomonal infection, which presents with headache, fever, exhaustion, enlargement of spleen, rose spots and dehydration ^[29].

Urinary Tract Infection

Pseudomonal UTIs, most often, are nosocomial caused due to instrumentation, surgery and catheterization. The UTIs can arise from an ascending infection or through bacteremic spread, in addition to being a source of bacteremia. Urine culture and antibiotic susceptibility test is required to distinguish a pseudomonal UTI from others ^[30].

Skin and Soft Tissue Infections

P.aeruginosa flourishes on moist skin, such as improperly attended wound or skin frequently submerged in water, such as with green nail syndrome. Decubiti, pressure-induced ulceration of the skin, eczema and athlete's foot are the most frequent sites of secondary wound infections by pseudomonas. The most prominent characteristic of *P.aeruginosa* that is blue-green and fruity odor is exhibited. Deep abscesses, cellulits and subcutaneous nodules may also occur. Burn victims are also highly susceptible to bacterial wound sepsis, which involves the proliferation of 100,000 organisms per gram of tissue, including the surrounding healthy tissue. These burn infections often appear incredibly discolored and symptoms may include fever, disorientation, hypotension, low urine production, bowel obstruction and decreased white blood cell count. Improperly treated hot tubs and swimming pools are frequently sources of soft tissue and skin infections, with patients presenting with varying types of skin lesions called "hot tub folliculitis" on any part of the body submerged in the water ^[31].

Bacteremia

P.aeruginosa bacteremia is associated with higher mortality than other Gram negative bacteremia. The mortality rate for pseudomonal bacteremia is greater than 10% and is most often acquired in a health setting. The symptoms in this case depend on the site of infection. Bacteremia can cause ecthyma gangrenosum, which painless nodular skin lesions with ulceration and hemorrhage most often in the armpit, groin or perianal area ^[32].

Endocarditis

P.aeruginosa can infect both native heart valve and prosthetic heart valves ^[33].

Antibiotic therapy for Pseudomonas .aeruginosa

Conventional Approaches

P.aeruginosa is attributed with intrinsic and acquired mechanism of antimicrobial resistance which makes the antimicrobial chemotherapy all the more complicated. Despite of this some antibiotics are active against this microorganism. The most frequently used antimicrobials used against *P.aeruginosa* belong to the three classes (1) Beta-Lactams, (2) Quinolones and (3) Aminoglycosides. Polymyxin therapy is also considered in some cases ^[34].

Beta-lactams

Beta-lactams bind to and inactivate penicillin-binding proteins (PBPs) that are transpepidases involved in bacterial cell wall synthesis. The group of beta-lactam antibiotics includes penicillins, cephalosporins, monobactams and carbapenems. The beta lactams that are most active against *P.aeruginosa* are: Pipracillin and ticarcillin (Penicillins), Ceftazidime (Third generation cephalosporin), Cefepime (Fourth generation cephalosporin), aztreonam (monobactam) and Imipenem, Meropenem and Doripenem (Carbapenems)^[35].

Fluorouinolones

These are the synthetic antimicrobials that inhibit the activity of DNA gyrase and topoisomerase IV and block bacterial DNA replication. Ciprofloxacin, Levofloxacin and Ofloxacin are the fluoroquinolones with anti-pseudomonal activity ^[36].

Anminoglycosides

Aminoglycosides inhibit protein synthesis by binding to the 30S ribosomal subunit and degrading its structure. The drugs belonging to this class of antibiotics which show activity against *P.aeruginosa* are Tobramycin, Amikacin and Gentamicin. Aminogylcoside often show cytotoxicity and nephrotoxicity. They have narrow therapeutic range as well. Because of these reasons aminoglycosides are often used in combination with agents belonging to other classes of antibiotics. Urinary tract infections due to *P.aeruginosa* are the only case where the monotherapy aminogylcoside treatments are recommended ^[37]

Polymyxins

Polymyins are cyclic, positively charged peptide antibiotics derived from various species of *Paenibacillus (Bacillus) polymyxa*. Polymyxins can be classified into five major classes (polymyxinA-E). There are only two polymyxins, Polymixin B and Polymyxin E (Colistin), which have been shown to be effective against *P.aeruginosa* infections. These antimicrobials have a detergent-like activity that disrupts membrane integrity and results in leakage of intracellular components. These distinctive properties of polymyxins shelter them from cross-resistance with other anti-pseudomonal agents and are protected from rapid selection of resistance. In the wake of emergence of MDR Gram negative bacteria and the absence of new classes of antibiotics has led to the resurgence of old antibiotics like polymyxins as a last resort in the treatment of MDR *P.aeruginosa* pneumonia. Colistin has increasingly been used as salvage therapy alone or in combination with one or more anti-bacterial for the treatment of pneumonia with MDR strains. Polymyxins are associated with nephrotoxicity and neurotoxicity. The efficacy of intravenous Polymixin therapy for treating severe infections caused by MDR *P.aeruginosa* has outweighed risk associated with them in the absence of therapeutics alternatives ^[38].

Combinational Therapy

Combination drug therapy against MDR strains seems to be some times necessary (for example in cases PAN-resistance or resistance to all except a single agent). In such cases better results are expected by the additive or sub-additive activity of a combination or by enhancement of a single active agent by an otherwise inactive drug.

20

Several old and newer studies have showed the increased activity *in vitro* of various antibiotic combinations against MDR *P.aeruginosa* even though, the mechanisms of positive interaction between the various agents are rarely known^[39].

Other Recent Therapeutic Approaches

As therapeutic options become restricted, the search for new agents is a priority. Several *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies evaluating the efficacy of different antimicrobials agents and development of vaccines against *P. aeruginosa* have been reported as novel approaches, such as inhibition of virulence factor expression or inhibition of their metabolic pathways^[40]

Several studies have shown the efficacy of bacteriophages in the treatment of experimental infections caused by *P. aeruginosa* in animals ^{[41].}

It has been shown that when gold and silver nanoparticles are functionalized with ampicillin they became potent bactericidal agents with unique properties that subverted antibiotic resistance mechanisms of multiple-drug-resistant bacteria as *P. aeruginosa*^[42]

Polymyxin B-loaded liposomes represent a successful example of liposomal antimicrobial drug delivery ^[43]. It has been re-ported that liposomal encapsulation of polymyxin B dramatically diminishes side effects and improves its antimicrobial activity against resistant strains of *P. aeruginosa* ^[44].

Mode of Resistance

Mechanism of antibiotic resistance in *P.aeruginosa* can broadly be divided into categories intrinsic resistance and acquired resistance. Intrinsic resistance refers to resistance that is attributed to a large selection of genetically-encoded mechanisms and acquired resistance is referred to resistance that is achieved through acquiring additional mechanisms or is a consequence of mutational events under selective pressure ^[45].

Intrinsic resistance of *P.aeruginosa*

P.aeruginosa shows inherent antimicrobial resistance through a variety of mechanisms: (1) decreased permeability of the outer membrane, (2) efflux systems which actively pump antibiotics out of the cell, and (3) production of antibiotic-inactivating enzymes.

Outer membrane permeability

Gram-negative bacteria have an outer membrane that act as a barrier and prevent large hydrophilic molecules to pass through it. Antibiotic classes such as aminoglycosides and colistin change the permeability of the outer membrane by interacting with the lipopolysaccharides of the outer membrane in order to pass into the cell cytoplasm. Porin channels are required by beta-lactams and quilonoes in order to diffuse inside the cell. Bacteria produce two major classes of porins: **general**; which allow almost any hydrophilic molecule to pass and **specific**; which have binding sites for certain molecules, allowing them to be oriented and pass in most energy-efficient way ^[46, 47]. Most bacteria posses' lot of general porins and relatively few specific ones, however, *P.aeruginosa* mainly the specific porins. According to Livermore *et al* the outer membrane permeability of *P.aeruginosa* is 1/100 of the permeability of *E.coli* outer membrane ^[48].

Efflux systems

P.aeruginosa expresses several efflux pumps that expel drugs together with other substances out of the bacterial cell. Usually these efflux pumps are made up of three different types of proteins: (1) a protein transporter of the cytoplasmic membrane that uses energy in the form of proton motive force ^[48], (2) a periplasmic connective protein, and ^[49] (3) an outer membrane porin. Except polymyxins most of the other antibiotics are pumped out by these efflux systems therefore their first two components are named multidrug efflux (Mex) along with a letter (example, Mex and MexB) ^[50]. Outer membrane porin is called Opr along with a letter (example, OprA) ^[51].

Antibiotic inactivating enzymes

P.aeruginosa belongs to the SPICE group of bacteria (*Serratia* spp. *P.aeruginosa*, Indole positive *Proteus*, *Citrobacter* spp., *Enterobacter* spp.)^[52], these microbes share a common characteristic: the

ability to produce chromosomal-encoded and inducible AmpC beta-lactamases. These are cephalosprinases that hydrolyze most beta-lactams and are not inhibited by beta-lactamase inhibitors. Another endogeneous beta-lactamase produced by laboratory mutants of *P.aeruginosa* is the class D oxacillinases PoxB. This enzyme however is not clinically significant ^[53].

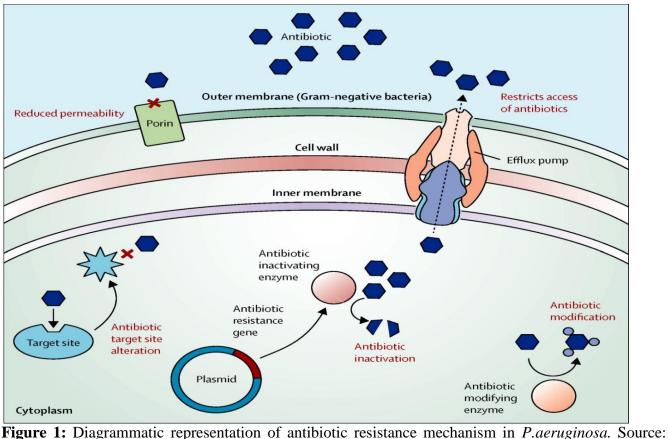


Figure 1: Diagrammatic representation of antibiotic resistance mechanism in *P.aeruginosa*. Source: The Lancet ^[112]

Acquired resistance in *P.aeruginosa*

Acquired resistance in *P.aeruginosa* is a consequence of mutational changes or the acquisition of resistance mechanism via horizontal gene transfer and can occur during chemotherapy ^[54]. Mutational events may lead to over-expression of endogenous beta-lactamases or efflux pumps, diminished expression of specific porins and target site modifications while acquisition of resistance genes mainly refers to transferable beta-lactamases and aminoglycoside-modifying enzymes.

Mode of resistance to different classes of antibiotic in Pseudomonas aeruginosa

Resistance to beta-lactamas

Resistance to antibiotic class beta-lactams is controlled by multiple factors. It is mainly achieved by beta-lactams inactivating enzymes known as beta-lactamases ^[55]. The mechanism of action of these enzymes is that they cleave the amide bond of the lactam ring, a four carbon atom ring, and cause the inactivation of the antibiotic. Beta-lactamases are classified according to their structure ^[56] and function ^[57].

Crbapenems is the subclass of beta-lactams that proven to be most effective against *P.aeruginosa*^[58]. These drugs are stable to the hydrolytic effect of most of the beta-lactamases including Extended Spectrum Beta–Lactamases (ESBL)^[59].

Endogenous beta-lactamases

P.aeruginosa isolated from clinical samples has been reported show resistance to beta-lactams. It is commonly due to the presence of AmpC beta-lactamases ^{[60].} A number of beta-lactams such as benzyl penicillins, narrow spectrum cephalosporin and imipenem can induce the production of beta-lactamases in *P.aeruginosa*. In fact, mutational depression of AmpC protein is one of the most common mechanisms of resistance to beta-lactams in *P.aeruginosa* ^{[61].} Though AmpC are not carbapenemases, however they possess a low potential to hydrolyse carbapenem. Their overproduction along with efflux-pumps over-expression and/or diminished outer membrane permeability has been proven to lead also to carbapenem resistance in *P.aeruginosa* ^[62].

Acquired beta-lactamases

Acquired beta-lactamases are typically encoded by genes which are located in transferable genetic elements such as plasmids or transposons ^[63] often on integrons ^[64]. Integrons are genetic elements that capture and mobiles genes ^{[65].} Other genetic elements associated with transferable resistance in *P.aeruginosa* are the mobile insertion sequences called ISCR (Insertion Sequence Common Regions) elements. Different types of transferable beta-lactamases have been found in clinical *P.aeruginosa* isolates around the world ^{[66].}

Carbenicillin hydrolyzing Beta-lactamases

Four carbenicillin hydrolyzing Beta-lactamases of *Pseudomonas* specific enzyme type are found in *P.aeruginosa*, PSE 1 Carb2, PSE4 Carb1, Carb3 and Carb4. There substrate profile includes carboxypenicillin, uredopenicillin and cefsulodime. These enzymes belong to molecular class A and functional group to C ^[103]. PSE1, PSE4 and Carb3 are closely related but they are only 86.3% homologous with Carb4 (Sanschagrin et al., 1998) ^[108]. The bla_{CARB-4} gene is likely to have been acquired from other bacterial species, as the mol% G+C in this gene is 39.1% unlike the mol% G+C of genes that are typical for *P. aeruginosa*, which is 67%. Carbenicillinase producers show variable susceptibility to cefepime, cefpirome and aztreonam, and 100% susceptibility towards ceftazidime and carbapenems ^[104].

Extended Spectrum Beta-Lactamases

Unlike PSEs, ESBLs of molecular class A and functional group 2b[•] ^[103] lead to the development of resistance not only to carboxypenicillins and ureidopenicillins, but also to extended-spectrum cephalosporins (ceftazidime, cefepime, cefpirome) and aztreonam ^[105]. They show low affinity to carbapenems and their in vitro activity is inhibited by clavulanic acid and tazobactam ^[106]. Discovery of class A ESBLs in clinical isolates of *P. aeruginosa* occurred after 1990. Apart from the TEM and SHV types of enzyme that are well known in the Enterobacteriaceae family, in P. aeruginosa other enzymes that were identified are PER (mostly in clinical isolates from Turkey), VEB (from South-East Asia, France and Bulgaria), GES/IBC (France, Greece and South Africa) and BEL types. These six types have low identity at the genetic level, and yet they have similar hydrolysis profiles ^[105].

Carbapenemases

P.aeruginosa is the species in which all types of transferable carbapenemases, except SIM-1 have been reported. The class B carbapenemases that bear Zn^{2+} in their active sites are the most frequent around the world in *P.aeruginosa* isolates and are called metallo-beta-lactamases (MBLs) ^[67]. IMP and VIM type MBLs were first discovered in Japan 1991^[68] and Italy ^[69] respectively and have spread to through all the continents since then. Other metallo-beta-lactamases are more geographical but KPC (*Klebsiella pneumonia*e carbapenemase)-producing *P.aeruginosa* isolates have not been reported from other continents except Latin America. KPC present high rates of carbapenem hydrolysis and inactivate all other beta-lactams including aztreonam ^{[70].}

Enzymes GES/IBC belongs to the same enzymatic class but their carbapenemase activity is not as high as that of KPCs. It may becaome important if combined with diminished outer membrane permeability or efflux over-expression. For *P.aeruginosa*, GES-2 has been reported in South Africa and IBC-2 in Greece. Class-D carbapenemases like Oxa-198 have been found in *P.aeruginosa* isolates ^[71].

