

Microbial Profile and Antibiotic Resistance Pattern of The Bacterial Isolates**Harishankar Kumar**

Assistant Professor, Department of Microbiology, Lord Budha Medical College, Saharsha, Bihar, India

Received: 02-07-2025 / Revised: 01-08-2025 / Accepted: 02-09-2025

Corresponding Author: Dr. Harishankar Kumar

Conflict of interest: Nil

Abstract:**Objectives:** The present study was to evaluate the microbial profile and antibiotic resistance pattern of the bacterial isolates at tertiary care centre.**Methods:** All the bacterial isolates of interest were subjected to antibiotic susceptibility testing to different antibacterial agents by standard Kirby-Bauer disc diffusion method using commercially available discs (Hi-media, Mumbai, India) as per Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) guidelines. The quality control of the antibiotic discs was done by using ATCC strains of E Coli 25922 and S. aureus 25923. The MDR categorizations were done.**Results:** The most frequently encountered isolates from all samples were E. coli (45.71%), Streptococcus spp. (20%), Staphylococcus aureus (17.14%), Citrobacter spp. (2.86%), Klebsiella spp. (2.86%), Pseudomonas aeruginosa (5.71%), Moraxella catarrhalis (2.86%) and Micrococcus spp. (2.86%). MDR accounted for 82.86% of the total bacterial isolates, higher among the Gram negatives (37.93%) compared to Gram positives (62.07%). Mono drug resistant was seen in 9.52% gram negative and gram-positive bacteria.**Conclusions:** Multidrug resistance is greater in bacterial isolates. Most isolates are Escherichia coli. Multi drug resistance is more common in gram negative bacteria. Hence, drug resistances are higher due to misuse of antibiotics, over-prescription, self-medication, and over-the-counter sales, the absence of standardized guidelines for antibiotic usage and poor sanitation and hygiene. So that, we should organise health check-up camp time to time in community for awareness of the misuse of antibiotics and drug resistance.**Keywords:** Bacterial isolates, Miss use of antibiotics, Multi Drug Resistance.

This is an Open Access article that uses a funding model which does not charge readers or their institutions for access and distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>) and the Budapest Open Access Initiative (<http://www.budapestopenaccessinitiative.org/read>), which permit unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided original work is properly credited.

Introduction

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is a global health and development threat that emerged as one of the major public health problems of the 21st century and warns against the effective prevention and treatment of an ever-increasing range of infections [1]. It has been noted over many decades that bacteria causing common or severe infections have developed resistance to every new antibiotic entering the market [2, 1].

The World Health Organisation (WHO) has recognized for a long time that a better, more coordinated global effort is required to combat AMR. In 2001, the WHO Global Strategy for Containment of Antimicrobial Resistance provided an agenda of interferences to slow the emergence and reduce the distribution of antimicrobial-resistant microorganisms [3]. In 2012, WHO published 'The Evolving Threat of Antimicrobial Resistance: Options for Action' [4], proposing a combination of interventions that include strengthening health systems and surveillance, improving the use of antimicrobials in hospitals and the community,

infection prevention and control, encouraging the development of appropriate new drugs and vaccines, and political commitment [4].

WHO has published a global list of antibiotic-resistant bacteria [5] to prioritize research and development of new antibiotic treatments. Among those top human pathogens, methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA), now endemic in the community, presents critical therapeutic difficulties due to its high adaptability [6, 7]. In Latin America, 45% of the S. aureus isolates from nine countries collected in 2011 – 2014 showed methicillin resistance, but with important regional variations. Those same isolates exhibited high rates of resistance to other commonly-used antibiotics [8].

Other important pathogens on the WHO list are the Enterobacteriaceae family and Pseudomonas aeruginosa. In a study published in 2017, members of the Enterobacteriaceae family showed a high prevalence of production of extended spectrum β -lactamase (ESBL) enzymes in Latin America and

the Caribbean, especially *Escherichia coli* and *Klebsiella* spp. [9]. Additionally, 26% of the *P. aeruginosa* isolates exhibited a multidrug-resistant (MDR) phenotype [9]. A short report published recently analyzed resistance patterns of microorganisms isolated from pediatric patients in DR [10]. It reported that 50% of the gram-negative bacteria were resistant to at least one third-generation cephalosporin; 17% to one or more carbapenem drugs; and for *S. aureus* isolates, 58% were resistant to methicillin [10]. Objectives of our study was to evaluate the microbial profile and antibiotic resistance pattern of the bacterial isolates at tertiary care centre.

