



Isolation and Characterization of Multi drug resistant bacteria from Chidambaram GH, Cuddalore, Tamil Nadu, India

Priyalaxmi Rajesh^{1*}, Sumathi²

^{1,2} Department of Microbiology, Annamalai University, Chidambaram, Cuddalore, Tamil Nadu, India

Abstract

Antibiotic resistance is one of the biggest threats to global health, food security, and development today. Thus, the study was primarily carried out to investigate the presence of multi drug resistant bacteria in different sites like dressing materials, OT table, air, floor, labour wards, bed sheets and instruments of the Operation Theater, etc. of hospital collected from Chidambaram Government Hospital, Cuddalore, Tamil Nadu, India. Antibiotic resistant bacteria were identified by Kirby Bauer diffusion technique and are categorized as sensitive or resistant based on the zone of inhibition of antibiotics. 48 bacterial strains were selected and found *Pseudomonas* was the predominant organism in Chidambaram GH. 7 strains were found to exhibit antibiotic resistance. Among them, 2 strains were found to be multidrug resistant and were identified as *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (Resistant to amoxicillin, streptomycin, kanamycin and Norfloxacin) and *Klebsiella pneumonia* (Resistant to amoxicillin, streptomycin, kanamycin and gentamicin). Thus, Antibiotic resistance is accelerated by the misuse and overuse of antibiotics, as well as poor infection prevention and control. Steps should be taken to reduce the impact and limit the spread of resistance.

Keywords: Antibiotic resistance, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Klebsiella pneumonia*

1. Introduction

Antimicrobial resistance is a major public health crisis, eroding the discovery of antimicrobials and their application to clinical medicine^[9]. Antibiotics exert a selection in favor of resistant bacteria by killing or inhibiting growth of susceptible bacteria. Resistant bacteria can adapt to environmental conditions and serve as vector for the spread of antibiotic resistance. Resistance may compromise treatment, leading to increased mortality, extended hospital stays and greater healthcare costs^[38]. Hence, the World Health Organization (WHO) called the year 2011, year of 'Antibiotic Resistance'^[12].

Involvement of primary healthcare is particularly important as this is where almost 80% of all antibiotics used within the health service are prescribed^[4, 16]. As reported, post operative infections in hospitals were mainly due to the presence of contamination of medical equipment, environmental surfaces, air and hands of health personnel^[28]. Drug-resistant strains initially appeared in hospitals, where most antibiotics were being used^[17].

Indiscriminate use of antibiotics for medical purposes has taken the brunt of the blame, namely, use by those physicians who prescribe antibiotics for viral infections to make their patients feel comfortable when antibiotics are known to be useless against viruses. In fact, all antibiotic use, whether medical, agricultural, and necessary or not, leads to increased resistance^[15]. Diseases and disease agents that were once thought to be controlled by antibiotics are returning in new leagues resistant to these therapies^[2, 17, 19]. Various microorganisms have survived for thousands of years by their ability to adapt to antimicrobial agents. They do so via spontaneous mutation or by DNA transfer. This process enables some bacteria to oppose the assault of certain antibiotics, rendering the antibiotics ineffective^[13, 14].

Transmission of resistance in the hospital can occur via horizontal gene transfer between strains of bacteria that are either infectious or commensal^[23]. It can also occur via transfer of bacteria between individuals, both patients and health care workers, through either direct or indirect contact^[33]. Some microorganisms that are important causes of infection in humans, such as gram negative bacilli (GNB) that include *Enterobacter* spp. and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, are able to survive for long periods of time in the environment, thus contributing to the selection of resistant pathogens disseminated in the environment, as well as in hospitals, industry and veterinary facilities. These natural reservoirs of resistant genes may contribute to the appearance of resistant bacteria due to gene transfer mechanisms^[6, 10, 35].

Practice of self medication was also a problem^[1] wherein injection and antibiotic use of the hospital is to the standard of WHO limit^[3]. It is believed that, these factors may serve as a selective pressure and contribute to the increase drug resistant strains in hospital environment^[28].

For the increase cause of such infection in hospitals, at least two mechanisms have been documented. First, antimicrobial resistant flora may be endemic within the institution and may be transferred to the patient within the hospital setting. Second, a small population of antimicrobial-resistant bacteria that are a part of patient's endogenous flora at the time of hospitalization may emerge under the selective pressure of antibiotics and become the dominant flora^[17].

