BioScientific Review (BSR)

Volume 7 Issue 1, 2025 ISSN_(P): 2663-4198, ISSN_(E): 2663-4201 Homepage: <u>https://journals.umt.edu.pk/index.php/bsr</u>



Article QR



Title:	Antibacterial Susceptibility Patterns of UTI Pathogens among Different Age Groups in Lahore, Pakistan							
Author (s):	Muhammad Anees Sharif ¹ , Muhammad Imran ^{*2} , Ramna Zia ³ , Ali Hamza ² , Hashim Siddique ² , Adeel Shahid ² , Muhammad Ilyas ⁴ , Areeba Manzoor ¹ , Nida Tahir ⁵							
Affiliation (s): DOI:	 Department of Pathology, Punjab Institute of Cardiology, Lahore, Pakistan University Institute of Medical Lab Technology, The University of Lahore, Lahore, Pakistan Department of Biological Sciences, University of Veterinary and Animal Sciences, Lahore, Pakistan. Provincial Public Health Laboratories, Lahore, Pakistan Gulab Devi Educational Complex, Lahore, Pakistan https://doi.org/10.32350/bsr.71.01 							
History:	Received: November 11, 2024, Revised: December 22, 2024, Accepted: December 30, 2024, Published: January 20, 2025							
Citation:	Sharif MA, Imran M, Zia R, et al. Bacterial susceptibility patterns in urinary tract infections among different age groups in Lahore, Pakistan. <i>BioSci Rev.</i> 2025;7(1):01-25. <u>https://doi.org/10.32350/bsr.71.01</u>							
Copyright: Licensing:	© The Authors This article is open access and is distributed under the terms of <u>Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License</u>							
Conflict of Interest:	Author(s) declared no conflict of interest							



A publication of The Department of Life Sciences, School of Science University of Management and Technology, Lahore, Pakistan

Antibacterial Susceptibility Patterns of UTI Pathogens among Different Age Groups in Lahore, Pakistan

Muhammad Anees Sharif¹, Muhammad Imran^{2*}, Ramna Zia³, Ali Hamza², Hashim Siddique², Adeel Shahid², Muhammad Ilyas⁴, Areeba Manzoor¹, Nida Tahir⁵

¹Department of Pathology, Punjab Institute of Cardiology, Lahore, Pakistan
²University Institute of Medical Lab Technology, The University of Lahore, Lahore, Pakistan
³Department of Biological Sciences, University of Veterinary and Animal Sciences, Lahore, Pakistan
⁴Provencal Public Health Laboratories, Lahore, Pakistan
⁵Gulab Devi Educational Complex, Lahore, Pakistan

ABSTRACT

Background. Urinary tract infections (UTIs) are a significant health problem. They affect individuals across all age groups globally, with a higher prevalence among women and patients with chronic disorders such as diabetes.

Methodology. The current study was performed in the Department of Urology at The University of Lahore to explore the susceptibility of UTIs across different age groups in this region. For this purpose, 157 patients presented with the symptoms of frequent urination and pain during urination were considered. These also included some patients admitted in The University of Lahore Teaching Hospital. Midstream urine samples were collected from patients and cultured. Bacterial colonies of positive cultures were identified through morphological characteristics and serological tests such as Lancefield grouping. Additionally, biochemical tests and API 20E were used to identify members of the Enterobacteriaceae family. The data was analyzed using SPSS (version 25.0).

Results. In this study, the overall prevalence of UTIs was 53.5%, with the highest incidence of UTIs occurring in patients aged 25 to 45 years. The frequently identified isolates comprised *Escherichia coli* which accounted for 46 (54.8%) cases, followed by *Enterococcus* species accounting for 11 (13.1%) cases, *Klebsiella* species accounting for 07 (8.3%) cases, and *Staphylococcus aureus* accounting for another 07 (8.3%) cases. Furthermore, it was found that gram-negative bacteria showed a high level of resistance with 73.3% for cefixime, 73.2% for ceftriaxone, 73.0% for ceftazidime, and a relatively low level of resistance against fosfomycin (15.9%) and nitrofurantoin (16.3%). On the other hand, gram-positive isolates showed a higher level of resistance against penicillin (66.7%). Whereas, all isolates were found to be sensitive to gentamycin (100%).

Conclusion. Routine antimicrobial susceptibility testing prior to antibiotic prescription is recommended. Aminoglycosides, fosfomycin, and nitrofurantoin proved to be the most effective drugs of choice against these bacteria.