Diminished permeability

OprD is a specific porin of the outer membrane of *P.aeruginosa* through which carbapenems enter into the periplasmic space ^[72]. Diminished expression or mutational loss of this porin is the most common mechanism of resistance to carbapenems and is frequently associated with efflux pumps and/or AmpC over-expression. Diminished expression or loss of the OprD porin is a frequent phenomenon during imipenem treatment ^{[73].}

Efflux system over expression

Though *P.aeruginosa* possess a number of efflux systems that make the bacterium resistant to different classes of anit-pseudomonal antibiotics, beta-lactam resistance is conferred by only three of these efflux systems, namely: MexAB-OprM, MexXY-OprM and MexCD-OprD^{[74].} Among these three, MexAB-OprM accommodates the broadest range of beta-lactams. It is by far the better exporter of meropenem and is most frequently related to beta lactam resistance in clinical isolates of *P.aeruginosa*^[75]. The efflux pumps may be over expressed in some isolates contributing thus, together with other mechanisms in the development of multi-drug resistance ^[76].

Target modification

Modifications in the target sites of beta-lactams i.e. alterations in the structure of penicillin binding proteins is the rarest mechanism of resistance to beta-lactams. Altered PBP-4S with low affinity were reported after imipenem treatment, as well as after administration of high doses of piperacillin in patients suffering with cystic fibrosis. There are reports of reduced susceptibility to beta-lactams in *P.aeruginosa* strain with over production of PBP-3s^{[71].}

Resistance to quinolones

Two major mechanisms that give high level of resistance to *P.aeruginosa* against quinolones are: structural changes in the target enzymes and active efflux pumps. Often these two mechanisms coexist in the bacterium.

DNA gyrase and topoisomerase IV mutations

DNA gyrase is made up of two subunits GyrA and GyrB. The genes for these proteins gyrA and gyrB, lie within the Quinolone Resistance Determining Region (QRDR) motif which is considered as enzymes active site ^{[77].} These are the primary targets of fluoroquinolones. Modification in the primary target of fluoroquinolones is caused by mutations. This cause alteration in amino acid sequence of A and B subunits which lead to synthesis of modified DNA gyrase with low binding affinity quinolone molecule ^{[78].}

Topoisomerase IV is the secondary target of fluoroquinolones. Mutations in the genes parC and parE encoding for ParC and ParE enzyme subunit respectively causes modification in the drug target rendering the drug ineffective ^[79].

Efflux pumps

Four efflulx pumps contribute to fluoroquinolone resistance: MexAB-OprM, MexCD-OprJ, MexEF-OprD and MexXY-OprM as a consequence of mutational events in their repressor genes. Among these, MexAB-OprM, MexCD-OprJ and MexEF-OprN have been associated to fuoroquinolone resistance in clinical isolates whereas MexXY-OprM has only been linked rarely to such type of resistance ^{[80].}

The coexistence of efflux pump systems and mutations of gene coding for DNA gyrase and topoisomerase IV leads to high level of resistance against fluoroquinolones in *P.aeruginosa*^[81].

Resistance to aminoglycosides

There are four reported aminoglycoside resistance mechanism till date. These are: enzyme modification, lower outer membrane permeability, active efflux systems and rarely target modification [82, 83]

Aminoglycoside modifying enzymes (AMEs)

These enzymes are plasmid encoded ^[82] and attach a phosphate, adenyl or acetyl group to the antibiotic molecule and thus decrease the binding affinity of the modified antibiotic to the target in the bacterial cell (30S ribosomal subunit) ^[84]. These enzymes are classified as follows: (1) aminoglycoside acetyltransferase (AACs), (2) aminoglycoside adenyltransferase (also known as nucleotidetransferase)

(AADs or ANTs) and (3) aminoglycoside phosphoryltransferase (APHs). Most commonly encountered AMEs in *P.aeruginosa* are: AAC (6')-II, AAC (3)-I, AAC (3)-II, AAC (6')-I and ANT (2')-I^[85].

Outer membrane impermeability

It provides resistance to all aminoglycoside and is often associated with reduced accumulation antibiotic in the bacterial cell ^[86]. Numerous studies have highlighted the importance of outer membrane impermeability in aminoglycoside resistant clinical isolates, especially in isolates from cystic fibrosis patients. It is the most common aminoglycoside resistance mechanism in these types of isolates ^[87].

Active efflux systems

Active efflux is a relatively rare resistance mechanism that is due to MexXY proteins operating in conjunction with OprM ^[88], as well as with some other outer membrane proteins- OpmB, OpmG and OpmI ^[89] thus forming three component active efflux system.

Target modification

Methylation of the 16S rRNA of the A site of the 30S ribosomal subunit has recently emerged as a new mechanism of resistance against aminoglycoside among Gram negative pathogens belonging to the family *Enterobacteriaceae* and glucose-nonfermentative microbes, including *P.aeruginosa* and *Acinetobacter* spp. ^[90]. This methylation event interferes with the aminoglycoside binding and consequently promotes high-level resistance to all aminoglycosides. Different 16S rRNA methylases have been described for *P.aeruginosa:* RmtA ^[91], RmtD ^[90], ArmA and RmtB [92]. According to a study RmtD is commonly found together with the MBL SPM-1 in Brazil ^[92].

Recent studies and research gaps

Among 33 European countries participating in the European Antimicrobial Resistance Surveillance System in 2012 six countries reported Aminoglycoside resistance rates of >25%, five countries reported Carbapenem resistance rates of >25%, eight countries reported Fluoroquinolones resistance rates of >25% and four countries reported piperacillin resistance rates of >25%, among *P.aeruginosa*. The highest rate of emergence of resistance was reported from Romania (46%)^[107]. In study conducted by Mai M. Zafer *et al* ^[108], 97.5 % of all the total *P.aeruginosa* isolates were sensitive to Polymixin B. This supports the evidence that Polymixin B has increasingly become the last viable therapeutic option for multi drug resistance (MDR) *P.aeruginosa* infections. This result agreed with a study done by Twafik *et al* in 2012 in which they found that all the isolates were sensitive to Polymixin ^[109].

High prevalence of aminoglycoside modifying enzymes among the *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* isolates in India has also been reported in burn patients. Most recent development is the appearance of metallo-beta-lactamase producers among *P.aeruginosa* ^{[98].} In case of XDR *P. aeruginosa* higher resistance was found to ceftazimide followed by amikacin, piperacillin. In other study 6.06% isolates were PDR which were resistant to all anti-pseudomonasal drugs ^[100].

Mai M. Zafer *et al* ^[108] also reported presence of bla_{VIM-2} , bla_{IMP-1} , bla_{NDM} , and bla_{OXA-10} genes in *P*. *aeruginosa* in Egypt. The four recent research studies done at SKIMS, Kashmir India on ESBL and MBL assays showed an alarming rise in antibiotic resistance in Kashmir, India as well results depicted 72% and 60% strains of Hospital acquired *K.pneumonae* & *E.coli* as ESBL positive respectively. Also 14% of *P. aeruginosa* proved MBL producing and thus a direct bearing on the use of 3rd generation cephalosporins and carbapenams in the area ^[110,111].

As new patterns of antibiotic resistance in *P.aeruginosa* are emerging across the world, constant monitoring of these changes is becoming important to prevent the outbreak of the pathogen, lower the cost of treatment for patients infected with *P.aeruginosa*, develop better antibiotic treatments, training the healthcare providers for better management of infected patients and prevention of outbreak of nosocomial infection and to reduce the overall economic and psychological cost of the infection management.

In India antibiotic susceptibility testing prior to prescription of antibiotic for microbial infections is not as prevalent as it is in developed countries. This is leading to evolution new microbial strains that are resilient to antibiotics. Reports on development of new antibiotic susceptibility patterns are not consistent enough for researchers and health-care officials to rely. This is also true for state of Himachal Pradesh where majority of population lives in distant rural areas. Our study aims to find out antibiotic susceptibility patterns and the molecular basis of the resistance in *P.aeruginosa* in the state of Himachal Pradesh where no such pervious study is reported.

Chapter 3

<u>Aim</u> - To perform comparative analysis of resistance profile of *P.aeruginosa* against clinically relevant antibiotics.

Objectives

The following are the targeted objectives of this study:

- Procurement of clinical samples from regional hospitals. Isolation of pure cultures of *P. aeruginosa* from different clinical samples.
- Antibiotic susceptibility testing of *P. aeruginoa* isolates from each sample using different classes of antibiotics.
- Construction of resistance profiles for each antibiotic and comparison these profiles among each other.

Chapter 4

<u>Materials</u>

Reagents

1. METHYL RED REAGENT:

Methyl red	0.1gm	
Ethanol	300ml	
Distilled water	200ml	
2. VOGUS PROSKAUER REA	AGENT:	
Solution A		
Potasium hydroxide	40gm	
Distilled water	1000ml	
Solution B		
α- Naphthol	5ml	
Absolute alcohol	bsolute alcohol 95ml	
3. KOVAC'S REAGENT FOR INDOLE:		
P-dimethylaminobenzaldehyde	10gm	
Isoamyl alcohol	50ml	
Conc. HCl	50mM	
4. CATALASE REAGENT		
Hydrogen peroxide	3ml	

Hydrogen peroxide	3ml
Distilled water	97ml

ROUTINE MEDIA:

Various media used in the study were prepared as referred in Mackie and Mac Carty (1966). These media were available in dehydrated form and are prepared and sterilized as per manufacturer's instructions.

PEPTONE WATER:

Peptone	10.00 gm
Sodium chloride	5.00 gm
Distilled water	1 Litre
pH = 7.4	

it was autoclaved at 121°C for 15 minutes and distributed in aliquots of 5 ml.

GLUCOSE PHOSPHATE MEDIUM:	
Peptone	7.00 gm
Dipotassium Hydrogen Phosphate	5.00 gm
Glucose	5.00 gm
Distilled water	1 litre

 $pH=6.9\pm0.2$

This media was available in dehydrated form and was prepared and sterilized as per manufacturer's instruction.

NUTRIENT BROTH (Dehydrated Hi-Media):

Peptone	5.00 gm
Beef extract	1.50 gm
Yeast Extract	1.50 gm
Sodium Chloride	5.00 gm
Distilled Water	1 Litre

This media was available in dehydrated form and was prepared and sterilized as per manufacturer's instructions.

NUTRIENT AGAR (Dehydrated Hi-Media):	
Nutrient Broth	1 Litre
Agar (Difco)	15.00 gm
$pH = 7.4 \pm 0.2$	

This media was available in dehydrated form. It was prepared and sterilized as per manufacturer's instructions. Slopes were prepared by distributing 5 ml aliquots, allowed to solidify at an angle of 10^{0} . If plates were to be prepared, 20 ml was poured into each plate and allowed to cool and stored at 4^{0} C.

MAC CONKEY' AGAR (Dehydrated Hi- Media):

Peptone	20.00 gm
Sodium taurocholate	5.00 gm
Agar	20.00 gm
Neutral red	0.04 gm
Lactose	15.00 gm
Distilled water	1 Litre

This media was available in dehydrated form and was prepared and sterilized as per manufacturer's instructions. Plates were prepared by pouring 20 ml of molten media in sterile plates, stored at 4^{0} C.

EOSIN METHYLENE BLUE AGAR (Dehydrated Hi- Media):

Peptic digest of animal tissue	10.000gm
Dipotassium phosphate	2.000gm
Lactose	5.000gm
Sucrose	5.000gm
Eosin - Y	0.400gm
Methylene blue	0.065gm
Agar	13.500gm
Distilled water	1 Litre

Final pH (at 25°C) 7.2±0.2

This media was available in dehydrated form and was prepared and sterilized as per manufacturer's instructions. Plates were prepared by pouring 20 ml of molten media in sterile plates, stored at 4^{0} C.

XYLOSE-LYSINE DEOXYCHOLATE AGAR (Dehydrated Hi- Media):

Yeast extracts	3.000gm
L-Lysine	5.000gm
Lactose	7.500
Sucrose	7.500gm
Xylose	3.500gm
Sodium chloride	5.000gm
Sodium deoxycholate	2.500gm
Sodium thiosulphate	6.800gm
Ferric ammonium citrate	0.800gm
Phenol red	0.080gm
Agar	15.000gm
Distilled water	1 Litre

Final pH (at 25°C) 7.2±0.2

This media was available in dehydrated form and was prepared and sterilized as per manufacturer's instructions. Plates were prepared by pouring 20 ml of molten media in sterile plates, stored at 4^{0} C.

SUBSTRATE UTILIZATION MEDIA:

SIMMON'S CITRATE MEDIA (Dehydrated Hi-Media)-

Sodium chloride	5.00 gm
Magnesium sulphate	0.20 gm
Ammonium dihydrogen phosphate	1.00 gm
Dipotassium hydrogen phosphate	1.00 gm
Sodium citrate	2.00 gm

Agar	15.00 gm
Bromothymol blue	0.08 gm
Distilled water	1 litre

 $pH=6.8{\pm}~0.2$

This media was available in dehydrated form and was prepared sterilized as per manufacturer's instructions.

Peptone	20.00 gm
Yeast Extract	3.00 gm
Beef Extract	3.00 gm
Glucose	1.00 gm
Lactose	10.00 gm
Sucrose	10.00 gm
Ferrous ammonium sulphate	0.20 gm
Sodium chloride	5.00 gm
Sodium thiosulphate	0.30 gm
Phenol red	0.025 gm
Agar	15.00 gm
Distilled water	1 Litre

TRIPPLE SUGAR IRON MEDIUM (Dehydrated Hi-Media):

 $pH = 7.4 \pm 0.2$

This media was available in dehydrated form and was prepared and sterilized as per manufacturer's instructions.

SPECIAL MEDIA

MULLER HINTON BROTH (Dehydrated Hi-Media):			
Lab lemco	300 gm		
Casein hydrolysate	17.50 gm		
Starch	1.5 gm		

This media was available in dehydrated form and was prepared and sterilized as per manufacturer's instructions.

MULLER HINTON AGAR (Dehydrated Hi-media):

Lab lemco	300 gm
Casein hydrolysate	17.50 gm
Starch	1.50 gm
Agar	15gm

This media was available in dehydrated form and was prepared and sterilized as per manufacturer's instructions.

Table1: List of conventional antibiotics tested with their code and concentration

	Antibiotic Disc		
	<u>Himedia</u>	<u>Code</u>	<u>Concentration</u>
1	Norfloxacin	NX	10µg\ml
2	Cefotaxime	CTX	30µg∖ml
3	Ciprofloxacin	CIP	5µg\ml
4	Ceftazidime	CAZ	30µg∖ml
5	Cefepime	CPM	30µg∖ml
6	Amikacin	AK	30µg∖ml
7	Nalidixic acid	NA	30µg∖ml
8	levofloaxcin	LE	5µg\ml
9	Ofloxacin	OF	5µg\ml
10	Tobramycin	TOB	10µg\ml
11	Streptomycin	S	10µg\ml
12	Vancomycin	VA	30µg\ml
	Netilitin (Netimicin		
13	sulphate)	NET	30µg∖ml
14	Ciftriaxone	CTR	30µg\ml

Table 2: List of combination drugs tested with their code and concentration

			<u>Disc</u>
		<u>Stock</u>	<u>content</u>
Antibiotic name	<u>Code</u>	Concentration	used
Potentox			125 μg\μl
(Cefepime1000mg&Amikacin			
0.25mg)	Ι	12500µg\ml	
Supime (cefepime 1000mg			150 μg\μl
&Sulbactum 500mg)	II	$15000 \mu g ml$	
Elores (ceftriaxone 1000mg \			150 μg\μl
disodium edeate $37mg \setminus$			
sulbactum 500mg)	III	$15000 \mu g ml$	
Vancoplus (ceftriaxone 1000mg			150 μg\μl
&vancomycin 500mg)	IV	15000µg\ml	

* <u>MISCELLANEOUS ITEMS</u>

- 1. Disposable pipettes
- 2. Tips
- 3. Rubber teats
- 4. Compound microscope
- 5. Microtitre plates round bottom
- 6. Forceps
- 7. Metal loops
- 8. Metal straight wires
- 9. Petri dishes
- 10. pH meter
- 11. Autoclave
- 12. Test tube strand

Method

• <u>Procurement of samples</u>

Samples were procured from regional hospital settings in Himachal Pradesh.