Material & Methods

The present study was conducted in the Department of Microbiology, Lord Budha Medical College, Saharsha, Bihar during a period from January 2025 to May 2025.

Study Design and Collection of Specimen: A total of 145 clinical specimens including post operative swab, throat swab, vaginal swab, sputum, pus, stool, urine and wound swab samples were processed.

Isolation and Identification of Microorganisms:

For isolation of desired pathogens, all the specimens were inoculated on the MacConkey agar, blood agar, chocolate agar, and mannitol salt agar media plates, followed by overnight incubation at 37°C. Chocolate agar plates were incubated in CO₂. Identification of the bacteria of interest was performed by series of biochemical tests following standard methods including the triple sugar iron agar (TSI) test, indole motility test, citrate utilization test, catalase test, oxidase test, coagulase test etc [11].

Assay of Bacterial Antibiotic Susceptibility

Pattern: All the bacterial isolates of interest were subjected to antibiotic susceptibility testing to different antibacterial agents by standard Kirby-Bauer disc diffusion method [12] using commercially available discs (Hi-media, Mumbai, India) as per Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) guidelines [13]. The quality control of the antibiotic discs was done by using ATCC strains of *E. coli* 25922 and *S. aureus* 25923. The MDR categorizations were done based on the interim standard proposed by Magiorakos et al. [14]. The antibiotics tested were as classified in table 1.

Table 1: Showing the classification of antimicrobial agents.

Name of the Group	Name of the antimicrobials
Cephalosporins	Cefuroxime (30 µg), Cefotaxime (30µg), Cefpodoxime (10µg), Ceftriaxone (30µg), Cefixime (5 µg), Cephalexin (30 µg), Ceftriaxone/sulbactam (45µg)
Aminoglycosides	Amikacin(30µg), Gentamicin(10µg).
Fluoroquinolones	Ciprofloxacin(5µg), Levofloxacin(5µg), Prulifloxacin(5µg), Ofloxacin(5µg)
Penicillins	Amoxycillin/clavulunate(30 µg), Amoxycillin (10µg), Ampicillin/sulbactam(20µg), Ampicillin(10µg), Piperacillin/tazobactam(110µg), Oxacillin (1µg)
Carbapenems	Imipenem(10µg)
Macrolides	Azithromycin(15µg), Erythromycin(15µg)
Lincosamides	Clindamycin(2µg)
Nitrofurans	Nitrofurantoin(300µg)
Sulphonamides	Cotrimoxazole(25µg)

Statistical Analysis: Data was analysed using MS-Office software. All data was tabulated and percentages were calculated.

Results

A total of 145 samples were received of which urine specimens (n=123) accounted for the highest in number followed by sputum (n=3), throat swab

(n=4), pus (n=1), wound swab (n=1), post operative wound swab (n=1), vaginal swab (n=2).

Microbial Growth Status of the Samples: Of total 145 samples 90 samples showed no growth, 12 insignificant growths, 3 mixed growths, 5 normal floras and 1 sample gave *Candida* spp. Only 35 samples gave significant bacterial growth.

Table 2: Sample Wise Distribution of Bacterial Isolates

Sample type	Klebsiella spp.	E. coli	Citrobacter spp.	P. aeruginosa	M. catarrhalis	Micrococcus spp.	Strept. spp.	S. aureus	Total
Sputum	0	0	0	0	1(33.33%)	0	2(66.67%)	0	3
Urine	1(4.17%)	16(66.66%)	1(4.17%)	2(8.34%)	0	1(4.17%)	1(4.17%)	2(8.34%)	24
Throat swab	0	0	0	0	0	0	4(100%)	0	4
Pus	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1(100%)	1
Vaginal swab	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2(100%)	2
Wound swab	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1(100%)	1
Total	1(2.85%)	16(45.71%)	1(2.85%)	2(5.71%)	1(2.85%)	1(2.85%)	7(20%)	6(17.14%)	35

Microbial profile of pathogens: The most frequently encountered isolates from all samples were E. coli (45.71%), Streptococcus spp. (20%), Staphylococcus aureus (17.14%), Citrobacter spp. (2.86%), Klebsiella spp. (2.86%), Pseudomonas aeruginosa (5.71%), Moraxella catarrhalis (2.86%)

and Micrococcus spp. (2.86%). All the isolates from throat swab and sputum samples were Streptococcus spp. except one Moraxella catarrhalis in sputum. Vaginal swab, wound swab and pus showed the growth of Staphylococcus aureus as the only predominant pathogen isolate.