The success of a hospital-centered effort to reduce antibiotic resistance depends on whether antibiotic resistance is actually evolving in hospitals. Thus, the study was primarily carried out to investigate the presence of antibiotic resistant bacteria in different sites of hospital collected from Chidambaram Government Hospital, Cuddalore, Tamil Nadu, India.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Sampling Locations and Collection

This study was conducted in the different objects of hospital environment like dressing materials, OT table, air, floor of the OT, labour wards, bed sheets and instruments of the operation theater, suction tube, tap water, boiled water collected from Chidambaram Government Hospital, Cuddalore, Tamil Nadu, India, using sterile cotton swab. They were inoculated aseptically into sterile nutrient broth as transport medium and were transported to the laboratory within 24h for analysis.

2.2 Isolation of Bacteria

Samples were processed within 24hrs of collection. 1ml of the sample was mixed with 9 ml of sterile distilled water that representing 10⁻¹ dilution and then it was serially diluted up to 10⁻¹⁰ dilution. Conventional pour plate technique was carried out for the isolation of bacterial using sterile nutrient agar with triplicates. After 48 hours of incubation at room temperature, different morphology colonies were selected and subcultured and stored at 4°C for further use.

2.3 Grouping of Bacteria

All the bacterial isolates thus obtained were differentiated using selective and differential media such as Mannitol salt agar (MSA) for *Staphylococci*, MacConkey's agar for *Salmonella* and *Shigella* strains, Eosin methylene blue agar (EMB) for *E. coli*, *Pseudomonas* Isolation agar for *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, Xylose lysine deoxycholate agar (XLD) for *Salmonella* and *Shigella*, *Proteus* and *Klebsiella* strains and Thiosulfate-citrate-bile salts-sucrose agar (TCBS) Agar for *Vibrio* sp.

2.4 Isolation of Antibiotic resistant bacteria

Only the conventional antibiotics regularly available for frequent use were considered for the study. The Kirby-Bauer disc diffusion technique was employed to determine the antibiotic susceptibility pattern of the isolates to the selected antibiotics such as 1.)Amoxicillin, 2.)Streptomycin, 3.)Kanamycin, 4.)Tetracycline, 5.)Chloramphenicol, 6.)Norfloxacin, 7.)Methicillin, 8.)Gentamicin and 9.)Erythromycin.

2.5 Standardization of inoculums

Pure colonies of each isolate on a 24h plate culture were randomly selected and inoculated into 2 ml of sterile peptone water broth. This was incubated at 37°C for 6hrs. 1mL of the bacteria suspension was transferred into a well dried surface of Muller-hinton agar medium and spread evenly over the entire surface of the agar plate. The antibiotic discs were then placed on the surface of the inoculated plate and incubated aerobically at 37°C for 18 to 24 h (over-night). The diameter of the zone of inhibition was measured in millimeter. The result of each antimicrobial agent tested was reported as susceptible or resistant.

2.6 Identification of Multi drug resistant bacteria:

Multi drug resistant bacteria were identified by studying their cultural and morphological features from the results of Gram staining reaction and biochemical tests such as indole, methyl red test, voges proskeur, citrate, urease, oxidase, carbohydrates fermentation and gas production, catalase etc

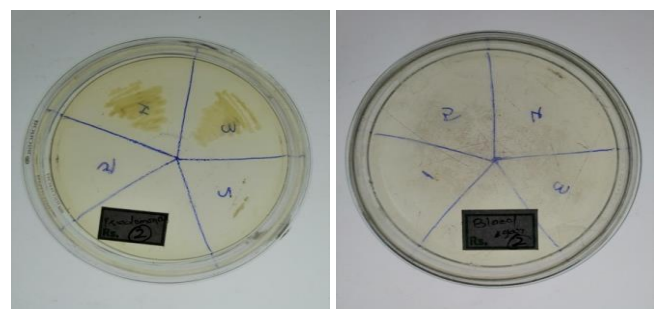
following Bergey's manual of Bacteriological classification [25].