BSR

2 -

^{*}Corresponding Author: <u>chaudharyimran39@gmail.com</u>

Keywords: antibiotics, antimicrobial resistance, bacterial susceptibility patterns, extensive-drug-resistant (XDR) bacteria, multidrug-resistant (MDR) bacteria, UTI pathogens

Highlights

- UTI susceptibility patterns across age groups in Lahore, Pakistan were assessed, identifying demographic trends in infection rates.
- Diverse methods, including bacterial culture, microscopic examination, and biochemical tests such as API 20E were applied for precise pathogen identification.
- A notably higher UTI prevalence was observed among women with peak incidence in patients aged 25 to 45, underscoring critical demographic findings.

1. INTRODUCTION

Urinary tract infections (UTIs) are the second most common infectious disease (after respiratory tract infections or RTIs) for antibiotic prescriptions, globally. UTIs occur when pathogens invade and proliferate the urinary system, disrupting the kidnevs and urinarv function and leading to asymptomatic and symptomatic bacteriuria [1]. The presentation of a UTI varies based on the site of infection: urethritis affects the urethra, cystitis primarily impacts the bladder, and pyelonephritis involves the kidneys [2]. With an alarming global incidence of 150 million cases annually, UTIs have become a significant public health issue [3]. In 2019 alone, over 404.6 million individuals were affected by UTIs, which led to 236,786 deaths [4]. It has been estimated that nearly 50% of women suffer from a UTI at least once in their lifetime, with 12% experiencing an initial infection and 48% facing recurrent infections [5, 6]. The increased susceptibility of UTIs among women can be attributed to anatomical factors, such as the shorter length of the female urethra, the absence of bactericidal prostate secretions, pregnancy, and the proximity of the urinary tract to fecal flora, facilitating contamination [7]. Although UTIs affect people of all ages and gender, women are often more vulnerable due to anatomical differences and the risk increases with advancing age $[\underline{8}]$.

Various pathogenic microorganisms, including bacteria, fungi, and protozoa, contribute to the occurrence of UTIs. Common bacterial pathogens include Escherichia coli, Klebsiella pneumoniae, Enterococcus faecalis. group В streptococcus. Proteus mirabilis. Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Staphylococcus aureus, and Candida species (yeast) [9]. UTIs can be classified into two categories. These include symptomatic cases, which exhibit apparent symptoms of a UTI, as well as asymptomatic cases, where significant bacteriuria occurs without any noticeable symptoms [10]. Clinical manifestations, such as fever, dysuria, hematuria, pyuria, and lower abdominal are commonly observed pain in symptomatic UTIs [11]. If left untreated, UTIs can lead to severe complications, such as irreversible kidney damage and blockage of the urinary tract [12]. The common symptoms in patients with upper UTIs include fever, hematuria (blood in urine), nausea, and vomiting [13].

The misuse and overuse of common antibiotics lead to the evolution of drugresistant pathogens and increase the prevalence of microbial infections, including UTIs. Drug-resistant pathogens



are defined as pathogens that could have been inhibited previously by antibiotics but have now become insensitive to them [14]. The World Health Organization (WHO) reported recently that approximately 700,000 deaths each year occur due to infections caused by multidrug-resistant (MDR) pathogens. This figure may reach 2 million deaths and could potentially burden the global economy with over 2.9 trillion dollars in 2050, if the same trend continues [15]. Antimicrobial resistance is a critical health issue that leads to prolonged hospitalization, increases healthcare costs, and limits the treatment options for clinicians, ultimately resulting in higher mortality rates [16, 17]. According to WHO. Acinetohacter baumannii, Escherichia coli, Klebsiella pneumoniae, non-typhoidal Salmonella, Staphylococcus aureus. streptococcus pneumoniae, and Shigella species are gaining resistance to various antibiotics and complicating infection control [18].