• Enrichment of samples

Each sample was inoculated in 5ml nutrient broth and was cultured overnight in incubator cum shaker at 37°C.



Figure 2: Enrichment of clinical samples in nutrient broth

• Differential selection of bacterial colonies

Isolation of different bacteria present in clinical samples was done by culturing 20 μ l of cultured broth on selection and differential media MaConkey agar, Eosine methylene blue agar and Xylose-lysine-deoxycholate agar (XLD) (Hi- Media).

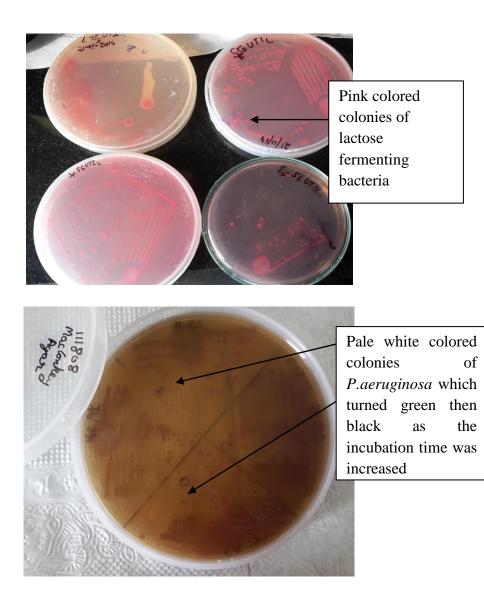


Figure 3- Lactose fermenting colonies on Mac Conkey agar

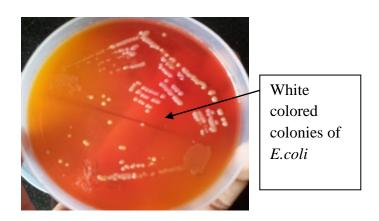


Figure 4- Bright yellow colonies on Xylose-lysin deoxycholate (XLD) agar

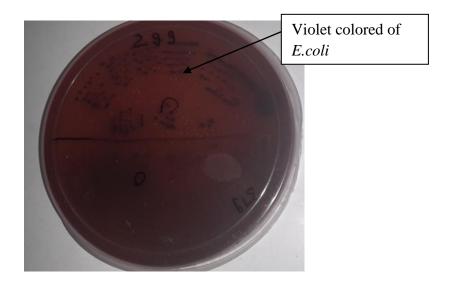


Figure 5- Sucrose and lactose fermenting colonies on EMB (Eosin-methylene blue) agar

Single isolated colony was inoculated in 5ml nutrient broth and was cultured overnight in incubator shaker at 37°C and further test were performed.

• Biochemical characterization

To characterize the specific bacteria following tests were done on the overnight grown culture:

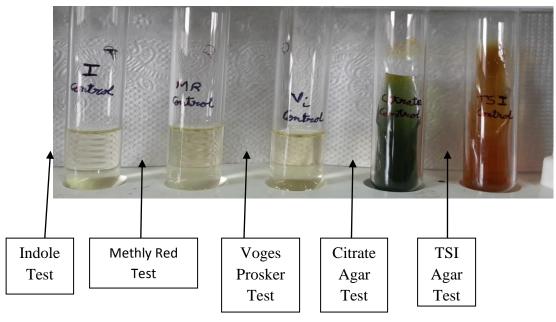
1. Indole test- 20 μ l of culture was inoculated in 5 ml peptone broth. The culture was incubated overnight at 37°C. 200 μ l of Kovac's reagent was added to this culture. Red ring at junction of culture and the reagent indicated positive result while a yellow ring indicated negative result.

2. <u>Methyl Red test-</u> 20 μ l of culture was inoculated in 5 ml Glucose phosphate media broth. The culture was incubated overnight at 37°C. 200 μ l of Methy Red reagent was added to this culture. Change of culture's color from yellow to red indicated positive result and no change in color indicated negative result.

3. <u>Vogus Proskauer test</u>- 20 μ l of culture was inoculated in 5 ml Glucose phosphate media broth. The culture was incubated overnight at 37°C. Then 500 μ l of 5% alpha naphathol and 1000 μ l of 40% KOH were added to the broth. Appearance a cheery red color ring indicated the positive result and appearance yellow ring indicated negative result.

4. <u>Citrate test</u>- Bacteria was inoculated on Cimmon's Citrate Agar slant and incubated overnight at 37°C. Next day the change in color from green to blue indicated the positive results.

5. <u>Triple Sugar Iron (TSI) test</u>- Bacteria was inoculated on TSI Agar slant and butt and then incubated overnight at 37° C. the result was interpreted by observing the change in color of the slant and butt (A/A=yellow slant and yellow butt, K\A= red slant and yellow butt, A/K yellow slant and red butt and K/K red slant and red butt), production of hydrogen sulfide by change in color of culture to black and production of carbon dioxide gas by formation observing cracks in agar or levitation of the agar from the bottom of the test tube.



(a)



(b) Test Sample

Figure 6- (a) (b)- Shows biochemical characterization of isolates using Indole, Methyl Red, Voges Prausker, Citrate agar and Triple Sugar Iron agar test(test sample is ---+, k/k) 6. <u>Catalase test</u>- a single isolated colony of *P. aeruginosa* was immobilized on a glass slide and normal saline was added to homogenize the colony. Then absolute hydrogen peroxide was added to it. The enzyme catalase bacteria convert hydrogen peroxide into water and oxygen which results in frothing on applied area of the glass slide.

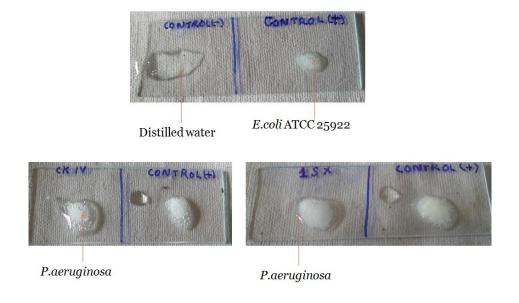


Figure 7- Shows catalase test results for P.aeruginosa

• Antibiotic susceptibility testing

After characterization of bacteria antibiotic susceptibility test was done for each isolated and characterized bacteria by following the Kerby Bauer method ^[93].

1. Inoculum was prepared from the cultured broth used during the biochemical test by transferring 20 μ l to a tube containing 10 ml nutrient broth and allowed to grow for 3-4 hours at 37°C in incubator shaker till the cultured broth reached the desired OD₆₂₅ of 0.5-0.6.

2. 100 μ l of this culture broth was taken and spread on the Muller Hinton agar plate with the help of a glass spreader. The culture was allowed to dry for a few minutes at room temperature with the lid closed.

3. The antibiotic discs were placed on the inoculated plates using forceps.

4. These plates were then incubated at 37°C for 16-18 hours.

5. The diameter of zone of inhibition was measured using venire calipers on the under-surface of the plate containing transparent medium. The diameter of zone of inhibition was measured in mm.

6. The sizes of the zones of inhibition were interpreted by referring through 2I (Zone Diameter Interpretative Standards) of the CLSI guidelines ^[94].

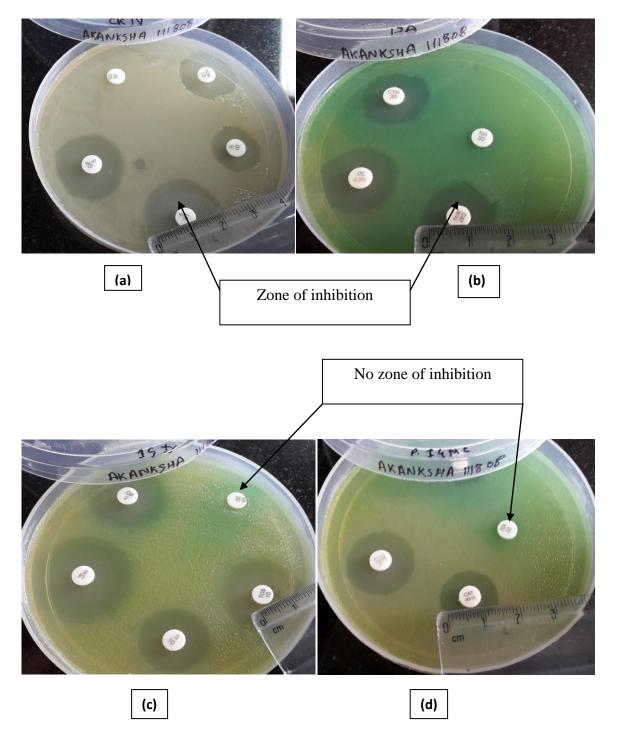


Figure 8- Depicts different diameters of zone of inhibition against different isolates of *P.aeruginosa* against tested antibiotics of class beta-lactams, aminogycoside, furoquinolone and glycopeptide.

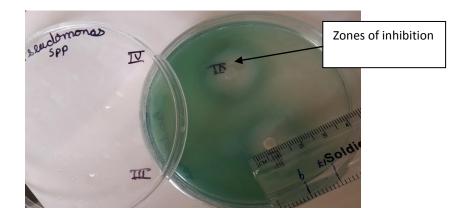


Figure 9- Shows antibiotic sensitivity test of combination drugs (ceftriaxone\disodium edeate\sulbactum III and ceftriaxone& vancomycin) against *Pseudomonas* spp.

• MIC determination

Minimum inhibitory concentration for each isolate was determined by the following method ^[95]:

1. Antibiotic stock solution was prepared by commercially available antimicrobial powders (with given potency) and the amount needed and the diluents in which it was dissolved was calculated by using the following formula to determine the amount of powder (1) or diluents (2) needed for a standard solution:

Weight (mg) = volume (ml)*concentration (μ l /ml)

Potency (µg/mg)

Volume (ml) = weight (mg)*potency (
$$\mu$$
g/mg)

2. Antimicrobial agent stock solutions were prepared at concentrations of at least 1000 μ g/mL or 10 times the highest concentration to be tested.

3. Small volumes of the sterile stock solutions were dispensed into eppendorf vials; carefully seal; and store (at -20 °C or below,).

4. For each antibiotic two-fold dilution range was made starting from 20mg/ml to 0.625mg/ml and preserved at 20 °C or below in sterile eppendorf vials.

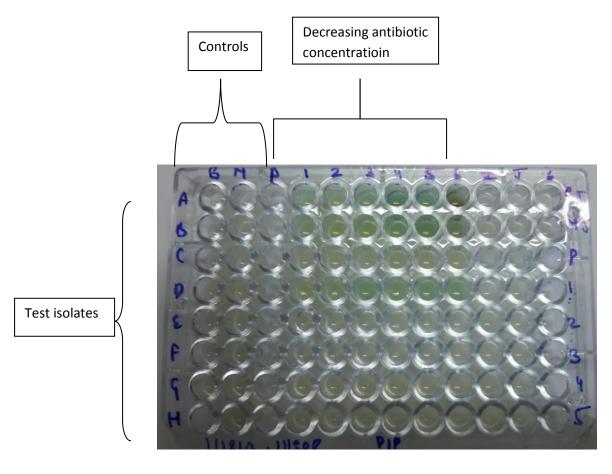
5.Single isolated colony was picked from the nutrient agar plated which was streaked with preserved stocks from previous experiment and inoculated in 10ml of Muller Hinton broth. It was then incubated at 37° C in incubator shaker till the cultured broth reached the desired OD₆₀₀ 0.4-0.5 is reached which indicates bacterial concentration of 10^{4} to 10^{5} CFU/ml.

6. Then on a sterile U-bottom 96 well microtire well plate 95 μ l pure bacterial culture of test organism was dispensed in column number 10 to 4. This was followed by addition of test antibiotic in the order of increasing concentration from column 10 to 4. Column 1 was taken as bacterial control in which 95 μ l teat bacteria broth and 5 μ l of sterile water was dispensed. Column two was taken as media control in which only 95 μ l sterile culture media (Muller Hinton broth) and 5 μ l of sterile water was dispensed. Column 3 was taken as the plate control which was left empty. Each row consisted of a different test bacteria and each column from 10 to 4 consisted of different concentration of the test antibiotic. A single plate was used test eight different test bacteria and one test antibiotic having six different concentrations.

7. The plates were then covered and incubated at 37° C.

8 .When satisfactory growths were obtained (18-36 hours) the plates were scanned with an ELISA reader (Thermo Reader) at 600nm.

9. MIC was taken as the lowest concentration of drug that reduces, by more than 50% or 90% for MIC_{50} or MIC_{90} respectively.



(a)

Figure 10- Shows U-bottom microtitre 96 well plate used to determine the MIC for piperacillin (a). Column B represents bacterial control, column M represents media control and column P represents plate control. Columns 1 to 6 have decreasing antibiotic concentrations of 2000 µg/100ml, 1000 µg/100ml, 500 µg/100ml, 250 µg/100ml, 125 µg/100ml and 62.5µg/100ml. each row represents different bacterial isolate. Rows A, B, C and D have *P. aeruginosa* isolates.

• Glycerol stocks preparation:

For glycerol stock preparation 500µl of 30% sterile glycerol solution and 500µl of log phase culture of single isolated were mixed in a sterile eppendorf vial. The glycerol stocks were labeled; sealed; and then stored at -80°C.

Chapter 5

Results

Identification of different bacteria

Clinical samples enriched in nutrient broth were cultured on non selective and non differential nutrient agar and selective media MacConkey agar, XLD agar and EMB agar. Bacteria showing different colony morphologies were observed (see figure 3, 4, 5).

Biochemical characterization of bacterial colonies

Using Indole, Methyl Red, Vogus Proskauer, Citrate agar, TSI agar and catalase test biochemical characterization was performed (**see figure 6 and 7**). Bacteria showing different biochemical profiles were identified (**see appendix 1**).

The prevalence nce rate of different bacterial species found is as follows: *E.coli* 47%, *Klebsiella* spp. 15%, *Shilgella* spp 7%, *Pesudomonas* spp 5%, *Proteus* spp. 4%, *Citrobacter* spp. 1% and organism of unknown etiology 20% (see figure 11). *P.aeruginosa* isolates were found in whole blood, urine and pus samples (see table 3).