3. Result

Isolation of bacteria from different sites (dressing materials, OT table, air, floor of the OT, labour wards, bed sheets and instruments of the operation theater, suction tube, tap water, boiled water) of hospital environments were done. From them, 48 different bacterial isolates were characterized by their growth on differential media, *Klebsiella* (1-7), *Pseudomonas* (8-22), *Enterobacter* (23-27), *E.coli* (28-33), *Vibrio* (34-37), *Staphylococcus* (38-43), *Salmonella* (44- 46) and *Shigella* (47,48)(Table 1). Among them, 41 isolates were found to be non antibiotic resistant strain and 7 strains are highly resistant to selected antibiotics. Kb-7 shows resistance to amoxicillin, streptomycin, kanamycin and gentamicin. Pd-18 shows resistance to amoxicillin, streptomycin, kanamycin and Norfloxacin. Eb-23 shows resistance to amoxicillin, erythromycin. Ec-32 shows resistance only to amoxicillin, Vb-34 shows resistance to amoxicillin and tetracycline, Vb-35 shows resistance only to amoxicillin, St-38 shows resistance to amoxicillin and methicillin. From them, Kb-7 and Pd-18 were selected based on their multidrug resistant level. They were further characterized and identified using Bergey's manual of Bacteriological classification [25].

Table 1: Organisms isolated from different objects in hospital environment

Organisms	Frequency of isolates	Sources
<i>Klebsiella</i>	7	OT air, table, floor
<i>Pseudomonas</i>	15	OT air, table, boiled water
<i>E.coli</i>	6	Floor, suction tube, labour ward
<i>Vibrio</i>	4	Dressing materials, bedsheets, tap water
<i>Staphylococcus</i>	6	OT air, table, floor
<i>Enterobacter</i>	5	Floor, suction tube, labor ward
<i>Salmonella</i>	3	Tap water, floor
<i>Shigella</i>	2	Tap water, floor



Pseudomonas Isolation agar



MacConkey agar

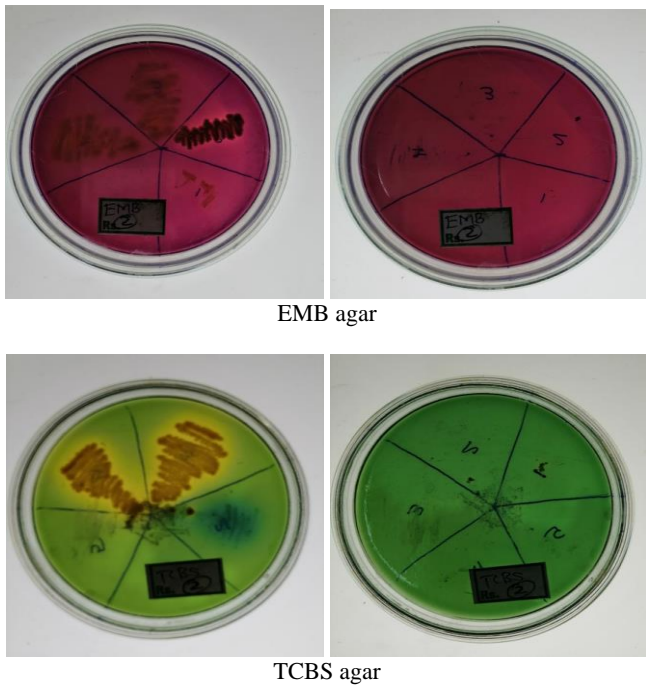


Fig 1: Grouping of bacteria

Table 2: Selection of Antibiotic Resistant strain

Organism	Resistant Starin	Antibiotics
<i>Klebsiella</i> (1-7)	Kb-7	Amoxicillin, Streptomycin, Kanamycin, Gentamicin
<i>Pseudomonas</i> (8-22)	Pd-18	Amoxicillin, Streptomycin, Kanamycin, Norfloxacin
<i>Enterobacter</i> (23-27)	Eb-23	Amoxicillin, Erythromycin
<i>E.coli</i> (28-33)	Ec-32	Amoxicillin
<i>Vibrio</i> (34-37)	Vb-34 Vb-35	Amoxicillin, Tetracycline Amoxicillin
<i>Staphylococcus</i> (38-43)	St-38	Amoxicillin, Methicillin
<i>Salmonella</i> (44- 46)	-	-
<i>Shigella</i> (47,48)	-	-