During the past six decades, empirical antibiotic therapy has been employed to treat several UTIs, often initiated before the availability of antimicrobial susceptibility test results. However, increased infection caused by resistant pathogens limits and complicates treatment options [19, 20]. In several developing countries including Pakistan. the empirical approach for treating UTIs continues to transmit resistance genes among pathogens, increasing the prevalence of MDR gramnegative-bacilli-associated UTIs [21, 22]. UTI-causing pathogens show increased resistance antibiotics. to such as quinolones, carbapenems, and thirdcephalosporines generation through different mechanisms including the production of various enzymes. These include enzymes carbapenemase, extended-spectrum-beta lactamases

(ESBL), and biofilm formation. These resistance mechanisms allow the bacteria to survive under non-favorable conditions and increase the incidence of chronic infections through genetic mutations or horizontal gene transfer, hence bacteria acquire resistance-carrying genes [23]. MDR bacteria are pathogens that exhibit resistance to at least one antibiotic among three or more antibiotic classes, whereas extensive-drug-resistant or XDR bacteria are susceptible to only one or two antimicrobial classes and are also resistant to the most commonly available antibiotics [24]. The rising prevalence of MDR and XDR pathogens, particularly resistance to last-resort antibiotics including carbapenemase, complicates UTI treatment [25].

UTIs pose a significant health concern in Pakistan, particularly due to the rising prevalence of drug-resistant bacteria. Recent studies reported high rates of MDR E. coli [26] and XDR Salmonella that showed 100% resistance to fluoroquinolones [27]. The absence of regional surveillance data makes treatment difficult. So, there is a need to focus on more local studies of drug resistance patterns among uropathogens because such pathogens make it challenging to manage UTIs [28]. Routine antimicrobial susceptibility test (AST) is a benchmark to guide clinicians in selecting antibiotics, managing empirical therapy, and aiding in effective antimicrobial stewardship [25, 29]. However, only a few studies in identified Pakistan have common uropathogens and their AST profiles [30].

This study was designed to investigate the antimicrobial susceptibility patterns of uropathogens isolated from patients in Lahore, Pakistan. The objectives included identifying the etiological agents causing UTIs across various age groups and gender,



determining the prevalence of antimicrobial resistance among these pathogens, and exploring the relationship between age, gender, and susceptibility patterns. By achieving these objectives, the current study aims to offer valuable insights into resistance trends and pathogen distribution, which can inform better treatment and management strategies for UTIs.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

This hospital-based, descriptive, crosssectional study was conducted in the Pathology Laboratory of the Department of Urology at the University Institute of Medical Laboratory Technology (UIMLT), University of Lahore. The institutional ethics committee approved this study. All the participants were voluntary and each participant supplied informed consent.

2.1. Sample Collection

From 4013 patients who visited the pathology laboratory, 157 midstream urine samples were collected aseptically from individuals presented with symptoms such as frequent urination and harboring pain during urination. The participants included patients from various locations across Lahore, with several admitted to The University of Lahore Teaching Hospital. The samples were collected from March 2024 to August 2024. The patients with a history of antibiotic therapy (within the last 72 hours) were excluded from the study population.

2.2. Culture and Identification

Following the manufacturer's instructions (Merk, Germany), powdered agar media was dissolved in water and mixed thoroughly to ensure homogenization. The media flasks were autoclaved for 15 minutes at 121°C and 15 PSI to achieve sterilization. When the

media cooled to 50° C, 10 ml of sterile blood was added per 100 ml of media. Once sufficiently cooled, the media was poured into sterile petri dishes labeled with the date and batch information.

The urine samples were inoculated using a standardized inculcation wire loop (0.001 ml) onto Cystine Lactose Electrolyte Deficient (CLED) and 5% blood agar plates via the streak plate method, adhering to the standard microbial techniques [31]. The inoculated plates were incubated aerobically for 24 hours at 37°C. After incubation, the plates were examined for bacterial growth. If growth was present, the colonies were counted and multiplied with the reciprocal of the loop's volume. Bacterial counts exceeding 10⁵ colonyforming units per milliliter (CFU/ml) indicated a significant infection, whereas counts below 10³ CFU/ml were considered non-pathogenic. Counts between 10⁴ and 10⁵ CFU/ml suggested potential infection, whereas counts between 10^3 and 10^4 CFU/ml were generally considered to indicate contamination [32].

All positive urine cultures showing significant bacterial growth were initially identified based on their morphological characters through Gram staining. Based on Gram staining and colony morphology, biochemical tests were selected for further bacterial identification. For gram-positive bacteria, catalase and coagulase tests were performed [31]. Landfield grouping was used to classify the streptococcus species the other hand, further. On for the identification of gram-negative bacteria. different biochemical tests including Kligler's iron agar (KIA), citrate utilization, urease hydrolysis, and sulfur indole motility (SIM) were conducted. For quality control, reference strains S. aureus (ATCC 25923) and E. coli (ATCC 25922) were used. As per the recommendations by

Department of Life Sciences



the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI, 2024) [<u>33</u>], Kirby-Bauer (KB) disk diffusion method was followed for antibiotic susceptibility testing using Muller-Hinton (MH) agar (Merk, Germany). Two to three colonies with similar morphology were emulsified in distilled water and the solution's optical density was adjusted to 0.5% MacFarland standard. The inoculated plates were homogenously swabbed and allowed to dry at room temperature for 3-5 minutes.