Table 3: Drug resistant bacterial isolates

Organism	Multi-drug resistant (MDR)	Mono-drug resistant (MR)	Non- Resistant (NR)	Total
Klebsiella spp.	1(100%)	-	-	1(2.86%)
Escherichia coli	13(81.25%)	2(12.5%)	1(6.25%)	16(45.71%)
Citrobacter spp.	1(100%)	-	-	1(2.86%)
Pseudomonas aeruginosa	2(100%)	-	-	2(5.71%)
Moraxella catarrhalis	1(100%)	-	-	1(2.86%)
Staphylococcus aureus	3(50%)	2(33.33%)	1(16.67%)	6(17.14%)
Micrococcus spp.	1(100%)	-	-	1(2.86%)
Streptococcus spp.	7(100%)	-	-	7(20%)
Total	29(82.86%)	4(11.43%)	2(5.71%)	35(100%)

Antibiotic Resistance Patterns Among the Bacterial isolates: MDR accounted for 82.86% of the total bacterial isolates, higher among the Gram negatives (37.93%) compared to Gram positives

(62.07%). Mono drug resistant was seen in 9.52% gram negative and gram-positive bacteria. Nonresistant to drug was seen in only 4.76% gram-negative and gram-positive bacteria.

Table 4: Resistance category and the bacterial groups

Resistance Category	Bacterial Group		Total
	Gram Negative	Gram Positive	
Multi-drug resistant (MDR)	18(85.71%)	11(78.57%)	29(82.86%)
Mono-drug resistant (MR)	2(9.52%)	2(14.23%)	4(11.43%)
Non- Resistant (NR)	1(4.76%)	1(7.14%)	2(5.71%)
Total	21(60%)	14(40%)	35(100%)

Discussions

Serious infection caused mostly by gram-negative pathogens causes significant morbidity, and emerging multidrug resistance patterns increase morbidity and mortality even further, especially in

critically ill patients [15,16]. According to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, antimicrobial resistance kills over 700,000 people worldwide each year, with that figure expected to rise to 10 million by 2050 [17]. Physicians are increasingly challenged to provide their patients

with effective antibiotic regimens that do not result in further drug resistance. Antibiotic resistance is on the rise, and as a consequence, serious public health issues are arising [18, 19].

In the present study, significant bacterial growth was observed in 24.14% of the total samples received, near about similar to a recent study [20]. Resistant to at least one of the commonly used antibiotics was detected in 90.7% of the isolates which is very high figure compared to 70% as shown by a similar study in Bangladesh [21]. The overall prevalence of MDR was 83.7% against 62.8% shown by earlier report [20]. This may be due to small sample size or difference in the kind of study site.

In the present study, out of 21 gram-negative organism, MDR prevalence among enterobacteriaceae was 85.71%, nearly similar to the studies in Ethiopia (85.5%, 87.4%) [22, 23] while higher than the studies in Nepal (40.1%, 64.04%) [24, 25]. This variation in the prevalence rate could be due to increased incidence of MDR strains with time, difference in study period and study population. All the *E. coli* isolates were from urine sample constituting the majority (45.71%) among the uropathogens slightly more compared to similar study from North India (56.8%). [26]

In the present study, 81.25% *E. coli* were MDR which is similar to a study from South India (82.6%) [27].

Among 21 enterobacteriaceae isolates 1 (4.76%) was found to be carbapenem resistant, similar to other studies in India (5.4%) [28] and Bangladesh (4.8%) [29]. In the meantime, another study in India is seen to have reported carbapenem resistant prevalence rate of up to 12.9% [30]. This difference in the prevalence of carbapenem resistance enterobacteriaceae in various studies may be due to increased trends in the utilization of carbapenems and other broad-spectrum antibiotics, traditional practices, transfer of patients from the place of high incidence to another. All the two isolates of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* were found to be MDR and all isolates of *Citrobacter* spp. One isolates of *Klebsiella* spp. and *Moraxella catarrhalis* were also found to be MDR. These later findings are not in concordance with the other studies [20, 31-32] as because of small study sample, targeted patient group basically having psychiatric complaints and study period.