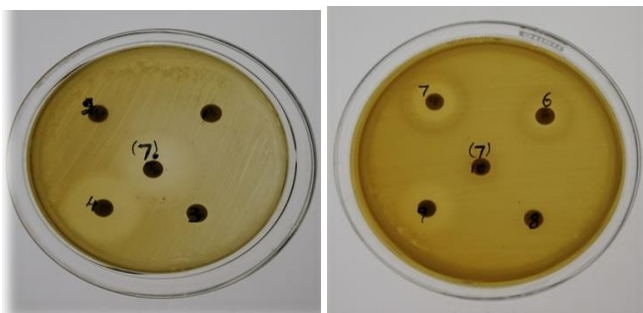


Fig 2: Plate showing *Klebsiella pneumoniae* resistant to Amoxicillin, Streptomycin, Kanamycin and Gentamicin

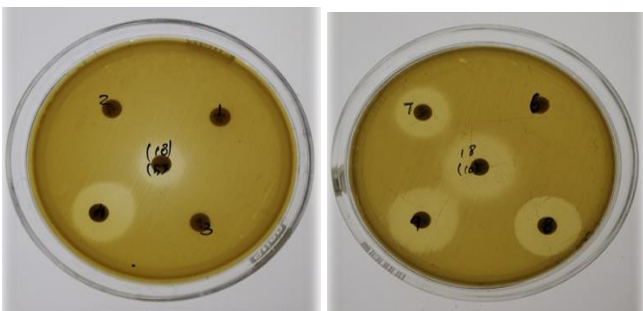


Fig 3: Plate showing *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* resistant to Amoxicillin, Streptomycin, Kanamycin and Norfloxacin

Table 3: Identification of Multi drug resistant bacterial strains

Biochemical Test	<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i> Kb- 7	<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> Pd-18
Gram staining	Gram negative	Gram negative
Motility	Non-motile	Motile
Indole test	-	-
Methyl red	-	-
Voges proskeur test	+	-
Citrate utilization test	+	+
Urease test	+	-
Oxidasetest	+	+
Carbohydrate fermentation	-	-
Gas production	+/-	-
Catalase test	+	+

4. Discussion

Antibiotic resistance is now being recognized as a worldwide crisis in modern medicine. Infections caused by these strains are often associated with high mortality rates, prolonged hospitalization and costs [21]. In the context of antibiotic resistance, a ‘successful’ bacterial strain should be an extremely effective vehicle for the dissemination of antibiotic resistance traits [32].

In the present study, an attempt was made to explore the pattern of antibiotic resistant organisms responsible for hospital acquired infection in Chidambaram Government Hospital, Cuddalore, Tamil Nadu, India.

Isolation of different organisms from different objects of the hospital environment was done. From them, *Pseudomonas sp* was the major isolate from the OT air, table, boiled water and second major was *Klebsiella sp* from the OT air, table, floor. The isolated organism from the possible source showed a wide range of resistance to antibiotics used in the hospital.

The high rate of antibiotic resistance of isolated organism in our study might be due to wide spread use of antibiotics in hospitals [29]. WHO agreed on grouping the pathogens according to the species and the type of resistance and then stratifying the results in three priority tiers: critical, high and medium. Among them, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Klebsiella pneumoniae* are placed under the first priority critical group [22].

β-lactam antibiotics (beta-lactam antibiotics) are a class of antibiotic that includes penicillin derivatives, cephalosporin, monobactam, and carbapenem. Amoxicillin is a penicillin antibiotic that fights bacteria in the body. Amoxicillin in combination used to treat many different infections caused by bacteria, such as sinusitis, pneumonia, ear infections, bronchitis, urinary tract infections, and infections of the skin. It acts by inhibiting the synthesis of the peptidoglycan layer of bacterial cellwall.

The aminoglycoside class of antibiotics consists of many different agents. They are kanamycin, gentamicin, tobramycin, amikacin, plazomicin, streptomycin, neomycin, and paromomycin, which are approved by the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and are available for clinical use. The most common clinical application (either alone or as part of combination therapy) of the aminoglycosides is for the treatment of serious infections caused by aerobic gram-negative bacilli. While less common, aminoglycosides (in combination with other agents) have also been used for the treatment of select gram-positive infections. The

aminoglycosides primarily act by binding to the aminoacyl site of 16S ribosomal RNA within the 30S ribosomal subunit, leading to misreading of the genetic code and inhibition of translocation. The initial steps required for peptide synthesis, such as binding of mRNA and the association of the 50S ribosomal subunit, are uninterrupted, but elongation fails to occur due to disruption of the mechanisms for ensuring translational accuracy.