Antibiotics from Oxoid Ltd. were applied at their respective concentrations to treat UTIs. These included ampicillin ampicillin/sulbactam (AMP, 10 µg), (AMC, 20/10 µg), piperacillin/tazobactam (TZP, 110 μ g), cefotaxime (CTX, 30 μ g), ceftriaxone (CRO, 30 µg), ceftazidime (CAZ, 30 µg), cefepime (FEP, 30 µg), meropenem (MEM, 10 µg), imipenem (IPM, 10 µg), ciprofloxacin (CIP, 5 µg), levofloxacin (LEV, 5 µg), tobramycin (TOB, 30 µg), gentamycin (CN, 10 µg), amikacin (AK. 10 µg), trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole (SXT, 1.25/23.75 µg), colistin (CT, 10 µg), chloramphenicol (C, 30 µg), fosfomycin (F, 30 µg), tetracycline, doxycycline (DO, 30 µg), penicillin (PEN, 10 µg), cefoxitin (FOX, 30 µg), clindamycin (DA, 10 µg), erythromycin (E, 15 µg), and clarithromycin. Following the CLSI guidelines, the clearance zone around each antibiotic disc was measured with a ruler after 18-20 hours of incubation at 37°C and pathogens were categorized as sensitive (showed recommended cleared zone around antibiotics disc), resistant, and intermediate.

2.3. Statistical Analysis

Categorical variables were summarized, with numerical and percentage data presented in tables created using Microsoft Excel (version 2021). Data analysis was performed using IBM's Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software (version 25.0). Statistical differences between antibiotic susceptibility results were assessed using the chi-square statistical test and the Fisher-Freeman-Halton test. The confidence limit for statistical tests was considered 95% with a significance level of p < 0.05.

3. RESULTS

UTI	Isolates	Frequency	Percentage
	Escherichia coli (E. coli)	46	54.8% (46/84)
Cram Nagativa Dada	Klebsiella species	7	8.3% (07/84)
Gram Negative Rods (GNRs), <i>n</i> = 63/84 (75.0%)	Proteus vulgaris	3	3.6% (03/84)
	Pseudomonas aeruginosa	3	3.6% (03/84)
	Proteus mirabilis	2	2.4% (02/84)
	Enterobacter	2	2.4% (02/84)
Gram Positive Cocci	Enterococcus faecalis	11	13.1% (11/84)
(GPCs), $n = 21/84$	Staphylococcus aureus	7	8.3% (0784)
(25.0%)	Streptococcus agalactiae	3	3.6% (03/84)
	Total Positive cultures	84	53.5% (84/157)
Total	Total Negative cultures	73	46.5% (73/157)
	Total Cultures	157	

6—BSR

BioScientific Review

			Gei	- Total			
		Male		Female		- 1	otai
		n	%	n	%	Ν	%
	1–12	4	44.4	5	55.6	9	10.7
	13–24	5	38.5	8	61.5	13	15.5
Age Groups (years)	25–45	7	28.0	18	72.0	25	29.8
	46–60	8	47.1	9	52.9	17	20.2
	> 60	9	45.0	11	55.0	20	23.8
Microbial Growth		33	39.3	51	60.7	84	53.5
No Growth		38	52.1	35	47.9	73	46.5

Table 2. Distribution of Infection among Genders and Different Age Groups

A total of 157 patients symptomatic of UTIs were included in the current study. The mean age of the study population was 41.73 ± 19.4 and the age range of patients was 7-75 years. Moreover, 85 (54.2%) samples were collected from women, while the remaining 72 (45.8%) were collected from men. The results of the Pearson chisquare and Fisher-Freeman-Halton exact test showed that there was no statistical association between gender and the distributions of bacterial isolates or between gender and the antibacterial susceptibility patterns of the pathogens. Patients' age distribution showed that 26 (17%) were children, 20 (13%) were adolescents and young adults, 47 (30%) were adults, 26 (17%) were middle-aged adults, and 37 (24%) were from the elderly population. The study found that out of 157 urine samples, 84 (53.5%) tested positive for urine cultures. Of the total 84 isolates. the majority (63, 75%) were gram-negative organisms, while the remaining (21, 25%) were gram-positive bacteria. Escherichia

coli was found to be the most frequent isolate collected from 46 patients, accounting for 73.0% of gram-negative and 54.8% of all pathogens. This was followed Enterococcus by faecalis (13.1%),Klebsiella species (8.3%). and *Staphylococcus* aureus (8.3%). Additionally, the other isolated organisms included Pseudomonas aeruginosa (3.6%), Proteus vulgaris (3.6%), Streptococcus agalactiae (3.6%), Proteus mirabilis (2.4%), and *Enterobacter* species (2.4%).