The incidence of Gram-positive organism was reported to be 14(40%) which is consistent with other studies that have shown the higher incidence of Gram-negative organism compared to that of Gram positive [33-34].

Out of 14 Gram positive organism *S. aureus* accounted for 42.86%, *Streptococcus* spp. 50% and *Micrococcus* spp. 7.14%, of which 78.57% of gram-

positive isolates were MDR, very huge difference in figures among the isolates compared to previous findings [35, 36]. This variation may be due to the small sample population as well as due to limited number of visits with related complaints as the study was carried out in a psychiatric setting.

The overuse of antibiotics can be due to a combination of factors, including physiological changes leading to recurrent infections and frequent exposure to multidrug resistance bacteria in long-term care facilities [37, 38]. The higher number of comorbidities among older patients causes more hospitalizations, a setting where they get exposed to multidrug-resistant bacteria [39, 40].

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is a phenomenon that occurs when different groups of microorganisms shift over a period and no longer respond to medicines that have been effective so far [41]. Although AMR is a natural process, the public health emergency due to the uncontrolled spread of this phenomenon is the consequence of overuse and/or misuse of antibiotics [42]. However, other driving factors are also mainly responsible for the increase in its prevalence. These include poor community hygiene, poor infection control in hospitals and clinics, the accumulation of antibiotics in the environment, and their use in the animal and food industries [2, 43].

Conclusions

The present study concluded that the multidrug resistance is greater in bacterial isolates. Most isolates are *Escherichia coli*. Multi drug resistance is more common in gram negative bacteria. Hence, drug resistances are higher due to misuse of antibiotics, over-prescription, self-medication, and over-the-counter sales, the absence of standardized guidelines for antibiotic usage and poor sanitation and hygiene. So that, we should organise health check-up camp time to time in community for awareness of the misuse of antibiotics and drug resistance.

References

1. Prestinaci F, Pezzotti P, Pantosti A. Antimicrobial resistance: a global multifaceted phenomenon. *Pathog Glob Health*. 2015;109: 309–18.
2. WHO. Antibiotic resistance. 31 July 2020. Available at: <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/antibiotic-resistance>. Accessed on 14 Oct 2022.
3. WHO. WHO global strategy for containment of antimicrobial resistance. World Health Organization; 2001. Available at: https://iris.who.int/bitstream/handle/10665/66860/WHO_CDS_CSR_DRS_2001.2.pdf.
4. WHO. The evolving threat of antimicrobial resistance: options for action. Geneva: World