Quinolone group of drugs include nalidixic acid, cinoxacin, norfloxacin, ofloxacin, ciprofloxacin, levofloxacin, etc. They are effective against both Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria. Quinolones exert their antibacterial effect by preventing bacterial DNA from unwinding and duplicating. Specifically they inhibit the ligase activity of the type II topoisomerases, gyrase and topoisomerase IV which cut DNA in order to introduce supercoiling and with their ligase activity disrupted release DNA with single and double strand breaks which lead to cell death. For many gram-negative bacteria, DNA gyrase is the target, whereas topoisomerase IV is the target for many gram-positive bacteria.

Pseudomonas aeruginosa is a major cause of nosocomial infection is responsible for 10% of all hospital-acquired infections [5, 31]. It is the second most common causative agent of nosocomial infections [18]. But, in the present study, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is the first main causative agent of nosocomial infection in Chidambaram GH, Cuddalore, Tamil Nadu, India. It is problematic because of its natural resistance to many drug families and its ability to develop resistance to further agents [37]. Reported rates of resistance vary greatly with period, location and type of isolates. However, almost all the single-site time course studies indicate a steady increase in resistance to antipseudomonal drugs. Worrying rates of MDR *P. aeruginosa* have been reported from the Kingdom, including strains with carbapenemases as well as ESBLs [38].

Nowadays, the prevalence of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and the new resistant strains continue in both community-acquired pathogens and hospital originated infections. Previous studies suggest that the selective pressure from the use of antimicrobial agents is a major determinant for the emergence of resistant strains [30]. One of the significant resistant groups detected against aminoglycosides was *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. In various studies, it was reported that increased resistance rates have been detected against carbapenems, quinolones and third-generation cephalosporins for *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* worldwide [24, 34].

A resistance rate of 31.5% by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* was found for norfloxacin in one study [38]. Taking MDR as resistance to more than 3 classes of antibiotics, it was found the trait in 1–2% of inpatient isolates from the Dhahran region but in none of the outpatient strains [7]. A study from Riyadh found multiresistance in 3 and 2% of isolates collected in 2004 and 2005, respectively [11]. More recently, multidrug resistance in 21% of *P. aeruginosa* was found from an ICU in Riyadh in 2009 [36].

Klebsiella pneumoniae is a natural inhabitant of the gastrointestinal tract microbiome of healthy human and animals. It is a common opportunistic hospital-associated pathogen, accounting for about one third of all Gram-negative infections overall. Data retrieved from the European Antimicrobial Resistance Surveillance Network, shows non-susceptible rates for *K. pneumoniae* and *Escherichia coli*, against the four major antibiotic classes:

the third-generation cephalosporins, aminoglycosides, fluoroquinolones and carbapenems [32].

Present study reports that the *Klebsiella pneumoniae* is resistant to amoxicillin, streptomycin, kanamycin and gentamycin. Older studies suggest that up to 63 and 33%, of *Klebsiella* are now resistant to amikacin, gentamicin, and tobramycin respectively [8, 36]. Similar to the present finding, *Klebsiella pneumoniae* was found to resistant to ampicillin, tetracycline, streptomycin, gentamicin and kanamycin in previous report [26]. Resistance of gram-negative aerobic bacteria to aminoglycoside antibiotics differs according to region and country [37]. Clinical isolates of *K. pneumoniae* are generally resistant to a wider range of antibiotics, and virtually always naturally resistance to ampicillin and amoxicillin [27]. In most Indian studies *Klebsiella sp.*, occupies second place. However in the present study also they were to be the second common pathogen in causing hospital acquired infection. It can spread rapidly between patients in healthcare settings and is a frequent cause of hospital outbreaks [20].

Effective antibiotic stewardship in both clinical and community settings is important to reduce selective pressure, and to slow or prevent the proliferation of resistant strains. Further actions to ensure the strict implementation of the already existing legislation to prohibit the sale of antibiotics without prescription in the Kingdom are needed. Thirdly, strict infection control measures should also help to slow the spread of resistant Gram negative pathogens in hospitals [38].

5. Conclusion

From the current study, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* was found to be the major causative agent of hospital acquired infection in Chidambaram GH, Cuddalore, Tamil Nadu, India. *Klebsiella pneumoniae* was found to be the second top organism responsible for hospital acquired infection. Thus, a strict infection control measure has to be developed to control the spread of pathogens in hospitals.