In the analysis of antimicrobial sensitivity patterns among the gramnegative bacteria, fosfomycin exhibited the highest antibiotic sensitivity rate at 84.1%, followed closely by nitrofurantoin (83.7%), and amikacin (78.3%). Doxycycline and gentamycin also demonstrated significant effectiveness, with sensitivity rates of 78.1% and 76.2%, respectively. Among showed carbapenems, meropenem а sensitivity of 69.8%, rate whereas imipenem showed a slightly lower



sensitivity rate of 61.9%. Other antibiotics, such as tobramycin (64.4%), also demonstrated moderate effectiveness. In contrast, ceftriaxone and cefixime proved to be the least effective, since both showed a sensitivity rate of 26.7%.

Regarding specific bacterial isolates, the antibiotic profile of *E. coli* revealed that nitrofurantoin and fosfomvcin were the most effective antibiotics against it, with sensitivity rates of 89.7% and 89.5%, respectively. Gentamycin (82.6%), amikacin (80.4%), meropenem (65.2%), tobramycin (62.5%), and imipenem (58.7%) also showed high sensitivity against E. coli. However, ceftriaxone and amoxicillin-clavulanate proved to be the least sensitive antibiotics, both showing a low sensitivity rate of 19.6%. In contrast, Klebsiella pneumoniae exhibited 100% sensitivity to cefepime. cefotaxime. imipenem, meropenem, fosfomycin, and tigecycline, highlighting the efficacy of these drugs in treating UTIs caused by this pathogen. Norfloxacin was the least effective antibiotic, with a sensitivity rate of 50% (Table 5). The results of chi-square and Fisher-Freeman-Halton exact test proved that among gram-negative bacteria, there was found a significant association between groups and antibiotic age resistance patterns of co-amoxiclay, ceftriaxone. ceftazidime. cefixime. cefepime, cefoperazone-sulbactam, levofloxacin, and ciprofloxacin (Table 3). Furthermore, there was also observed a strong association between isolate types and antibiotic resistance patterns among antibiotics such co-amoxiclay. as ceftriaxone. ceftazidime. cefixime. cefepime, fosfomycin, nitrofurantoin, and tigecycline (Table 5).

With respect to gram-positive bacterial isolates, gentamycin showed the highest antibacterial susceptibility with 100%

sensitivity; however, it was only tested against Staphylococcus aureus. Overall, doxycycline demonstrated the highest level of sensitivity towards all gram-positive bacteria with a susceptibility rate of 95.2%. Only one isolate of S. aureus showed resistance, maintaining its role as a critical treating antibiotic in gram-positive infections. In contrast. penicillin, levofloxacin, and ciprofloxacin presented lower efficacy, with a sensitivity rate of 33.3%, 47.6%, and 47.6%, respectively. In terms of specific isolates, Streptococcus agalactiae displayed highest the antimicrobial susceptibility, being 100% to tetracycline, doxycycline, sensitive ampicillin, and penicillin, with a single isolate showing resistance to ciprofloxacin and levofloxacin. S. aureus was found to be completely sensitive to gentamycin (100%) and highly sensitive to doxycycline and tetracycline (85.7%). However, none of S. aureus isolates were sensitive to penicillin. For Enterococcus faecalis, doxycycline showed the highest sensitivity (100%), followed by teicoplanin (90.9%), with similar susceptibility to fosfomycin and tetracycline (81.8%) (Table 6). The results of the chi-square and Fisher-Freeman-Halton exact test showed that among grampositive bacteria there was a significant association between age groups and antibiotic resistance patterns of coamoxiclay, ciprofloxacin, and levofloxacin. Moreover, the results also suggested a significant association between bacterial isolates and penicillin resistance (Table 3 and Table 6).