- Health Organization; 2012. Available at: <https://iris.who.int/bitstream/handle/10665/44812/?sequence=1>.
5. Rello J, Kalwaje Eshwara V, Lagunes L, Alves J, Wunderink RG, Conway-Morris A, et al. A global priority list of the TOP Ten resistant Microorganisms (TOTEM) study at intensive care: a prioritization exercise based on multi-criteria decision analysis. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis*. 2019 Feb;38(2):319-23.
 6. Naber CK. Staphylococcus aureus Bacteremia: Epidemiology, Pathophysiology, and Management Strategies. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2009 May 15;48 Suppl 4:S231-7.
 7. Monaco M, Pimentel de Araujo F, Cruciani M, Coccia EM, Pantosti A. Worldwide epidemiology and antibiotic resistance of Staphylococcus aureus. In: *Curr Top Microbiol Immunol*. 2017;409:21-56.
 8. Arias CA, Reyes J, Carvajal LP, Rincon S, Diaz L, Panesso D, et al. A prospective cohort multicenter study of molecular epidemiology and phylogenomics of Staphylococcus aureus bacteremia in nine Latin American countries. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2017 Sep 22;61:10.
 9. Vega S, Dowzicky MJ. Antimicrobial susceptibility among Gram-positive and Gram-negative organisms collected from the Latin American region between 2004 and 2015 as part of the Tigecycline Evaluation and Surveillance Trial. *Ann Clin Microbiol Antimicrob*. 2017 Jul 12;16(1):50.
 10. de Luna D, Sanchez JJ, Lopez M, Perez M del C, Caban L, Roque Y, et al. Antibiotic resistance profile in intrahospital pediatric services at third level centers in Dominican Republic. *Infection*. 2020;24(2):66-70.
 11. Collee JG, Miles RS, Watt B. Tests for the identification of bacteria. In: Collee, J.G., Marmion, B.P., Simmons, A. (Ed.), Mackie and McCartney Practical Medical Microbiology, 14th ed, Edinburgh, Churchill Livingstone 1996: 131-45.
 12. Bauer AW, Kirby WMM, Sherris JC, Tierch M. Antibiotic susceptibility testing by a standardized single disc method. *Am J Clin Pathol*. 1966; 45(4): 493-6.
 13. Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute, Performance standards for antimicrobial susceptibility testing: sixteenth informational supplement, Wayne, PA: CLSI, 2007; M 100:S17.
 14. Magiorakos AP, Srinivasan A, Carey RB, Carmeli Y, Falagas ME, Giske CG et. al. Multidrug-resistant, extensively drug-resistant and pan-drug-resistant bacteria: an international expert proposal for interim standard definitions for acquired resistance. *Clin Microbiol Infect*. 2012; 18: 268-81.
 15. Retamar P, Portillo MM, Lopez-Prieto MD, Rodriguez-Lopez F, de Cueto M, Garcia MV, Gomez MJ, Del Arco A, Munoz A, Sanchez-Porto A, et al. Impact of inadequate empirical therapy on the mortality of patients with bloodstream infections: a propensity score-based analysis. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*. 2012;56(1):472-8.
 16. Vazin A, Shahriarirad R, Azadeh N, Parandavar N, Kazemi K, Shafiekhani M. Incidence, clinicomicrobiological characteristics, risk factors, and Treatment Outcomes of bacterial infections following liver transplantation in Pediatrics: a retrospective cohort study. *Archives of Pediatric Infectious Diseases* 2022.
 17. Where Resistance Spreads.: Across the World | CDC. [<https://www.cdc.gov/drug-resistance/across-the-world.html>].
 18. Laxminarayan R, Duse A, Wattal C, Zaidi AK, Wertheim HF, Sumpradit N, Vlieghe E, Hara GL, Gould IM, Goossens H, et al. Antibiotic resistance-the need for global solutions. *Lancet Infect Dis*. 2013;13(12):1057-98.
 19. Breijyeh Z, Jubeh B, Karaman R. Resistance of Gram-Negative Bacteria to current Antibacterial Agents and Approaches to resolve it. *Molecules*. 2020;25(6):1340.
 20. Basnet BB, Dahal RK, Karmacharya N, Rijal BP. Retrospective audit of LRTI from sputum samples with respect to Acinetobacter spp., Pseudomonas spp. and Klebsiella spp. From Tertiary care Hospital in Nepal. *Int J Med Health Sci*. 2013; 2(3): 266-74.
 21. Jilani MSA, Murshed M, Sultana L, Hasan Z. Common clinically important aerobic bacteria and their antibiotic resistance pattern of Dhaka city and its vicinity. *Bangladesh Med Coll J*. 2008; 14: 66-71.
 22. Tessema B, Kassu A, Mulu A, Yismaw G. Pridominant isolates of urinary tract pathogens and their antimicrobial susceptibility patterns in Gondar University Teaching Hospital, Northwest Ethiopia. *Ethiop Med J*. 2007; 45(1):61-7.
 23. Eshetie S, Unakal C, Gelaw A, Ayelign B, Endrij M, Moges F. Multidrug resistant and carbapenemase producing Enterobacteriaceae among patients with urinary tract infection at referral Hospital, North west Ethiopia. *Antimicrob Resist Infect Control*. 2015; 4(12): 1-8.
 24. Baral P, Neupane S, Marasini BP, Ghimire KR, Lekhak B, Shrestha B. High prevalence of multidrug resistance in bacterial uropathogens from Kathmandu, Nepal. *BMC Res Notes*. 2012; 5(1): 38.
 25. Thakur SPN, Sharma M. Prevalence of multidrug resistant Enterobacteriaceae and extended spectrum β lactamase producing