<u>S.No</u>	Sample name	Sample type
1	1P	
2	CK IV	Whole blood
3	1S X	Pus
4	13A	Urine

Table 3: Prevelance of *P.aseruginosa* in different clinical samples

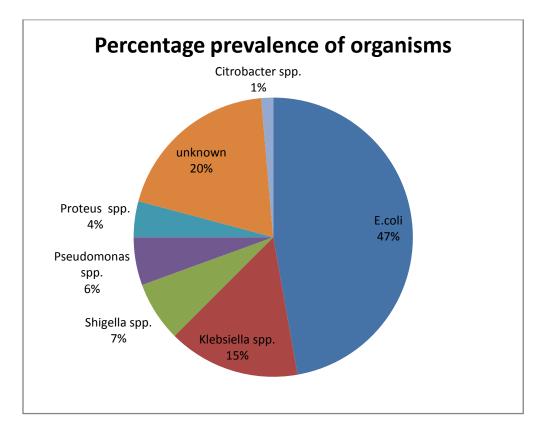


Figure 11- shows the percentage prevalence of various organisms in the tested clinical isolates

Antibiotic susceptibility testing

AST was performed on all the bacterial isolates identified using Kerby bauer method for conventional and combination drugs (see figure 8 and 9). The diameters of zone of inhibition for different subclasses of beta-lactams were measured and interpreted (see table 4). The percentage susceptibility of *Pseudomonas spp*. for cefotaxime i.e. 25% and resistance rate against the antibiotic was 50% (see figure 12). The percentage susceptibility of *Pseudomonas spp*. for cefotaxime i.e. 25% and resistance rate against the antibiotic was 25% and 75% resistance rate was observed against the antibiotic (see figure 13). The percentage resistance of 25% and percentage susceptibility of *Pseudomonas spp*. for ceftazidime (see figure 14). The percentage susceptibility of *Pseudomonas spp*. for cefotaxime i.e. 25% and resistance rate against the antibiotic was 50%. The percentage susceptibility of *Pseudomonas spp*. for cefotaxime i.e. 25% and resistance rate against the antibiotic was 50%. The percentage susceptibility of *Pseudomonas spp*. for cefotaxime i.e. 25% and resistance rate against the antibiotic was 50%. The percentage susceptibility of *Pseudomonas spp*. for cefotaxime i.e. 25% and resistance rate against the antibiotic was 50%. The percentage susceptibility of *Pseudomonas spp*. for cefotaxime i.e. 25% and resistance of 75% and 0% resistance against the antibiotic were observed (see figure 15).

The diameters of zone of inhibition for different subclasses of amnioglycoside were measured and interpreted (see table 5). The percentage susceptibility of *Pseudomonas spp*. for amikacin of 75% and

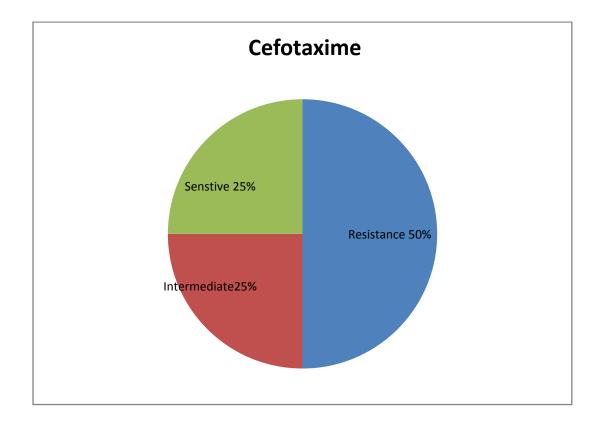
25% resistance rate were observed against the antibiotic (see figure 16). All the isolated *Pseudomonas* spp. were 100% sensitive to tobramycin, netimicin sulphate and streptomycin (see figure 17 and 18).

The diameters of zone of inhibition for different subclasses of fluoroquinolones and glycopeptides were measured and interpreted (**see table 6**). The percentage susceptibility of *Pseudomonas spp*. for ciprofloaxcin and norfloaxcin 50% and 75% respectively and the resistance rate of 25% were observed for both the antibiotics (**see figure 19 and 20**). 100% susceptibility was seen in case of ofloaxcin and levofloaxcin (**see figure 21**). The isolated *Pseudomonas* spp. were 100% resistant to nalidixic acid and vancomycin (**see figure 22**).

The diameters of zone of inhibition for different combinational drugs were also measured. There interpretation was done on the basis of comparison with the diameter of zone of inhibition observed for their individual drug constituents (**see tables 7, 8, 9 and 10**). The combinational drugs were found to be slightly more sensitive than their conventional drugs.

 Table 4- Diameter of zone of inhibition (in mm) for each isolate against all the beta-lactams tested
 along with their interpretation

	Beta-Lactamas				
	<u>CPM</u>	<u>CTX</u>	<u>CTR</u>	<u>CAT</u>	<u>CAZ</u>
1P	30mm\S	26mm\S	18mm\S	16mm	25mm\S
CKIV	18mm\R	19mm\I	22mm\S	21mm	18mm\S
1SX	15mm\R	12mm\R	15mm\l	19mm	15mm\l
13a	7mm\R	11mm\R	20mm\S	15mm	6mm\R





The percentage susceptibility of *Pseudomonas spp*. for cefepime was 25% and 75% resistance rate was observed against the antibiotic.

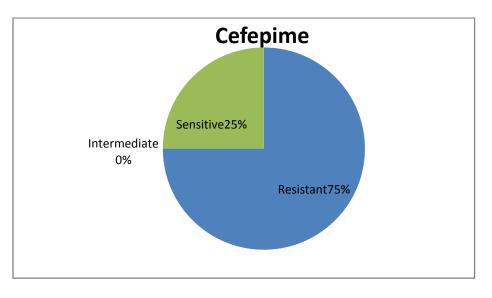


Figure 13- Shows sensitivity distribution patterns of Pseudomonas spp. for cefepime

The percentage resistance of 25% and percentage susceptibility of 50% was observed in *Pseudomonas spp*. for ceftazidime.

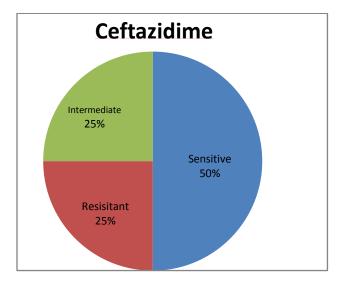


Figure 14-Shows sensitivity distribution patterns of Pseudomonas spp. for ceftazidime

The percentage susceptibility of *Pseudomonas spp*. for ceftriaxone of 75% and 0% resistance against the antibiotic were observed

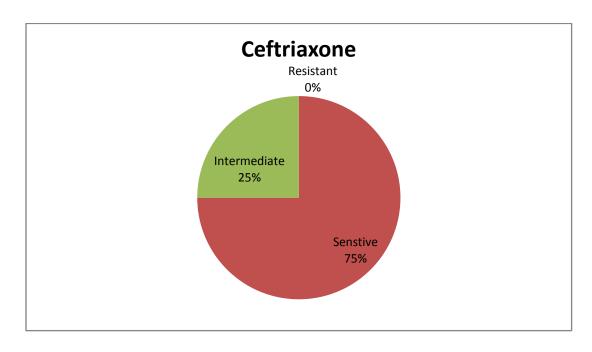


Figure 15- Shows sensitivity distribution patterns of Pseudomonas spp. for ceftriaxone

Table 5: Diameter of zone of inhibition (in mm) for each isolate against all the aminoglycosides tested
 along with their interpretation

			<u>Aminoglycosides</u>		
	<u>TOB</u>	<u>NET</u>	<u>AK</u>	<u>s</u>	
1P	22mm\S	20mm\S	24mm\S	20mm\S	
CKIV	21mm\S	16mm\S	20mm\S	16mm\S	
1SX	20mm\S	21mm\S	20mm\S	18mm\S	
13a	26mm\S	20mm\S	5mm\R	20mm\S	

The percentage susceptibility of *Pseudomonas spp*. for amikacin of 75% and 25% resistance rate were observed against the antibiotic.

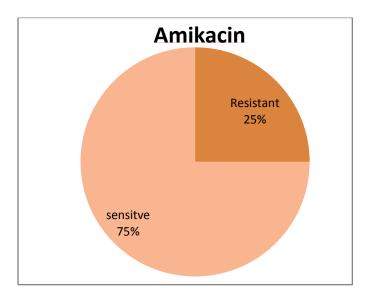
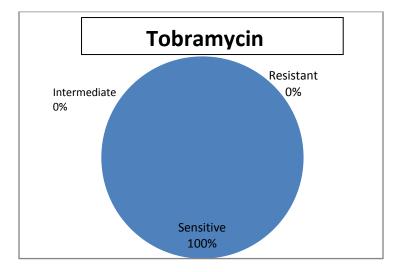


Figure 16- Shows sensitivity distribution patterns of Pseudomonas spp. for amikacin

All the isolated *Pseudomonas* spp. were 100% sensitive to tobramycin, netimicin sulphate and streptomycin.



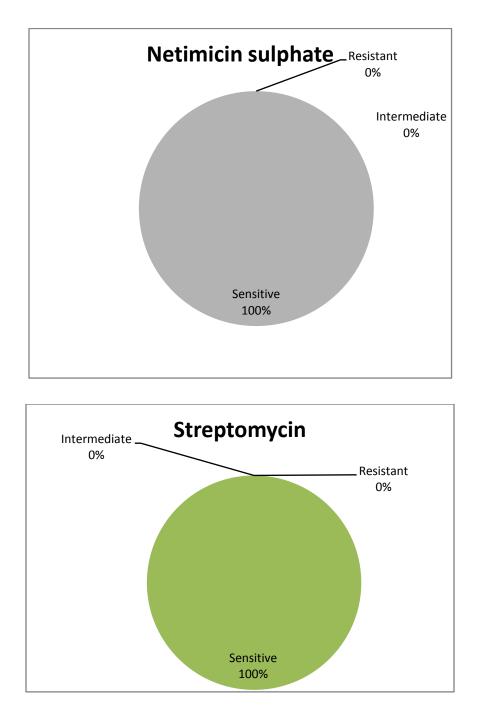


Figure 18- Shows sensitivity distribution patterns of *Pseudomonas spp*. for netimicin sulphate and streptomycin

Table 6- Diameter of zone of inhibition ((in mm)	for each	isolate	against	all the	fluoroquinolone and
glycopeptides tested along with their interp	oretation			•		-

	Quinolnes				<u>Glycopeptides</u>	
	<u>NX</u>	<u>NA</u>	<u>OF</u>	<u>LE</u>	<u>CIP</u>	VA
1P	29mm\S	0mm\R	20mm\S	25mm\S	32mm\S	00mm\R
CKIV	22mm\S	11mm\R	21mm\S	24mm\S	18mm\l	00mm\R
1SX	19mm\S	0mm\R	19mm\S	26mm\S	28mm\S	00mm\R
13a	5mm\R	0mm\R	21mm\S	22mm\S	6mm\R	00mm\R

The percentage susceptibility of *Pseudomonas spp*. for ciprofloaxcin and norfloaxcin 50% and 75% respectively and the resistance rate of 25% were observed for both the antibiotics

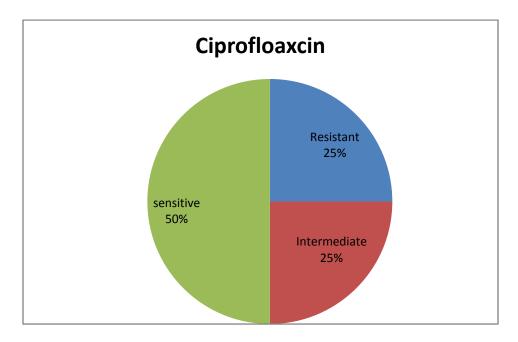
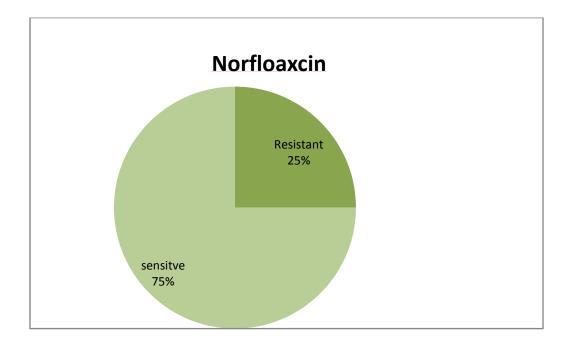
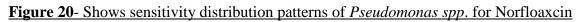
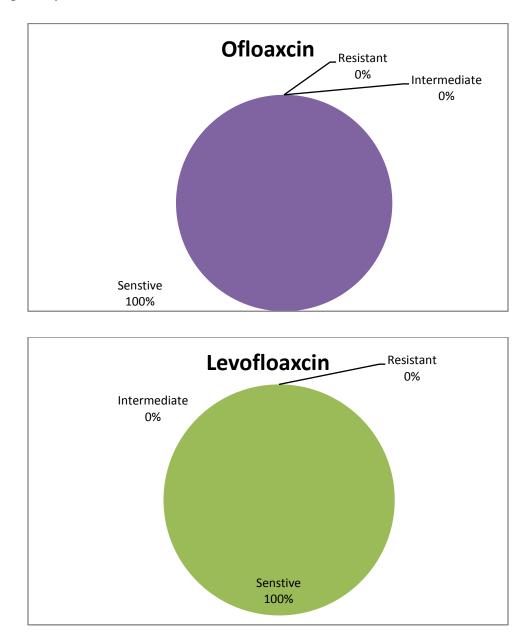


Figure 19- Shows sensitivity distribution patterns of Pseudomonas spp. for ciprofloxacin

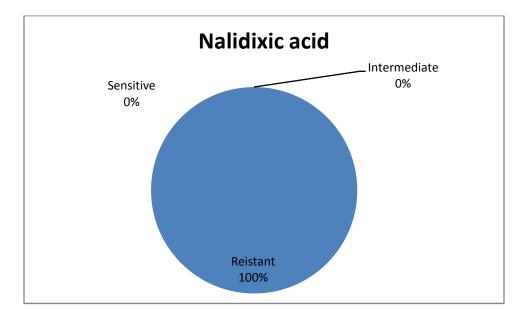




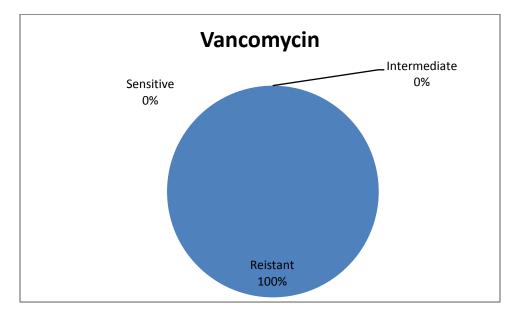


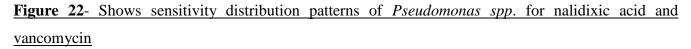
100% susceptibility was seen in case of ofloaxcin and levofloaxcin.

Figure 21- Shows sensitivity distribution patterns of Pseudomonas spp. for ofloaxcin and levofloaxcin



The isolated *Pseudomonas* spp. were 100% resistant to nalidixic acid and vancomycin.