			<i>p</i> value				
A	1-12 years	13-24 years	25-45 years	46-60 years	>60 years	Total	Pearson chi-square/ Fisher-Freeman-
Antibiotic	2(0) 1(0)	2(0) 2(0)	2(0) 2(0)	$O(\mathbf{C}) = O(\mathbf{D})$	0 (C) 5 (D)	7(0) 14(0)	Halton exact test
Penicillin	3 (S), 1 (R)	2 (S), 2 (R)	2 (S), 3 (R)	0 (S), 3 (R)	0 (S), 5 (R)	7 (S), 14 (R)	0.114
Ampicillin	3 (S), 1 (R)	2 (S), 2 (R)	2 (S), 3 (R)	0 (S), 3 (R)	4 (S), 1 (R)	11 (S), 10 (R)	0.288
Co-Amoxiclav	3 (S), 1 (R)	3 (S), 1 (R)	4 (S), 1 (R)	0 (S), 3 (R)	5 (S), 0 (R)	15 (S), 6 (R)	0.044 ^a
Ciprofloxacin	3 (S), 1 (R)	4 (S), 0 (R)	1 (S), 4 (R)	0 (S), 3 (R)	2 (S), 3 (R)	10 (S), 11 (R)	0.047^{a}
Levofloxacin	3 (S), 1 (R)	4 (S), 0 (R)	1 (S), 4 (R)	0 (S), 3 (R)	2 (S), 3 (R)	10 (S), 11 (R)	0.047^{a}
Doxycycline	4 (S), 0 (R)	4 (S), 0 (R)	5 (S), 0 (R)	3 (S), 0 (R)	4 (S), 1 (R)	20 (S), 1 (R)	1.00
Teicoplanin	4 (S), 0 (R)	3 (S), 0 (R)	2 (S), 1 (R)	1 (S), 2 (R)	5 (S), 0 (R)	15 (S), 3 (R)	0.075
Nitrofurantoin	4 (S), 0 (R)	3 (S), 0 (R)	2 (S), 1 (R)	2 (S), 1 (R)	4 (S), 1 (R)	15 (S), 3 (R)	0.779
Co-Trimoxazole	2 (S), 2 (R)	3 (S), 1 (R)	4 (S), 1 (R)	0 (S), 3 (R)	3 (S), 2 (R)	12 (S), 9 (R)	0.324
Fosfomycin	4 (S), 0 (R)	1 (S), 0 (R)	1 (S), 2 (R)	1 (S), 0 (R)	2 (S), 0 (R)	9 (S), 2 (R)	0.273
Tetracycline	3 (S), 1 (R)	4 (S), 0 (R)	4 (S), 1 (R)	2 (S), 1 (R)	5 (S), 0 (R)	18 (S), 3 (R)	0.673
Gentamycin		2 (S), 0 (R)		2 (S), 0 (R)	3 (S), 0 (R)		b

Table 3. Antibiogram of Gram-Positive Bacteria: Association between Age Groups and Antibiotic Susceptibility Pattern

Note. S: Sensitive, R: Resistance, p value: Statistical significance for the antibiotic against each age group

a: Represent statistically significant values.

b: No statistics are computed because Gentamycin is a constant.

Table 4. Antibiogram of Gram-Negative Bacteria: Association between Age Groups and Antibiotic Susceptibility Pattern

		<i>p</i> value					
Antibiotic	1-12 years	13-24 years	25-45 years	46-60 years	>60 years	Total	Pearson chi- square/ Fisher- Freeman-Halton exact test
AMC	5 (S), 0 (R)	3 (S), 6 (R)	5 (S), 14 (R)	3 (S), 10 (R)	1 (S), 13 (R)	17 (S), 43 (R)	0.004 ^a
CRO	4 (S), 0 (R)	3 (S), 6 (R)	3 (S), 15 (R)	3 (S), 9 (R)	2 (S), 11 (R)	15 (S), 41 (R)	0.019 ^a