- Escherichia Coli in urinary tract infection. *Res J Pharm Biol Chem Sci.* 2013; 4(2): 1615.
26. Niranjana V, Malini A. Antimicrobial resistance pattern in Escherichia coli causing urinary tract infection among inpatients. *Indian J Med Res.* 2014; 139: 945-8.
27. Ranjini CY, Kasukurthi LR, Madhumati B, Rajendran R. Prevalence of multidrug resistance and extended spectrum beta-lactamases among uropathogenic Escherichia coli isolates in a tertiary care hospital in South India: An alarming trend. *Community Acquir Infect.* 2015; 2: 19-24.
28. Agrawal GNSS. β -lactamase Production in Uropathogens. *Indian J Bas Appl Med Res.* 2013; 3(1): 206-8.
29. Hayder N, Hasan Z, Afrin S, Noor R. Determination of the frequency of carbapenemase producing Klebsiella pneumoniae isolates in Dhaka city, Bangladesh. *Stam J Microbiol.* 2013; 2(1):28-30.
30. Dugal S, Purohit H. Antimicrobial susceptibility profile and detection of extended spectrum beta-lactamase production by gram negative uropathogens. *Int J Pharm Pharm Sci.* 2013; 4(5): 435-8.
31. Misra R, Gandham N, Sardar M, Ujagare M, Angadi K, Vyawahare C, et al. High Prevalence of Multi-Drug resistant Citrobacter spp. from tertiary care hospital, Pimpri, Pune, India. *J Pharm Biomed Sci.* 2012; 25(25): 158-163.
32. Biswal I, Arora BS, Kasana D, Neetushree. Incidence of Multidrug Resistant Pseudomonas aeruginosa Isolated from Burn Patients and Environment of Teaching Institution. *J Clin Diagn Res.* 2014; 8(5): 26-9.
33. Anjum MU, Shams N, Shah SH, Rehman MM, Hussain S. Prevalence and Antibiotic Resistance Pattern of Multidrug Resistant Bacteria among Blood Isolates. *Sch J App Med Sci.* 2014; 2(5D): 1734-40.
34. Raja NS. Microbiology of diabetic foot infections in a teaching hospital in Malaysia: a retrospective study of 194 cases. *J Microbiol Immunol Infect.* 2007; 40: 39-40.
35. Mehta M, Dutta P, Gupta V. Antimicrobial susceptibility pattern of blood isolates from a teaching hospital in north India. *Jpn J Infect Dis.* 2005; 58(3): 174-176.
36. Gupta R, Malik A, Rizvi M, Ahmed M. Biofilm Producing Multidrug and Extensive Drug Resistant Bacterial Pathogens from Tracheal Aspirates of Intensive Care Unit Patients- a Threat to Combat. *Int J Curr Microbial App Sci.* 2015: Special Issue-1; 1-9.
37. Beckett CL, Harbarth S, Huttner B. Special considerations of antibiotic prescription in the geriatric population. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2015;21(1):3-9.
38. O'Fallon E, Kandel R, Schreiber R, D'Agata EM. Acquisition of multidrug-resistant gram-negative bacteria: incidence and risk factors within a long-term care population. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol.* 2010;31(11):1148-53.
39. Pop-Vicas AE, D'Agata EM. The rising influx of multidrug-resistant gram-negative bacilli into a tertiary care hospital. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2005;40(12):1792-8.
40. Tumbarello M, Sali M, Trecarichi EM, Leone F, Rossi M, Fiori B, De Pascale G, D'Inzeo T, Sanguinetti M, Fadda G, et al. Bloodstream infections caused by extended-spectrum-beta-lactamase-producing Escherichia coli: risk factors for inadequate initial antimicrobial therapy. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 2008;52(9):3244-52.
41. WHO. Antimicrobial Resistance. 17 November 2021. Available at: <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/antimicrobial-resistance>. Accessed on 14 Oct 2022.
42. Coculescu BI. Antimicrobial resistance induced by genetic changes. *J Med Life.* 2009;2(2):114.
43. Collignon P, Beggs JJA. Socioeconomic enablers for contagion: factors impelling the antimicrobial resistance epidemic. *Antibiotics.* 2019;8(3):86.