6. Reference

1. Abay SM, Amelo W. Assessment of self medication practices among medical, pharmacy, and health science students in Gondar University Ethiopia. *Journal Young Pharmacist*. 2010; 2(3):306-310.
2. Adegoke, Anthony A, Tom Mvuyo, Okoh Anthony, Jacob Steve. Studies on multiple antibiotic resistant bacteria isolated from surgical site infection. *Scientific Research and Essays*. 2010; 5(24):3876-3881.
3. Admassie E, Begashaw B, Hailu W. Assessment of drug use practices and completeness of prescriptions in Gondar teaching referral hospital. *International Journal of Pharmaceutical Science and Research*. 2013; 4(1):265-275.
4. Alavudeen SS, Vigneshwaran E, Asiri SAA, Alahmari MHA, Mohammed MA, Algahtani T, *et al*. Distribution of multi-resistant bacterial isolates from clinical specimens in a hospital environment of Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. *Journal of Young Pharmacist*. 2017; 9(3):347-351.
5. Aloush V, Navon-Venezia S, Seigman-Igra Y, Cabili S, Carmeli Y. Multidrug-Resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*: Risk Factors and Clinical Impact. *Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy*. 2006; 50(1):43-48.

6. Alp E, Güven M, Yildiz O, Aygen B, Voss A, Doganay M. Incidence, risk factors and mortality of nosocomial pneumonia in intensive care units: a prospective study. *Annals of Clinical Microbiology and Antimicrobials*. 2004; 3(17):1-7.
7. Al-Tawfiq JA. Occurrence and antimicrobial resistance pattern of inpatient and outpatient isolates of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in a Saudi Arabian hospital: 1998–2003. *International Journal of Infectious Diseases*. 2007; 11:109-14.
8. Al-Tawfiq JA, Abed MS. Prevalence and antimicrobial resistance of health care associated bloodstream infections at a general hospital in Saudi Arabia. *Saudi Medical Journal*. 2009; 30:1213-8.
9. Asad Ud-Daula, Abdur Rakib, Hafizur Rahman Md, Sabir Hossain Md, Ibrahim Hossain Md, Fuad Hossain Md, *et al.* Isolation and characterization of antibiotic resistance bacteria in Hospital Effluents. *Journal of Planning Education and Research*. 2013; 4(1):10-18.
10. Ash RJ, Mauck B, Morgan M. Antibiotic resistance of gram-negative bacteria in rivers, United States. *Emerging Infectious Diseases*. 2002; 8:713-6.
11. Babay HA. Antimicrobial resistance among clinical isolates of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* from patients in a teaching hospital, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, 2001–2005. *Japanese Journal of Infectious Diseases*. 2007; 60:123-5.
12. Badamchi A, Farahani RK, Naghadalipoor M, Etemadi MR, Tabatabaie A. Phenotypic and genotypic characterization of antibiotic resistance in *Klebsiella pneumoniae* isolated from patients admitted to a third-level hospital in Tehran, Iran. *Current Pediatric Research*. 2018; 22(3):258-262.
13. Bennett PM. Plasmid encoded antibiotic resistance: acquisition and transfer of antibiotic resistance genes in bacteria. *British Journal of Pharmacology*. 2008; 153:347-357.
14. Bhaumik VP, Purav GP, Payal NR, Mitesh HP, Piyush HP, Mahendra MV. Bacteriological profile and antibiogram of gram negative organisms isolated from medical and neurology intensive care unit with special reference to multi- drug resistant organisms. *National Journal of Medical Research*. 2012; 2(3):335-338.
15. Bolaji AS, Akande IO, Iromini FA, Adewoye SO, Ogasola OA. Antibiotic resistance pattern of bacteria spp isolated from hospital waste water in Ede South Western, Nigeria. *European Journal of Experimental Biology*. 2011; (4):66-71.
16. Bryce A, Hay AD, Lane IF, Thornton HV, Wootton M, Costelloe C. Global prevalence of antibiotic resistance in paediatric urinary tract infections caused by *Escherichia coli* and association with routine use of antibiotics in primary care: systematic review and meta-analysis. *British Medical Journal*. 2016; 15:352:i939.
17. Chandan P, Mishra RP, Ali Asif, Gangwar VS, Chand Shweta. Isolation and characterization of multi drug resistant super pathogens from soil samples collected from hospitals. *Research Journal of Recent Sciences*. 2013; 2:124-129.