			Age Gi	roups			<i>p</i> value
Antibiotic	1-12 years	13-24 years	25-45 years	46-60 years	>60 years	Total	Pearson chi- square/ Fisher- Freeman-Halton exact test
CAZ	5 (S), 0 (R)	3 (S), 6 (R)	3 (S), 17 (R)	4 (S), 10 (R)	2 (S), 13 (R)	17 (S), 46 (R)	0.003ª
CFM	5 (S), 0 (R)	3 (S), 5 (R)	3 (S), 17 (R)	3 (S), 10 (R)	2 (S), 12 (R)	16 (S), 44 (R)	0.003ª
FEP	5 (S), 0 (R)	5 (S), 4 (R)	4 (S), 16 (R)	4 (S), 10 (R)	3 (S), 12 (R)	39 (S), 24 (R)	0.005ª
SCF	4 (S), 0 (R)	6 (S), 3 (R)	10 (S), 6 (R)	5 (S), 6 (R)	4 (S), 9 (R)	29 (S), 24 (R)	0.115
TZP	3 (S), 2 (R)	3 (S), 4 (R)	8 (S), 8 (R)	5 (S), 8 (R)	5 (S), 8 (R)	24 (S), 30 (R)	0.91
LEV	5 (S), 0 (R)	2 (S), 7 (R)	5 (S), 15 (R)	5 (S), 9 (R)	3 (S), 12 (R)	20 (S), 43 (R)	0.019 ^a
CIP	5 (S), 0 (R)	2 (S), 7 (R)	6 (S), 14 (R)	5 (S), 9 (R)	4 (S), 11 (R)	22 (S), 41 (R)	0.039ª
CN	5 (S), 0 (R)	6 (S), 3 (R)	16 (S), 4 (R)	12 (S), 2 (R)	9 (S), 6 (R)	48 (S), 15 (R)	0.232
AK	5 (S), 0 (R)	7 (S), 2 (R)	14 (S), 5 (R)	10 (S), 4 (R)	11 (S), 2 (R)	47 (S), 13 (R)	0.799
TOB	2 (S), 0 (R)	6 (S), 3 (R)	6 (S), 7 (R)	8 (S), 2 (R)	7 (S), 4 (R)	29 (S), 16 (R)	0.482
IPM	5 (S), 0 (R)	8 (S), 1 (R)	12 (S), 8 (R)	8 (S), 6 (R)	6 (S), 9 (R)	16 (S), 44 (R)	0.062
MEM	5 (S), 0 (R)	8 (S), 1 (R)	13 (S), 7 (R)	9 (S), 5 (R)	9 (S), 6 (R)	44 (S), 19 (R)	0.342
FOS	3 (S), 0 (R)	4 (S), 2 (R)	10 (S), 3 (R)	9 (S), 1 (R)	11 (S), 1 (R)	37 (S), 7 (R)	0.592
F	5 (S), 0 (R)	6 (S), 1 (R)	11 (S), 3 (R)	11 (S), 1 (R)	11 (S), 1 (R)	8 (S), 3 (R)	0.705
NOR	5 (S), 0 (R)	3 (S), 4 (R)	7 (S), 5 (R)	5 (S), 6 (R)	2 (S), 8 (R)	22 (S), 24 (R)	0.066
TGC	1 (S), 0 (R)	3 (S), 2 (R)	1 (S), 3 (R)	1 (S), 2 (R)	2 (S), 0 (R)	8 (S), 7 (R)	0.543
DOX	4 (S), 0 (R)	3 (S), 1 (R)	7 (S), 3 (R)	5 (S), 1 (R)	6 (S), 2 (R)	25 (S), 7 (R)	0.911

Note. AMC Co-Amoxiclav, CRO ceftriaxone, CAZ ceftazidime, CFM cefixime, FEP cefepime, SCF cefoperazone-sulbactam, TZP piperacillin-tazobactam, LEV levofloxacin, CIP ciprofloxacin, CN gentamycin, AK amikacin, TOB tobramycin, IPM imipenem, MEM meropenem, FOS fosfomycin, F nitrofurantoin, NOR norfloxacin, TGC tigecycline, DO doxycycline. S: Sensitive, R: Resistance, p value: Statistical significance for the antibiotic against each age group

a: Represent statistically significant values.