Sample name	<u>CPM</u>	AK	Ī	Inference
1P	30mm\S	24mm\S	26mm	Comparable
CK IV	18mm\R	20mm\S	19mm	Comparable
1S X	15mm\R	20mm\S	25mm	Synergism
13A	7mm\R	5mm\R	17mm	Synergism

 Table 7 - Interpretation of combination drug Potentox (cefepime and amikacin)

Table 8- Interpretation of combination drug Supime (cefepime and sulbactam)

Sample name	<u>CPM</u>	II	Inference
1P	30mm\S	26mm	Comparable
CK IV	18mm\R	21mm	Comparable
1SX	15mm\R	28mm	Synergism
13A	7mm\R	18mm	Synergism

Table 9- Interpretation of combination drug Elores (cefrtiaxone, disodium EDTA and sulbactam)

Sample name	CTR	III	Inference
1P	18mm\S	22mm	synergism
CK IV	22mm\S	15mm	synergism
1SX	15mm\S	29mm	Synergism
13A	20mm\S	20mm	comparable

Sample name	CTR	VA	IV	Inference
1P	18mm\S	0mm\R	20mm	comparable
CK IV	22mm\S	0mm\R	16mm	synergism
1S X	15mm\S	0mm\R	29mm	synergism
14A	20mm\S	0mm\R	22mm	comparable

Table 10- Interpretation of combination drug Vancoplus (ceftriaxone and vancomycin)

Minimum inhibitory concentration breakpoints for aminoglycosides amikacin were observed at the concentration of $250\mu g/100$ ml and for gentamycin it was observed at $125\mu g/100$ ml. In case of betalactam piperacillin MIC breakpoint was observed at $1000\mu g/100$ ml and for fluoroquinolone ciprofloxacin it was found at $1000\mu g/100$ ml. this shows that lower dosage of amikacin and gentamycin are effective against inhibiting the growth of *P.aeruginosa* whereas high dosage maybe required in case of treatment with beta-lactams and fluoroquinolone piperacillin and ciprofloxacin respectively.

Discussion

Biochemical tests for characterization of clinical isolates were performed on 73 samples among them 4 were tested positive for *P. aeruginosa*, thus having a prevalence rate of 6%. *E.coli* was observed as the dominant bacteria having occurrence rate of 47% where as *Klebsiella* spp. was the subdominant bacteria with prevalence of 15% followed by *Shigella* spp. 7%, *Proteus* spp 4% and *Citrobacter* spp. 1%. 20% bacteria were of unknown etiology and require further testing. The prevalence rate of *P. aeruginos* observed in our study is significantly lower than those found by Gunjan Shrivastava *et al.*, 2014 ^[101], 21.85%, Indu Biswal *et al.*, 2014 ^[98], 66.07% and Ved Prakash *et al.*, 2014 ^[102], 21.85%.

In our study we found the isolates were sensitive to aminoglycosides (amikacin 75%, tobramycin 100%, streptomycin 100%, and netlitin 100%). The percentage of sensitive isolates were markedly higher than the findings of other groups like Shrivastav et al., 2014 ^[101] reported percentage sensitivity of 71.7% and 43% for tobramycin and amikacin respesctively. In onaother study conducted by Indu Biswal *et al.*, 2014 ^[98], *P. aeruginosa* showed 18.96% sensitivity towards amikacin and 31.3% sensitivity towards netilitin. In a study conducted by Ved Prakash *et al.*, 2014 ^[102], susceptibility of 62.7% for amikacin was reported. Low susceptibility rate of 23.67% was reported for streptomycin by Indu Biswal *et al.*, 2014 ^[98] against *P. aeruginosa*.

In case of fluoroqinolones percentage resistance rate of 25% was found for ciprofloxacin which is comparable with the findings of Shrivastav et al., who reported percentage resistance of 22.3%. This is also in agreement with the findings of Akhiles *et al* 2014, and Indu Bisawal et al 2014, ^[98,99] who reported lower rates of resistance for ciprofloxacin in *P. aeruginosa*, 13% and 12.06% respectively, in their recent studies. For ofloaxcin and levofloaxcin 100% sensitivity was found in our study. This finding is in agreement with the findings of Nakade et al., who reported high sensitivity of *P. aeruginosa* towards levofoaxcin and moderately high sensitivity towards ofloaxcin. Jombo *et al.*, ^[96] also reported high rate of sensitivity 92% for ofloaxcin in his study in 2008. *P. aeruginosa* was found to be totally resistance to nalidixic acid this proves the failure of antibiotic activity of the drug against it. Resistance rate of 25% was found for norfloaxcin.

Different generations of beta-lactam class cephalosporin were tested in our study. Fourth generation cephalosporin cefepime showed sensitivity rate of 25% and third generation cephalosporin ceftazidime which showed sensitivity rate of 50% against *P. aeruginosa*. This is comparable with the findings of and Indu Biswal *et al.*, 2014 and Ved Prakash *et al.*, 2014, ^[98,102] who reported low rate of sensitivity for these aforementioned antibiotics in their studies. Cefotazime showed percentage resistance of 50% this agrees with the reported percentage resistance for cefotazime (60.47%) by Ved Prakash *et al.*, 2014 ^{[102].} High Sensitivity rate of 75% was observed in case of ceftriaxone. Similar sensitivity rate was reported by Olayinkal *et al.* in his study ^[97].

P.aeruginosa isolates in our findings showed highest sensitivity towards all sub- classes of aminoglycosides followed by fluoroquinolones levofloaxcin, ofloaxcin, ciprofloxacin and norfloaxcin. Isolates were totally resistant to naldixic acid and glycopeptides vancomycin. Increase in resistance rates were observed in case of beta-lactams cefepime and ceftazidime among the isolates.

Among the combination drugs tested Potentox (cfepime and amikacin), Supime(cefeipme and sulbactum), Elores (ceftriaxone, EDTA and sulbactum) and Vancoplus(ceftriaxone and vancoplus) none of the combination showed slight synergistic effect as the diameter of zone of inhibition for individual drug is comparable with the combination drug and no marked increase in the zone of inhibiton was observed. This finding in our study contradicts with the findings of Srinivas *et al.*, 2014 and Akhilesh *et al.*, 2014 ^[99,100], who showed synergism in their antibiotic combinations.

Minimum inhibitory concentration for aminoglycoside amikacin was observed at the concentration of $250\mu g/100ml$ and for gentamycin it was observed at $125\mu g/100ml$, this shows that these isolates were

sensitive towards these antibiotics as their MIC are well below the breakpoint recommended by CLSI. Elevated MIC were observed in case of beta-lactam piperacillin: $1000\mu g/100ml$ and for fluoroquinolone ciprofloxacin it was found at $1000\mu g/100ml$, which were above the CLSI recommended breakpoints indicating that the isolates were resistant against to these antibiotics. These results co-relate with the observations made after the analysis AST results i.e. the isolates showed sensitivity towards aminoglycosides and increased resistance towards flouroquinolones and beta-lactams.

Conclusion

Though the prevalence rate of *P.aeruginosa* in our finding is relative lower compared to findings reported in other parts of the country. However these isolates showed higher rate of resistance against different classes of antibiotics than other species isolated during the course of the study. So, it becomes important to maintain a constant surveillance on *P.aeruginosa* to deduce the recent trends of prevalence and antibiotic resistance to help prevent the outbreak of this pathogen.

Determination of antibiotic susceptibility pattern can help to choose the best choice of antimicrobial therapy. *P.aeruginosa* isolates resistant to various classes of antibiotics are emerging worldwide and the recent resistance or reduced susceptibility to carbapenems is considered a serious clinical threat due to their role as first choice of therapy. The antimicrobials are losing their efficacy because of the spread of resistant organisms due to indiscriminate use of antibiotics, lack of awareness and lack of antibiotic testing facilities. So continuous monitoring of emergence of resistance trends of *P.aeruginosa* is essential in health care centers.

As *P.aeruginosa* is becoming resistant to more and more antibiotics, mono-therapy of *P.aeruginosa* infections is becoming redundant. Rational combination drug therapy, combining different classes of antipseudomonal drugs and beta-lactamse inhibitors should be used cure the infections and prevent the development of resistant strains of the bacteria.

The experience with the isolates suggested that the surveillance for multi-drug-resistant *P.aeruginosa* should be maintained and careful infection control measures and cautious use of antibiotics must be promoted. The solution can be planned by continuous efforts of clinicians, microbiologist, pharmacists and community to promote great understanding of this problem.

Research in the area of finding novel approaches in overcoming the development and spread of multidrug-resistant pathogens, such as development anti-pseudomonal vaccines and nanodrugs should be promoted by the government and academic and research institutes.

References

- 1. Joshua Lederberg et al *Pseudomonas*. Encyclopedia of Microbiology. 2000, 3 (2), p: 867-891.
- Konrad Botzenhart, Gerd Döring Ecology and Epidemiology of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* as an Opportunistic Pathogen Infectious Agents and Pathogenesis 1993, p: 1-18
- Wiehlmann, L., Wagner, G., Cramer, N., Siebert, B., Gudowius, P., Morales, G., Ko, T., Delden, C., Weinel, C., Slickers, P., and Tu, B. "Population structure of Pseudomonas aeruginosa". Preceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America. 2007,104, p: 8101–8106.
- C. K. Stover, X. Q. Pham, A. L. Erwin, S. D. Mizoguchi, P. Warrener, M. J. Hickey, F. S. L. Brinkman, W. O. Hufnagle, D. J. Kowalik, M. Lagrou, R. L. Garber, L. Goltry, E. Tolentino, S. Westbrock-Wadman, Y. Yuan, L. Brody, S. N. Coulter, K. R. Folger, A. Kas, K. Larbig, R. Lim, K. Smith, D. Spencer, G. K.-S. Wong, Z. Wu, I. T. Paulsen, J. Reizer, M. H. Saier, R. E. W. Hancock, S. Lory and M. V. Olson, "Complete Genome Sequence of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* PAO1, an Opportunistic Pa- thogen," Nature, 2000, 406(6799), p :959-964.
- M.-L. Lambert, C. Suetens, A. Savey et al., "Clinical outcomes of health-care-associated infections and antimicrobial resistance in patients admitted to European intensive-care units: a cohort study," The Lancet Infectious Diseases, 2011, 11(1), p: 30–38, 2011.
- Blanc, D. S., Petignat, C., Janin, B., Bille, J. & Francioli, P. Frequency and molecular diversity of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* upon admission and during hospitalization: a prospective epidemiologic study. Clin Microbiol Infect 1998, 4, p: 242–247.
- Carmeli YN, Troillet G, Eliopoulos GM, Samore MH. Emergence of antibiotic-resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*: Comparison of risks associated with different antipseudomonal agents. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 1999; 3, p: 1379–82.

- Kielhofner M, Atmar RL, Hamill RJ, Musher DM. Life-threatening *Pseudomonas aeruginos*a infections in patients with human immunodeficiency virus infection. *Clin Infect Dis*. Feb 1992;14(2), p:403-11
- Maria Henriksson Cellular targets of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* toxin Exoenzyme S Mol Microbiol, 2013, 25, p: 547-557
- H. Kobayashi, O. Kobayashi and S. Kawai, "Pathogenesis and Clinical Manifestations of Chronic Colonization by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and Its Biofilms in the Airway Tract," Journal of Infection and Chemotherapy, 2009, 15(3), p: 125-142.
- Yahr, T.L., Vallis, A.J., Hancock, M.K., Barbieri, J.T., and Frank, D.W. ExoY, an adenylate cyclase secreted by the *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* type III system. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 1998, 95, 13899-13904.
- Finck-Barbancon, V., Goranson, J., Zhu, L., Sawa, T., Wiener-Kronish, J.P., Fleiszig, S.M., Wu, C., Mende-Mueller, L., and Frank, D.W. ExoU expression by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* correlates with acute cytotoxicity and epithelial injury. Mol Microbiol, 1995, 25, p: 547-557.
- Frithz-Lindsten, E., Du, Y., Rosqvist, R., and Forsberg, A. Intracellular targeting of exoenzyme S of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* via type III-dependent translocation induces phagocytosis resistance, cytotoxicity and disruption of actin microfilaments. Mol Microbiol, 1997, 25, p: 1125-1139.
- Ganesan, A.K., Frank, D.W., Misra, R.P., Schmidt, G., and Barbieri, J.T. *Pseudomonas* aeruginosa exoenzyme S ADP-ribosylates Ras at multiple sites. J BiolChem, 1998, 273, p: 7332-7337.
- Pederson, K.J., Krall, R., Riese, M.J., and Barbieri, J.T. Intracellular localization modulates targeting of ExoS, a type III cytotoxin, to eukaryotic signaling proteins. Mol Microbiol, 200, 2 46, p: 1381-1390.
- Yahr, T.L., Barbieri, J.T., and Frank, D.W. Genetic relationship between the 53- and 49kilodalton forms of exoenzyme S from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. J Bacteriol 1996, 178, p: 1412-1419.
- 17. Vidal, D.R., Garrone, P., and Banchereau, J. Immunosuppressive effects of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* exotoxin A on human B-lymphocytes. Toxicon 1993, 31, p: 27-34.
- 18. Davey, M.E., Caiazza, N.C., and O'Toole, G.A. Rhamnolipid surfactant production affects biofilm architecture in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* PAO1. J Bacteriol , 2003, 185, p:1027-1036.
- 19. Kawaharajo, K., Homma, J.Y., Aoyama, Y., and Morihara, K. In vivo studies on protease and elastase from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Jpn J Exp Med, 1975, 45, p: 89-100.

- 20. Heck, L.W., Morihara, K., McRae, W.B., and Miller, E.J. Specific cleavage of human type III and IV collagens by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* elastase. Infect Immun, 1986, 51, p: 115-118.
- 21. Wall, D., and Kaiser, D. Type IV pili and cell motility. Mol Microbiol, 1999, 32, p: 1-10.
- 22. O'Toole, G.A., and Kolter, R. Flagellar and twitching motility are necessary for *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* biofilm development. Mol Microbiol 1998, 30, p: 295-304.
- 23. James A. Driscoll, Steven L. Brody, Dr Marin H. Kollef The Epidemiology, Pathogenesis and Treatment of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* Infections Drugs February 2007, 67(3), p:351-368
- 24. Ratjen F, Munck A, Kho P, Angyalosi G. Treatment of early *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* infection in patients with cystic fibrosis: the ELITE trial. *Thorax*. 2010; 65(4), p: 286-91.
- 25. Cheng BC, Chang WN, Lu CH, et al. Bacterial meningitis in hemodialyzed patients. J Nephrol 2004; 17, p:236
- 26. Lee TC, Gold WL. Necrotizing *Pseudomonas* chondritis after piercing of the upper ear. CMAJ 2011; 35, p183:819
- 27. Abuqaddom AI, Darwish RM, Muti H. The effects of some formulation factors used in ophthalmic preparations on thiomersal activity against *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and Staphylococcus aureus. *J Appl Microbiol*. 2003; 95(2), p: 250-5.
- 28. Illgner U, Uekoetter A, Runge S, Wetz HH. Infections with *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in Charcot arthropathy of the foot. *Foot Ankle Int*. 2013;34(2), p:234-237
- 29. Chuang CH, Wang YH, Chang HJ, Chen HL, Huang YC, Lin TY, Ozer EA, Allen JP, Hauser AR, Chiu CH. Shanghai fever: a distinct *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* enteric disease, Gut. 2014;63(5), p:736-43
- 30. Bitsori M, Maraki S, Koukouraki S, Galanakis E. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* urinary tract infection in children: risk factors and outcomes. *J Urol.* 2012; 187(1), p: 260-264.
- Garcia-Lechuz JM, Cuevas O, Castellares C, Perez-Fernandez C, Cercenado E, Bouza E. Streptococcus pneumoniae skin and soft tissue infections: characterization of causative strains and clinical illness. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis*. 2007; 2 6(4), p :247-53.
- 32. Edgeworth JD, Treacher DF, Eykyn SJ. A 25-year study of nosocomial bacteremia in an adult intensive care unit. *Crit Care Med*, 1999; 27(8), p:1421-8.