18. Dastidar MG, Razia M. Isolation of multiple drug resistant (MDR) bacteria from hospital Environment. *International Journal of Current Microbiology and Applied Sciences*. 2016; 5(7):48-53.
19. Dharmadhikari SM, Peshwe SA. Molecular level studies on multiple and serum resistant in UTI pathogen. *Indian Journal of biotechnology*. 2009; 8:40-45.
20. ECDC. Summary of the latest data on antibiotic resistance in the European Union Summary of the latest data on antibiotic resistance in the European Union. 1-8.
21. Giske CG, Monnet DL, Cars O, Carmeli Y. Clinical and economic impact of common multidrug-resistant gram-negative bacilli. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy*. 2008; 52:813-21.
22. (GPL) Global priority list of antibiotic-resistant bacteria to guide research, discovery, and development of new antibiotics - World Health Organization.
23. Hamidian M, Hall RM. Resistance to third-generation cephalosporins in *Acinetobacter baumannii* due to horizontal transfer of a chromosomal segment containing ISAbal-ampC. *Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy*. 2014; 69(10):2865-2866.
24. Hancock REW. Resistance mechanism in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and other nonfermentative gram-negative bacteria. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*. 1998; 27:289-99.
25. Holt JG. Identification of unknown bacteria. In *Bergey's Manual of Determinative Bacteriology* (9th Ed), Williams & Wilkins, Baltimore, USA, 1994; 1-799.
26. Kim S, Wei C, Tzou Y, An H. Multidrug-Resistant *Klebsiella pneumoniae* isolated from farm environments and retail products in Oklahoma. *Journal of Food Protection*. 2005; 68(10):2022-2029.
27. Manikandan C, Amsath A. Antibiotic susceptibility pattern of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* isolated from urine samples. *International Journal of Current Microbiology and Applied Sciences*. 2013; 2(8):330-337.
28. Moges F, Endris M, Belyhun Y, Worku W. Isolation of multi drug resistant bacterial pathogens from waste water in hospital and non hospital environments, Northwest Ethiopia. *BMC Research Notes*. 2014; 7(215):1-6.
29. Mohiuddin MD, Ashraful Haq J, Mozammel Hoq MD, Farida Huq. Microbiology of nosocomial infection in tertiary hospitals of Dhaka city and its impact. *Bangladesh Journal of Medical Microbiology*. 2010; 04(02):32-38.
30. Nathwani D. Sequential switch therapy for lower respiratory tract infections: A European perspective. *Chest*. 1998; 113:211-218.
31. NNIS National Nosocomial Infection Surveillance System. National Nosocomial Infection Surveillance (NNIS) System report, data summary from January 1992 through June 2004, issued October 2004. *American Journal of Infection Control*; 32:470–485.
32. Navon-Venezia S, Kondratyeva K, Carattoli A. *Klebsiella pneumoniae*: a major worldwide source and shuttle for antibiotic resistance. *FEMS Microbiology Reviews*. 2017; 41(3):252-275.
33. Prakash R, Veena K, Ramyasree A. Antibiotic Resistance in Non-humans and its Impact on Human Health. *Journal of International Medicine and Dentistry* 2014; 1(2):59-69.
34. Quinn JP. Clinical problems posed by multiresistant nonfermenting gram-negative pathogens. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*. 1998; 27:1174.
35. Resende ACB, Soares RBA, Dos Santos DB,

- Montalvão ER, Filho JRD. Detection of antimicrobial-resistant gram-negative bacteria in hospital effluents and in the sewage treatment station of Goiânia, Brazil. *O Mund O da Saúde*, São Paulo: 2009; 33(4):385-391.
36. Saeed NK, Kambal AM, El-Khizzi NA. Antimicrobial-resistant bacteria in a general intensive care unit in Saudi Arabia. *Saudi Medical Journal*. 2010; 31:1341-9.
37. Savaş L, Duran N, Savaş N, Önlü Y, Ocak S. The Prevalence and Resistance Patterns of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in Intensive Care Units in a University Hospital. *Turkish Journal of Medical Sciences*. 2005; 35:317-322.
38. Yezli S, Shibl AM, Livermore DM, Memish ZA. Prevalence and antimicrobial resistance among Gram-negative pathogens in Saudi Arabia. *Journal of Chemotherapy (Florence, Italy)* 2014; 26(5):257-72.