- Gavin PJ, Suseno MT, Cook FV, Peterson LR, Thomson RB Jr. Left-sided endocarditis caused by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*: successful treatment with meropenem and tobramycin. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis*. 2003; 47(2), p:427-430.
- 34. Cunha BA. Multidrug resistant (MDR) Klebsiella, Acinetobacter, and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. *Antibiotics for Clinicians*. 2006;10, p:354-355
- 35. Tipper DJ. Mode of action of beta-lactam antibiotics. Pharmacol Ther 1985; 27, p: 1-35.
- 36. Hooper DC. Quinolone mode of action--new aspects. Drugs 1993; 45, p:8-14.
- Dozzo P, Moser, HE. New aminoglycoside antibiotics . Expert Opin Ther Pat 2010;20, p:1321-1341.
- 38. Bergen PJ, Forrest A, Bulitta JB, Tsuji BT, Sidjabat HE, Paterson DL, et al. Clinically relevant plasma concentrations of colistin in combination with imipenem enhance pharmacodynamic activity against multidrug-resistant Pseudomonas aeruginosa at multipleinocula. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2011; 55, p:5134-5142.
- 39. Giamarellou H, Poulakou G. Multidrug-resistant Gram-negative infections: what are the treatment options? Drugs 2009; 69, p: 1879–1901.
- Marilyn Porras-Gómez1, José Vega-Baudrit1, Santiago Núñez-Corrales2 Overview of Multidrug-Resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and Novel Therapeutic Approaches Journal of Biomaterials and Nanobiotechnology, 2012, 3, p:519-527
- 41. J. S. Soothill, Bacteriophage Prevents Destruction of Skin Grafts b *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, Burns, 1994, 20 (3), p: 209-211
- 42. A. N. Brown, K. Smith, T. A. Samuels, J. Lu, S. O. Obare and M. E. Scott, Nanoparticles Functionalized with Am-picillin Destroy Multiple-Antibiotic-Resistant Isolates of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Enterobacter aerogenes* and Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*, Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 2012, 78 (8), p: 2768-2774.
- 43. L. Zhang, D. Pornpattananangkul, C.-M. Hu and C.-M. Huang, Development of Nanoparticles for Antimicrobial Drug Delivery, Current Medicinal Chemistry, 2010, 17 (6), p: 585-594.
- M. Alipour, M. Halwani, A. Omri and Z. Suntres, An-timicrobial Effectiveness of Liposomal Polymyxin B against Resistant Gramnegative Bacterial Strains, Inter-national Journal of Pharmaceutics, 2008, 355 (1-2), p: 293-298.
- Moore NM, Flaws ML. Antimicrobial resistance mechanisms in Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Clin Lab Sci 2011; 24, p: 47-51.

- 46. Hancock R and Brinkman F. Function of Pseudomonas porins in uptake and efilux. Annu Rev Microbiol 2002; 56, p:17-38.
- 47. Tamber S, Ochs MM, Hancock REW. Role of the novel OprD family of porins in nutrient uptake in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. J Bacteriol 2006; 188. 45-54.
- 48. Lambert PA. Mechanisms of antibiotic resistance in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. J R Soc Med 2002; 95, p: 22-26.
- 49. Lister PD, Wolter DJ, Hanson ND. Antibacterial-resistant Pseudomonas aeruginosa: Clinical impact and complex regulation of chromosomally encoded resistance mechanisms. Clin Micro Rev 2009; 22, p:582-610.
- Strateva T, Yordanov D. Pseudomonas aeruginosa a phenomenon of bacterial resistance. J Med Microbiol 2009; 58, p: 1133–1148.
- 51. Schweizer HP. Efflux as a mechanism of resistance to antimicrobials in Pseudomonas aeruginosa and related bacteria: unanswered questions. Genet Mol Res 2003; 2, p:48-62.
- Girlich D, Naas T, Nordmann P. Biochemical characterization of the naturally occurring oxacillinase OXA-50 of Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2004; 48, p:2043–2048.
- 53. Kong KF, Jayawardena SR, Del Puerto A, et al. Characterization of poxB, a chromosomalencoded *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* oxacillinase. Gene 2005;358, p: 82–92
- Lister PD, Wolter DJ, Hanson ND. Antibacterial resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*: Clinical impact and complex regulation of chromosomally encoded resistance mechanisms. Clin Microbiol Rev 2009; 22, p: 582-610.
- 55. Xavier DE, Picao RC, Girardello R, et al. Efflux pumps expression and its association with porin down- regulation and β-lactamase production among *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* causing bloodstream infections in Brazil. BMC Microbiol 2010; 10, p: 217.
- Ambler RP. The structure of beta-lactamases. Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci 1980; 289, p: 321-331.
- 57. Bush K, Jacoby GA, Medeiros AA. A functional classification scheme for beta-lactamases and its correlation with molecular structure. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1995; 39, p: 1211-1233.
- Queenan AM, Bush K. Carbapenemases: the versatile beta-lactamases. Clin Microbiol 2007; 20, p: 440-458.
- Falagas ME, Karageorgopoulos DEJ. Extended-spectrum beta-lactamase-producing organisms. J Hosp Infect 2009; 73, p: 345-354.

- 60. Dunne WM Jr, Hardin DJ.J. Use of several inducer and substrate antibiotic combinations in a disk approximation assay format to screen for AmpC induction in patient isolates of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Enterobacter* spp., *Citrobacter* spp., and *Serratia* spp. Clin Microbiol 2005;45, p: 5945-5949.
- 61. Vettoretti L, Floret N, Hocquet D, et al. Emergence of extensive-drug-resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in a French university hospital. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 2009; 28, p: 1217–1222.
- 62. Quale J, Bratu S, Gupta J, et al. Interplay of efflux system, ampC, and oprD expression in carbapenem resistance of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* clinical isolates. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2006; 50, p:1633-1641.
- 63. Giedraitienė A, Vitkauskienė A, Naginienė R, et al. Antibiotic resistance mechanisms of clinically important bacteria. Medicina (Kaunas) 2011, 47, p:137-146.
- 64. Poirel L, Nordmann P. Acquired carbapenem-hydrolyzing β-lactamases and their genetic support.
 Curr Pharm Biotechnol 2002, 3, p:117–127.
- 65. Cambray G, Guerout AM, Mazel D. Integrons. Annu Rev Genet 2010; 44, p:141-166
- 66. Picao RC, Poirel L, Gales AC, et al. Diversity of β-lactamases produced by ceftazidime- resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* isolates causing bloodstream infections in Brazil. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2009, 5(3), p: 3908–3913.
- 67. Lee K, Yum JH, Yong D, et al. Novel acquired metallo-β-lactamase gene, blaSIM-1, in a class 1 integron from *Acinetobacter baumannii* clinical isolates from Korea. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2005; 49, p: 4485–4491.
- 68. Watanabe M, Iyobe S, Inoue M, et al. Transferable imipenem resistance in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1991, 35, p: 147–151.
- Sevillano E, Gallego L, Garcia-Lobo JM. First detection of the OXA-40 carbapenemase in P. aeruginosa isolates, located on a plasmid also found in *A. baumannii*. Pathol Biol (Paris) 2009, 57, p: 493–495.
- Villegas MV, Lolans K, Correa A, et al. First identification of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* isolates producing a KPC-type carbapenem-hydrolyzing β-lactamase. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2007, 51, p: 1553–1555.
- 71. Pechere, J. C. & Kohler, T. Patterns and modes of b-lactam resistance in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Clin Microbiol Infect, 1999, 5 (Suppl.1), S15–S18.

- 72. Livermore, D. M. Virulence factors of *Pseudomonas*, porins, pumps and carbapenems. J Antimicrob Chemother, 2001, 47, p: 247–250.
- 73. Pai, H., Kim, J. V., Kim, J., Lee, J., Choe, K. & Gotoh, N. Carbapenem resistance mechanisms in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* clinical isolates. Antimicrob Agents Chemother, 2001 45, p: 480–484.
- Livermore, D. M. Penicillin-binding proteins, porins and outer-membrane permeability of carbenicillin-resistant and –susceptible strains of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. J Med Microbiol 1984, 18, 261–270.
- 75. Poole K. Resistance to β -lactam antibiotics. Cell Mol Life Sci 2004, 6, p: 2200–2223.
- 76. Poole K. Pseudomonas aeruginosa: resistance to the max. Front Microbiol 2011, 2. p:65.
- Hooper, D. C. Emerging mechanisms of fluoroquinolone resistance. Emerg Infect Dis , 2007, 7, p:337–341.
- 78. Drlica K, Hiasa H, Kerns R, et al. Quinolones: action and resistance updated. Curr Top Med Chem 2009,9, p: 981–998.
- 79. Higgins PG, Fluit AC, Milatovic D, et al. Mutations in GyrA, ParC, MexR and NfxB in clinical isolates of Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Int J Antimicrob Agents 2003, 21. p:409–413.
- Wolter DJ, Smith-Moland E, Goering RV, et al. Multidrug resistance associated with mexXY expression in clinical isolates of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* from a Texas hospital. Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis 2004, 50. p: 43–50.
- 81. Wang, D., Sun, T. & Hu, Y. Contributions of efflux pumps to high level resistance of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* to ciprofloxacin. Chin Med J, 2007, 120, p:68–70
- Vakulenko, S. B. & Mobashery, S. Versatility of aminoglycosidesand prospects for their future. Clin Microbiol, 2003, 23, p:89-96
- Magnet, S. & Blanchard, J. S.Molecular insights into aminoglycoside action and resistance. Chem Rev, 2005, 105, p: 430–450.
- Saito, K., Yoneyama, H. & Nakae, T. Pseudomonal B-type mutations causing the overexpression of the MexA-MexB-OprM efflux pump are located in the mexR gene of the *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* chromosome. FEMS Microbiol Lett, 1999, 179, p: 67–72.
- Ramirez MS, Tolmasky ME. Aminoglycoside modifying enzymes. Drug Resist 2010, 13, p:151– 171.
- Bryan, L. E., Haraphongse, R. & Van den Elzen, H. M. Gentamicin resistance in clinical-isolates of Pseudomonas aeruginosa associated with diminished gentamicin accumulation and no detectable enzymatic modification. J Antibiot (Tokyo), 1976, 29, 743–753.

- MacLeod, D. L., Nelson, L. E., Shawar, R. M., Lin, B. B., Lockwood, L. G., Dirks, J. E., Miller, G. H., Burns, J. L. & Garber, R. L. Aminoglycoside resistance mechanisms for cystic fibrosis *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* isolates are unchanged by long-term, intermittent, inhaled tobramycin treatment. J Infect Dis , 2000, 181, p:1180–1184.
- Masuda, N., Sakagawa, E., Ohya, S., Gotoh, N., Tsujimoto, H. & Nishino, T. Substrate specificities of MexAB-OprM, MexCDOprJ, and MexXY-OprM efflux pumps in Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2000, 44, p: 3322–3327.
- Jo, J. T., Brinkman, F. S. & Hancock, R. E. Aminoglycoside efflux in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*: involvement of novel outer membrane proteins. Antimicrob Agents Chemother, 2003, 47, p: 1101–1111.
- 90. Doi, Y. & Arakawa, Y. 16S ribosomal RNA methylation: emerging resistance mechanisms against aminoglycosides. Clin Infect Dis, 2007,45, p:88–94.
- Yokoyama, K., Doi, Y., Yamane, K., Kurokawa, H., Shibata, N., Shibayama, K., Yagi, T., Kato, H. & Arakawa, Y. (2003). Acquisition of 16S rRNA methylase gene in *Pseudomonas* aeruginosa. Lancet 362, 1888–1893.
- 92. Gurung M, Moon DC, Tamang MD, et al. Emergence of 16S rRNA methylase gene armA and cocarriage of blaIMP-1 in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* isolates from South Korea. Diagn Microbiol, Infect Dis 2010; 68, p: 468–470.
- 93. Bauer AW, Kirby WM, Sherris JC, Turck M. Antibiotic susceptibility testing by a standardized single disc method. Am J Clin Pathol 1966; 44, p: 493-6.
- 94. Clinical and Laboratory Stanadars Institute (CLSI). Performace standards for antimicrobial susceptibility testing. Twenty first information supplement M100-S21n Wayne, PA: CLSI 2014.
- 95. Irith Wiegand Agar and broth dilution methods to determine the minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) of antimicrobial substances. <u>Nature Protocol</u> 02/2008; issue 3(2), p:163-75
- 96. G. T. A. Jombo, P. Jonah1 and J. A. Ayeni Multidrug Resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in contemporary medical practice: findings from urinary isolates at a Nigerian university teaching hospital, Nigerian Journal of Physiological Sciences 2008, 23 (1-2): 105-109
- 97. Nigeria A. T. Olayinka, B. O. Olayinka and B. A. Onile, Antibiotic susceptibility and plasmid pattern of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* from the surgical unit of a university teaching hospital in north central International Journal of Medicine and Medical Sciences March, 2009, 1(3), pp.079-083.

- Indu Biswal et al., MDR *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in Burn Patients Experience in a Teaching Institution Journal of Clinical and Diagnostic Research. 2014, 8(5), p: 26-29.
- Akhilesh Upgade, N. Prabhu, V. Gopi and N. Soundararajan Current status of antibiotic resistant nonfermentative gram negative bacilli among nosocomial infections Advances in Applied Science Research, 2012, 3 (2), p:738-742
- 100. Srinivas, Lalitha and Narasinga A prospective of *Pseudomona*. *aeruginosa* and its antibiogram in a teaching hospital of rural setup , Journal of pharmaceutical and biomedical science, 2012, 22 (1B).
- 101. Gunjan Shrivastava, K B Patel Bhatambare Evaluation of prevalence and antibiogram of multi drug resistant, extensively drug resistant and pan drug resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in patients visiting a tertiary care hospital in central, CHRISMED Journal of Health and Research 2014 Vol 1 (3), p: 145-149
- 102. Prakash V et al Increasing incidence of multidrug resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in inpatients of a tertiary care hospital. Int J Res Med Sci. 2014, 2(4), p:1302-1306
- 103. Bush, K., Jacoby, G. A. & Medeiros, A. A functional classification scheme for b-lactamases and its correlation with molecular structure. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1995, 39, p: 1211–1233.
- 104. Sanschagrin, F., Bejaoui, N. & Levesque, R. CStructure of CARB-4 and AER-1 carbenicillin hydrolyzing b-lactamases. Antimicrob Agents Chemother . 1998, 42, p:1966–1972.
- 105. Weldhagen, G. F., Poirel, L. & Nordmann, P. Ambler class A extended-spectrum b-lactamases in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa:* novel developments and clinical impacts. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2003, 47, p: 2385–2392.
- 106. Nordmann, P. & Poirel, L. Emerging carbapenemases in Gram-negative aerobes. Clin Microbiol Infect issue 2002, 8, p: 321–331.
- 107. Dominique L. Monnet, Surveillance of antimicrobial resistance and antimicrobial consumption in Europe for the Antimicrobial resistance and Healthcare-associated infections (ARHAI) Programme European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control Amsterdam, 2014.
- 108. MaiM. Zafer, Mohamed H. Al-Agamy, Hadir A. El-Mahallawy, Magdy A. Amin, and Mohammed Seif El-Din Ashour Antimicrobial Resistance Pattern and Their Beta-Lactamase Encoding Genes among *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* Strains Isolated from Cancer Patients BioMed Research International 2014, 3, p:8-16.

- 109. Ali A. El Solh1and Ahmad Alhajhusain Update on the treatment of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* pneumonia Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy, 2009, 64, p: 229–238
- 110. Fahd Manzoor, Thokar Manzoor Ahmed, Shamweel Ahmed. Extended spectrum-β-Lactamase (ESBL) producing community acquired *Escherichia coli isolates* & their antimicrobial susceptibility pattern in Kashmir. Journal of pharmaceutical and biomedical Sciences (JPBMS).2012; 15(01) p:1.
- 111. Peer Maroof Ahmad, Manzoor A. Thokar, Bashir A.Fomda, Kaiser A. Extended spectrum-β-Lactamase producing Klebsiella pneumonia at a tertiary care setup in Kashmir, India: Comparative phenotypic detection and antimicrobial susceptibility pattern. Reviews in Infection. 2010; 1 (2), p: 124-130.
- 112. Laura J Sherrard Michael M Tunney, J Stuart Elborn, Antimicrobial resistance in the respiratory microbiota of people with cystic fibrosis the Lancet, 2014; 384 (9944), p:703-713.

Biochemical test results for different bacteria isolated from clinical samples

							BIOCHEMICAL TEST
							<u>RESULTS</u>
	<u>Sample</u>						
<u>S.No</u>	<u>name</u>	<u>Indole</u>	<u>MR</u>	<u>VP</u>	<u>Citrate</u>	<u>TSI</u>	<u>Organism</u>
1	1SI	NEV	NEV	NEV	POS	A\A	Proteus.mirabilus
2	1SII	NEV	POS	NEV	POS	A\A	unk
3	1SIII	NEV	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	Shigella.spp
4	1SIVR	POS	NEV	NEV	NEG	A\A	Proteus.mirabilus
5	1SIVW	NEV	NEV	POS	POS	A\A	Klebsiella.pneumonia
6	1SVIII	NEV	POS	POS	POS	A\A	Klebsiella.pneumonia
7	1SX	NEV	NEV	NEV	POS	к∖к	Pseudomonas.aeruginosa
8	NAVDEEP	NEV	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	Shigella.app
9	SFUTIL	NEV	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
10	PUS3S	NEV	NEV	NEV	NEV	A\A	UNK
11	2LF	NEV	POS	POS	POS	A\A	Klebsiella.pneumonia
12	SF50LUTI	NEV	POS	POS	POS	A\A	Klebsiella.pneumonia
13	L75LUTI	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
14	SF56SUTI	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
15	SF56LUTI	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli

16	SF50SUTI	NEV	POS	POS	POS	A\A	Klebsiella.pneumonia
17	L75SUTI	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
18	1NLFL	NEV	NEV	NEV	NEV	A\A	UNK
19	NARANLS	NEV	NEV	POS	NEV	A\A	UNK
20	1NLFS	NEV	POS	POS	POS	A\A	Klebsiella.pneumonia
21	PUSNAV	NEV	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	Shigella.spp
22	PUSND1L	NEV	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	Shigella. spp
23	PUSND1S	NEV	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
24	PUSND2L	NEV	POS	POS	POS	A\A	Klebsiella.pneumonia
25	PUSND2S	NEV	POS	POS	NEV	A\A	UNK
26	NARANS	NEV	POS	POS	POS	A\A	Klebsiella.pneumonia
27	NARANLL	NEV	POS	NEV	POS	A\A	Proteus.mirabilus
28	CKIII	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
29	СКІІ	NEV	POS	POS	POS	A\A	Klebsiella.pneumonia
30	CKIV	NEV	NEV	NEV	POS	к\к	Pseudomonas.aeruginosa
31	СКІ	POS	POS	POS	POS	A\A	Klebsiella.pneumonia
32	CRIKIII'	POS	POS	POS	POS	A\A	Klebsiella.pneumonia
33	CRIKI''	NEV	POS	POS	NEV	К∖А	UNK
34	CRIKIII''W	NEV	NEV	NEV	NEV	A\A	UNK
35	CRIKII''	NEV	NEV	POS	POS	К∖А	UNK
36	CRIKI'	NEV	NEV	POS	POS	К∖А	UNK
37	CRIKII'	NEV	POS	NEV	POS	К∖А	UNK
38	CRIKIII''R	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
39	11A	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
40	11B	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
41	13A	NEV	NEV	NEV	POS	к∖к	Pseudomonas.aeruginosa
42	13B	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
43	1P	NEV	NEV	NEV	POS	к∖к	Pseudomonas.aeruginosa
44	321ill	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
45	321il	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	k\k	Unk
46	321iil	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli

47	321iill	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
48	344iiIII	NEV	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
49	276iill	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
50	275iill	NEG	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
51	278ii	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
52	299i	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
53	344iil	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
54	379iill	POS	POS	NEV	POS	A\A	Citrobacter spp.
55	276iil	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
56	299ii	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
57	275i	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
58	344ill	NEV	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
59	379i	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
60	275iil	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
61	344il	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
62	276i	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
63	379iill	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
64	321iiIII	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	k\k	Unk
65	369X	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
66	369E	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	K/A	E.coli
67	278X	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A,GAS	E.coli
68	278E	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A,GAS	E.coli
69	329X	POS	POS	NEV	POS	A\A,GAS	Citrobacter spp.
70	329E	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
71	322XI	NEV	POS	NEV	NEV	К∖А	Shigella spp
72	322XII	NEV	POS	POS	NEV	К∖А	unk
73	322XIII	NEV	NEV	NEV	POS	К∖К	unk
74	322EI	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A	E.coli
75	322EII	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A,GAS	E.coli
76	322EIII	POS	POS	NEV	NEV	A\A,GAS	E.coli

Diameter of zone of inhibition (in mm) for all isolated bacteria against all the beta-lactams tested along with their interpretation

			Beta				
			Lactams				
	Sample	Organism	CAZ	САТ	СРМ	CTR	СТХ
1	321ill	E.coli	8mm/R	20mm	0mm/R	0mm/R	0mm/R
2	321il	Unk	0mm/R	16mm	0mm/R	0mm/R	0mm/R
3	321iil	E.coli	0mm/R	13mm	0mm/R	0mm/R	0mm/R
4	321iill	E.coli	0mm/R	16mm	0mm/R	0mm/R	0mm/R
5	344iiIII	E.coli	0mm/R	12mm	0mm/R	0mm/R	0mm/R
6	276iill	E.coli	0mm/R	14mm	0mm/R	0mm/R	0mm/R
7	275iill	E.coli	0mm/R	11mm	0mm/R	0mm/R	17mm/R
8	278ii	E.coli	0mm/R	16mm	10mm\R	0mm/R	0mm/R
9	299i	E.coli	0mm/R	10mm	0mm/R	0mm/R	0mm/R
10	344iil	E.coli	0mm/R	12mm	0mm/R	0mm/R	0mm/R
		Citrobacter					
11	379iill	spp.	0mm/R	17mm	25mm\S	25mm\S	20mm/R
12	276iil	E.coli	17mm/R	15mm	26mm\S	20mm\S	25mm/S
13	299ii	E.coli	0mm/R	13mm	13mm\R	0mm/R	0mm/R
14	275i	E.coli	0mm/R	14mm	0mm/R	0mm/R	0mm/R
15	344ill	E.coli	11mm/R	15mm	17mm\S	10mm\R	12mm/R
16	379i	E.coli	0mm/R	18mm	9mm/R	0mm/R	0mm/R
17	275iil	E.coli	10mm/R	10mm	0mm/R	0mm/R	0mm/R

	18	344il		E.coli		0mm/R	13m	m	13mm\I	٦	0mm/F	R	0mm/R
	19	276i		E.coli		0mm/R	0mm	n/R	0mm/R		0mm/F	ł	0mm/R
	20	379iill		E.coli		16mm/R	16mm		12mm\R		25mm	\S	16mm/R
	21	321iilll		Unk		0mm	12mm		0mm		0mm		0mm
	22	369X		E.coli		0mm/R	14m	m	0mm/R		0mm/F	R	0mm/R
	23	369E		E.coli		0mm/R	16m	m	0mm/R		0mm/F	{	0mm/R
	24	278X		E.coli		0mm/R	12m	m	0mm/R		0mm/F	8	0mm/R
	25	329X		klebsiel	la	12mm\R	13m	m	0mm/R		0mm/F	ł	0mm/R
	26	329E		E.coli		0mm/R	16m	m	0mm/R		0mm/F	R	0mm/R
	27	322X I		Shigella		20mm\I	18m	m	20mm\I	٦	24mm\	\S	20mm/R
	28	322X II		unk		11mm	15m	m	13mm		20mm		15mm
	29	322X II		Unk		0mm	20m	m	0mm		0mm		0mm
	30	322 E I	I	E.coli		0mm/R	14m	m	0mm/R		0mm/F	2	0mm/R
										Bet	a-Lactar	ns	
	Sam	<u>nple</u>											
S.No	nam			<u>ation</u>	<u>Organis</u>	<u>m</u>		<u>CPM</u>		<u>СТ</u>	<u>X</u>	<u>CA</u>	<u>Z</u>
1	SF56	SLUTI	IGN	ЛС	E.coli			17mr	-				
2		SUTI	IGN	ЛС	E.coli			18mr	-	15	omm\R	131	mm\R
3	L75S	SUTI	IGN	ЛС	E.coli			16mr	-				
4	PUSI	ND2L	IGN	ЛС	E.coli			13mm\R		14	-mm\R		mm\R
5	CKIII		IGN	ЛС	E.coli			15mm\R		10	0mm\R	151	mm\R
6	CRIK	(III''R	IGN	ЛС	E.coli								
7	SFUT	TIL	IGN	ЛС	E.coli			20mr	n\R	21	mm\R	211	mm\S
8	11a		IGN	٨C	E.coli			21mr	n\R	22	2mm\R	201	mm\I
9	11b		IGN	ЛС	E.coli			4mm	\R	4r	nm\R	4m	m/R
10	13b		IGN	ЛС	E.coli			20mr	n\R	22	2mm\R	201	mm\I
	E.co	li											
11	IGM	С	IGN	ЛС	E.coli			18mr	-	-	0mm\R		mm\I
12	SF5C)LUTI	IGN	ЛС	Klebsiell	a.spp		15mr	n\R	19	mm\R		mm\R
13	SF5C)SUTI	IGN	٨C	Klebsiella.pneumoniae			18mr	m\R	19	mm\R	171	mm\R
14	PUS	NAV	IGN	٨C	Klebsiell	a.pneumonia	ie	15mr	n\R	18	Smm\R	111	mm\R
15	NAR	ANS	IGN	ЛС	Klebsiell	a.pneumonia	ie	10mr	m\R	5r	nm\R	4m	m/R

16	СКІІ		Klebsiella.pneumoniae	20mm\R	20mm\R	19mm\I
17	СКІ		Klebsiella.pneumonia	23mm\I	22mm\R	18mm\I
18	CRIKIII'		Klebsiella.pneumonia	20mm\R	19mm\R	19mm\I
19	1SVIII		Klebsiella.pneumonia	20mm\R	19mm\R	19mm\I
20	2LF		Klebsiella.pneumonia	18mm\R	17mm\R	10mm\R
21	1SVIw		Klebsiella.pneumonia	18mm\R	20mm\R	18mm\R
22	1P		P. aeruginosa	30mm\S	26mm\S	25mm\S
23	СКІV	Kasauli	Pseudomonas.aeruginosa	18mm\R	19mm\I	18mm\S
24	1SX	Shimla	Pseudomonas.aeruginosa	15mm\R	12mm\R	15mm\I
25	13a	Shimla	Pseudomonas.aeruginosa	7mm\R	11mm\R	6mm\R
26	PUSND1L	Shimla	Shigella.boydii	19mm\R	16mm\R	14mm\R
27	PUSND1S	Shimla	Shigella.boydii	29mm\ S	30mm\S	4mm\R
28	Navdeep	Shimla	Shigella.boydii	22mm\ I	24mm\I	21mm\S
29	1SIII	Shimla	Shigella.boydii	18mm\R	20mm\R	18mm\S
30	NARANLL	Shimla	Proteus.mirabilus	21mm\R	20mm\R	10mm\R
31	1SI	Shimla	Proteus.mirabilus	21mm\R	24mm\I	20mm\S
32	1SVIR	Shimla	Proteus.mirabilus	20mm\R	19mm\R	19mm\S
33	1NLFL	Shimla	unk	20mm/ R	12mm/R	14mm/ R
					15mm/	
34	1NLFS	Shimla	unk	15mm/R	R	11mm/R
35	PUSND2S	Shimla	unk	10mm/ R	6mm/ R	8mm/R
					11mm/	
36	CRIKI''	Kasauli	unk	8mm/R	R	4mmR
37	CRIKIII''W	Kasauli	unk			
38	CRIKII''	Kasauli	unk			
39	CRIKI'	Kasauli	unk			
					20mm/	
40	CRIKII'	Kasauli	unk	15mm/ R	R	20mm/ I
					28mm/	
41	Pus 3s	Shimla	unk	20mm/ R	S	10mm/ R
42	1SII	Shimla	unk			

43	NARANLS	Shimla	unk	29mm/S	26mm/s	25mm/S

Diameter of zone of inhibition (in mm) for all isolated bacteria against all the fluoroquinolones tested along with their interpretation

				fluorouinolnes			
	Sample	Organism	NX	CIP	OF	NA	LE
1	321ill	E.coli	0mm/R	10mm/R	10mm/R	0mm/R	14mm/I
2	321il	Unk	0mm/R	0mm/R	0mm/R	0mm/R	7mm/R
3	321iil	E.coli	0mm/R	0mm/R	0mm/R	10mm/R	10mm/R
4	321iill	E.coli	0mm/R	0mm/R	0mm/R	0mm/R	8mm/R
5	344iiIII	E.coli	0mm/R	0mm/R	9mm/R	0mm/R	10mm/R
6	276iill	E.coli	0mm/R	0mm/R	0mm/R	0mm/R	10mm/R
7	275iill	E.coli	17mm/S	15mm/R	17mm/S	0mm/R	17mm/S
8	278ii	E.coli	0mm/R	12mm/R	12mm/R	0mm/R	12mm/R
9	299i	E.coli	0mm/R	0mm/R	0mm/R	0mm/R	0mm/R
10	344iil	E.coli	0mm/R	8mm/R	8mm/R	0mm/R	10mm/R
		Citrobacter					
11	379iill	spp.	0mm/R	10mm/R	10mm/R	0mm/R	14mm/I
12	276iil	E.coli	25mm/S	25mm/S	23mm/S	26mm/S	25mm/S
13	299ii	E.coli	0mm/R	9mm/R	0mm/R	0mm/R	11mm/R
14	275i	E.coli	0mm/R	0mm/R	9mm/R	0mm/R	10mm/R
15	344ill	E.coli	0mm/R	0mm/R	10mm/R	0mm/R	15mm/l
16	379i	E.coli	0mm/R	0mm/R	9mm/R	0mm/R	12mm/R

:	17	275iil E.coli Omm/F		′R	0mm	ı/R	9m	m/R	0mm/R	10mm/R	
	18	344il	E.coli	0mm/R		0mm	ı/R	0m	m/R	0mm/R	10mm/R
	19	276i	E.coli	0mm/)mm/R 0m		ı/R	9m	m/R	0mm/R	11mm/R
:	20	379iill	E.coli	0mm/	0mm/R 10n		12 12		mm/R	0mm/R	13mm/R
:	21	321iiIII	Unk	0mm		0mm	1	0m	m	0mm	9mm
:	22	369X	E.coli	0mm/	′R	0mm	ı/R	6m	m∖R	0mm/R	8mm/R
:	23	369E	E.coli	0mm/	′R	0mm	ı/R	6m	m∖R	0mm/R	11mm/R
:	24	278X	E.coli	0mm/	′R	0mm	ı/R	0m	m/R	0mm/R	8mm/R
:	25	329X	klebsiella	0mm/	′R	0mm	ı/R	6m	m∖R	0mm/R	9mm/R
:	26	329E	E.coli	0mm/	′R	13mi	m\R	0m	m/R	0mm/R	6mm\R
:	27	322X I	Shigella	18mm	ı\S	24mi	m\S	18	nm	18mm\S	24mm\S
:	28	322X II	unk	19mm	า	19mi	m	201	nm	16mm	20mm
:	29	322X III	Unk	0mm		0mm	l	0m	m	0mm	0mm
:	30	322 E II	E.coli	0mm/	′R	0mm	ı/R	0m	m/R	0mm/R	10mm/R
						f	luor	ouinolr	ies		
							NX		CIP		
1	SF	56lUTI			IGMC	,	19mm\S		15mn	ı∖R	
2	SF	56SUTI			IGMC		13mm\l		19mn	n/I	
3	L7	5sUTI			IGMC	C 17mm\S			11mn	n∖R	
4	ΡL	JSND2L			IGMC		9mm\R		9mm	\R	
5	СК				IGMC		10mm\R		13mn	n∖R	
6	CR	RIKIII''R			IGMC						
7	SF	UTIL			IGMC		11mm\R		10mn	n∖R	
8	11	a			IGMC		4mm\R		4mm	\R	
9	11	b			IGMC		4mm\R		4mm		
10	13	b			IGMC		4mm\R		4mm'		
11	E.c	E.coli IGMC		IGMC		4mm\R	4mm\		\R		
12	SF	SF50LUTI		IGMC		13mm\I		17mn	n/I		
13	SF	50sUTI			IGMC		14mm\I		15mn	n\R	
14	PUSNAV		IGMC		8mm\R		8mm	\R			
15	NARANS		IGMC		7mm\R		8mm	\R			
16	СК	[]]					28mm\S		26mn	n\S	

17	СКІ		16mm\I	20mm\S
18	CRIKIII'		28mm\S	27mm\S
19	1SVIII		25mm\S	26mm\S
20	2LF		20mm\S	20mm\I
21	1SVIw		21mmS	29mm\S
22	1P		29mm\S	32mm\S
23	СКІV	Kasauli	22mm\S	18mm\I
24	1SX	Shimla	19mm\S	28mm\S
25	13a	Shimla	5mm\R	6mm\R
26	PUSND1L	Shimla	10mm\R	17mm\I
27	PUSND1S	Shimla	4mm\R	29mm\S
28	Navdeep	Shimla	10mm\R	6mm\R
29	1SIII	Shimla	4mm\R	4mm\R
30	NARANLL	Shimla	33mm\S	32mm\S
31	1SI	Shimla	4mm\R	4mm\R
32	1SVIR	Shimla	4mm\R	4mm\R
33	1NLFL	Shimla	20mm/ S	20mm/ I
34	1NLFS	Shimla	10mm/ R	8mm/ R
35	PUSND2S	Shimla	7mm/R	9mm/ R
36	CRIKI"	Kasauli	10mm/ R	16mm/ R
37	CRIKIII''W	Kasauli		
38	CRIKII''	Kasauli		
39	CRIKI'	Kasauli		
40	CRIKII'	Kasauli	18mm/ S	17mm/ I
41	Pus 3s	Shimla	10mm/l	13mm/ R
42	1SII	Shimla		
43	NARANLS	Shimla	13mm/ I	33mm/ S

Diameter of zone of inhibition (in mm) for all isolated bacteria against all the aminoglycoside tested along with their interpretation

					Aminoglycosides	
	Sample	Organism	S	NET	АК	тов
1	321ill	E.coli	14mm/I	17mm\s	18mm/S	15mm/S
2	321il	Unk	18mm/S	18mm\s	19mm/S	15mm/S
3	321iil	E.coli	14mm/I	14mm\l	20mm/S	16mm/S
4	321iill	E.coli	12mm/I	17mm\S	14mm/R	12mm/R
5	344iiIII	E.coli	15mm/S	17mm\S	16mm/l	16mm/S
6	276iill	E.coli	9mm/R	15mm\S	15mm/l	14mm/I
7	275iill	E.coli	15mm/S	15mm\S	17mm/S	10mm/R
8	278ii	E.coli	15mm/S	15mm\S	15mm/S	10mm/R
9	299i	E.coli	9mm/R	15mm\S	13mm/R	10mm/R
10	344iil	E.coli	15mm/S	22mm\S	20mm/S	19mm/S
		Citrobacter				
11	379iill	spp.	15mm/S	17mm\S	15mm/l	16mm/S
12	276iil	E.coli	20mm/S	20mm\S	20mm/S	16mm/S
13	299ii	E.coli	18mm/S	18mm\S	18mm/S	16mm/S
14	275i	E.coli	15mm/S	16mm\S	20mm/S	16mm/S
15	344ill	E.coli	12mm/I	19mm\S	15mm/l	11mm/R
16	379i	E.coli	13mm/l	16mm\S	19mm/S	17mm/S

17	275iil	E.coli	14mm/I	13mm\l	18mm/S	15mm/S
18	344il	E.coli	15mm/S	15mm\S	15mm/l	15mm/S
19	276i	E.coli	13mm/I	18mm\S	18mm/S	17mm/S
20	379iill	E.coli	17mm/S	16mm\S	15mm/l	11mm/R
21	321iiIII	Unk	14mm	15mm	13mm	12mm
22	369X	E.coli	15mm/S	11mm\R	15mm\l	16mm/S
23	369E	E.coli	14mm/I	6mm\R	15mm\l	13mm
24	278X	E.coli	14mm/I	8mm\R	15mm\l	10mm/R
25	329X	klebsiella	15mm/S	0mm\R	16mm/l	14mm/I
26	329E	E.coli	16mm	18mm\s	16mm/l	16mm/S
27	322X I	Shigella	18mm/S	0mm	20mm/S	19mm/S
28	322X II	unk	17mm	0mm	18mm	20mm
29	322X III	Unk	26mm	0mm	22mm	23mm
30	322 E II	E.coli	12mm/l	9mm	16mm/I	16mm/S

		aminoglycosides
		АК
SF56LUTI	IGMC	
SF56SUTI	IGMC	13mm\R
L75sUTI	IGMC	
PUSND2L	IGMC	13mm\R
СКІІІ	IGMC	20mm\S
CRIKIII''R	IGMC	
SFUTIL	IGMC	20mm\S
11a	IGMC	18mm\S
11b	IGMC	4mm\R
13b	IGMC	19mm\S
E.coli IGMC	IGMC	16mm\I
SF50LUTI	IGMC	15mm\l
SF50SUTI	IGMC	11mm\R
PUSNAV	IGMC	13mm\R

NARANS	IGMC	4mm\R
СКІІ		24mm\S
СКІ		22mm\S
CRIKIII'		20mm\S
1SVIII		22mm\S
2LF		22mm\S
1SVIw		20mm\S
1P		24mm\S
СКІV	Kasauli	20mm\S
1SX	Shimla	20mm\S
13a	Shimla	5mm\R
PUSND1L	Shimla	13mm\R
PUSND1S	Shimla	4mm\R
Navdeep	Shimla	18mm\S
15111	Shimla	18mm\S
NARANLL	Shimla	22mm\S
151	Shimla	17mm\S
1SVIR	Shimla	18mm\S
1NLFL	Shimla	18mm
1NLFS	Shimla	15mm
PUSND2S	Shimla	4mm
CRIKI''	Kasauli	21mm
CRIKIII''W	Kasauli	
CRIKII''	Kasauli	
CRIKI'	Kasauli	
CRIKII'	Kasauli	18mm/ S
Pus 3s	Shimla	18mm/ S
1511	Shimla	
NARANLS	Shimla	22mm/ S

Diameter of zone of inhibition (in mm) for all isolated bacteria against the tested glycopeptides vancomycin along with their interpretation

			Glycopeptides
	Sample	Organism	VA
1	321ill	E.coli	11mm/I
2	321il	Unk	16mm/S
3	321iil	E.coli	10mm/R
4	321iill	E.coli	0mm/R
5	344iiIII	E.coli	0mm/R
6	276iill	E.coli	0mm/R
7	275iill	E.coli	0mm/R
8	278ii	E.coli	0mm/R
9	299i	E.coli	0mm/R
10	344iil	E.coli	0mm/R
		Citrobacter	
11	379iill	spp.	0mm/R
12	276iil	E.coli	0mm/R
13	299ii	E.coli	9mm/R
14	275i	E.coli	11mm/I
15	344ill	E.coli	0mm/R
16	379i	E.coli	0mm/R
17	275iil	E.coli	0mm/R
18	344il	E.coli	0mm/R
19	276i	E.coli	0mm/R
20	379iill	E.coli	0mm/R
21	321iiIII	Unk	0mm
22	369X	E.coli	16mm/S
23	369E	E.coli	11mm/I
24	278X	E.coli	16mm/S
25	329X	klebsiella	15mm\s
26	329E	E.coli	6mm\R
27	322X I	Shigella	20mm\S

28	322X II	unk	24mm
29	322X III	Unk	23mm
30	322 E II	E.coli	10mm/R

Diameter of zone of inhibition (in mm) for all isolated bacteria against all the combination drugs tested

			VMRC antibiotics			
			<u>l</u>	Ш	<u>III</u>	<u>IV</u>
1	SF56LUTI	E.coli				
2	SF56SUTI	E.coli	30mm	29mm	32mm	30mm
3	L75SUTI	E.coli	30mm	35mm	34mm	30mm
4	PUSND2L	E.coli				
5	СКШ	E.coli	20mm	16mm	20mm	18mm
6	CRIKIII''R	E.coli	19mm	24mm	22mm	21mm
7	SFUTIL	E.coli	29mm	26mm	24mm	27mm
8	11a	E.coli	28mm	34mm	30mm	26mm
9	11b	E.coli	8mm	6mm	9mm	4mm
10	13b	E.coli	31mm	32mm	29mm	30mm
11	E.coli IGMC	E.coli	25mm	24mm	28mm	24mm
12	SF50LUTI	Klebsiella.spp	30mm	25mm	30mm	30mm
13	SF50SUTI	Klebsiella.pneumoniae	32mm	38mm	30mm	29mm
14	PUSNAV	Klebsiella.pneumoniae				
15	NARANS	Klebsiella.pneumoniae	12mm	20mm	4mm	4mm
16	СКІІ	Klebsiella.pneumoniae	12mm	10mm	14mm	10mm
17	СКІ	Klebsiella.pneumonia	20mm	25mm	21mm	14mm
18	CRIKIII'	Klebsiella.pneumonia	26mm	26mm	24mm	27mm

19	1SVIII	Klebsiella.pneumonia	25mm	25mm	30mm	26mm
20	2LF	Klebsiella.pneumonia	30mm	28mm	24mm	27mm
21	1SVIw	Klebsiella.pneumonia	25mm	27mm	21mm	23mm
22	1P	P. aeruginosa	26mm	26mm	22mm	20mm
23	CKIV	Pseudomonas.aeruginosa	19mm	21mm	15mm	16mm
24	1SX	Pseudomonas.aeruginosa	25mm	28mm	29mm	29mm
25	13a	Pseudomonas.aeruginosa	17mm	18mm	20mm	22mm
26	PUSND1L	Shigella.boydii				
27	PUSND1S	Shigella.boydii	36mm	35mm	30mm	29mm
28	Navdeep	Shigella.boydii	25mm	20mm	28mm	22mm
29	1SIII	Shigella.boydii	24mm	20mm	19mm	18mm
30	NARANLL	Proteus.mirabilus	22mm	23mm	22mm	12mm
31	1SI	Proteus.mirabilus	25mm	26mm	29mm	25mm
32	1SVIR	Proteus.mirabilus	24mm	26mm	25mm	21mm
33	1NLFL	unk				
34	1NLFS	unk				
35	PUSND2S	unk				
36	CRIKI''	unk	15mm	15mm	14mm	17mm
37	CRIKIII''W	unk	5mm	5mm	5mm	5mm
38	CRIKII''	unk	20mm	21mm	16mm	15mm
39	CRIKI'	unk	17mm	15mm	11mm	14mm
40	CRIKII'	unk	21mm	17mm	18mm	16mm
41	Pus 3s	unk	22mm	23mm	24mm	22mm
42	1SII	unk	24mm	24mm	26mm	24mm
43	NARANLS	unk	5mm	5mm	5mm	17mm
44	321ill	E.coli	16mm	19mm	21mm	0mm
45	321il	Unk	12mm	16mm	15mm	0mm
46	321iil	E.coli	17mm	18mm	15mm	0mm
47	321iill	E.coli	15mm	12mm	18mm	0mm
48	344iiIII	E.coli	19mm	24mm	20mm	0mm
49	276iill	E.coli	14mm	20mm	15mm	0mm
50	275iill	E.coli	20mm	22mm	20mm	0mm

51	278ii	E.coli	15mm	20mm	21mm	0mm
52	299i	E.coli	14mm	16mm	14mm	0mm
53	344iil	E.coli	20mm	21mm	13mm	0mm
54	379iill	Citrobacter spp.	25mm	24mm	15mm	0mm
55	276iil	E.coli	26mm	27mm	26mm	26mm
56	299ii	E.coli	20mm	22mm	9mm	10mm
57	275i	E.coli	16mm	17mm	14mm	0mm
58	344ill	E.coli	17mm	22mm	25mm	0mm
59	379i	E.coli	15mm	21mm	19mm	0mm
60	275iil	E.coli	0mm	20mm	20mm	20mm
61	344il	E.coli	19mm	20mm	16mm	9mm
62	276i	E.coli	18mm	15mm	15mm	0mm
63	379iill	E.coli	26mm	27mm	0mm	25mm
64	321iiIII	Unk	12mm	18mm	18mm	0mm
65	369X	E.coli	11mm	14mm	12mm	0mm
66	369E	E.coli	15mm	17mm	16mm	0mm
67	278X	E.coli	12mm	15mm	13mm	0mm
68	329X	klebsiella	12mm	16mm	12mm	0mm
69	329E	E.coli	13mm	20mm	16mm	0mm
70	322X I	Shigella	25mm	21mm	20mm	19mm
71	322X II	unk	24mm	20mm	18mm	16mm
72	322X III	Unk	26mm	24mm	21mm	16mm
73	322 E II	E.coli	14mm	18mm	15mm	0mm