IBSR

BioScientific Review

	Esche co	richia oli		siella 10niae	Pseudomonas aeruginosa			Proteus mirbals		oteus Enterobacter garis spp. Total p va		Total		<i>p</i> value	
Pattern	S	R	S	R	S	R	S	R	S	R	S	R	S	R	Pearson χ ^{2/} Fisher- Freeman- Halton exact test
AMC	9	37	4	2			1	1	1	2	1	1	17(28%)	43(72%)	0.019ª
CRO	9	37	3	2			0	2	0	3	0	2	15(27%)	41(73%)	0.008ª
CAZ	13	33	4	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	0	2	17(27%)	46(73%)	0.044 ^a
CFM	11	35	6	0	0	3	1	1	1	2	0	2	16(27%)	44(73%)	0.001ª
FEP	11	35	6	0	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	21(33%)	42(67%)	0.014 ^a
SCF	22	24	5	1	0	2	1	1	3	0	1	1	29(55%)	24(45%)	0.216
TZP	18	28	4	2	1	2	2	0	1	2	1	1	24(44%)	30(56%)	0.568
LEV	12	34	4	2	1	2	1	1	0	3	1	1	20(32%)	43(68%)	0.102
CIP	14	32	4	2	1	2	1	1	0	3	1	1	22(35%)	41(65%)	0.190
CN	38	8	4	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	0	48(76%)	15(24%)	0.078
AK	37	9	5	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	0	47(78%)	13(22%)	0.206
TOB	20	12	4	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	0	29(64%)	16(36%)	0.964
IPM	27	19	6	0	1	2	2	0	2	1	2	0	39(62%)	24(38%)	0.521
MEM	30	16	6	0	1	2	2	0	3	0	2	0	44(70%)	19(30%)	0.373
FOS	34	4	1	0			2	0	0	3			37(84%)	7(16%)	0.007ª
F	35	4	4	2	0	2					2	0	41(84%)	8(16%)	0.023ª
NOR	16	20	3	3	1	1							22(48%)	24(52%)	0.696
TGC	1	7	6	0			1	0					8(53.%)	7(47%)	0.003ª
DO	21	6	3	1							1	0	25(78%)	7(22%)	1.00

Table 5. Effectiveness of Antibiotics against Gram-Negative Rods (GNR): Association between isolate types and antibiotic susceptibility pattern.

Note. AMC Co-Amoxiclav, CRO ceftriaxone, CAZ ceftazidime, CFM cefixime, FEP cefepime, SCF cefoperazone-sulbactam, TZP piperacillin-tazobactam, LEV levofloxacin, CIP ciprofloxacin, CN gentamycin, AK amikacin, TOB tobramycin, IPM imipenem, MEM meropenem, FOS fosfomycin, F nitrofurantoin, NOR norfloxacin, TGC tigecycline, DO doxycycline. **a**: Represent statistically significant values.



Antibiotics	Enterococcus faecalis		Staphyloco	ccus aureus	streptococci	us agalactiae	To	p value	
Abbreviation	S	R	S	R	S	R	S	R	Pearson χ ^{2/} Fisher- Freeman- Halton exact test
PEN	4 (36.4%)	7 (63.6 %)	0 (0%)	7 (100%)	3 (100%)	0 (0%)	7 (33.3%)	14 (66.7%)	0.007
AMP	6 (54.5%)	5 (45.5%)	2 (28.6%)	5 (71.4%)	3 (100%)	0 (0%)	11 (52.4%)	10 (47.6%)	0.148
AMC	8 (72.7%)	3 (27.3%)	4 (57.1%)	3 (42.9%)	3 (100%)	0 (0%)	15 (71.4%)	6 (28.6%)	0.447
CIP	4 (36.4%)	7 (63.6%)	4 (57.1%)	3 (42.9%)	2 (66.7%)	1 (33.3%)	10 (47.6%)	11 (52.4%)	0.587
LEV	4 (36.4%)	7 (63.6%)	4 (57.1%)	3 (42.9%)	2 (66.7%)	1 (33.3%)	10 (47.6%)	11 (52.4%)	0.587
DOX	11 (100%)	0 (0%)	6 (85.7%)	1 (14.3%)	3 (100%)	0 (0%)	20 (95.2%)	1 (4.8%)	0.476
TEC	10 (90.9%)	1 (9.1%)	5 (71.4%)	2 (28.6%)			15 (83.3%)	3 (16.7%)	0.528
F	8 (72.7%)	3 (27.3%)	7 (100%)	0 (0%)			15 (83.3%)	3 (16.7%)	0.245
SXT	5 (45.5%)	6 (54.5%)	4 (57.1%)	3 (42.9%)	3 (100%)	0 (0%)	12 (57.1%)	9 (42.9%)	0.342
FOS	9 (81.8%)	2 (18.2%)					9 (81.8%)	2 (18.2%)	b
TET	9 (81.8%)	2 (18.2%)	6 (85.7%)	1 (14.3%)	3 (100%)	0 (0%)	18 (85.7%)	3 (14.3%)	1.00
CN			7 (100%)	0 (0%)			7 (100 %)	0 (0%)	с

Table 6. Effectiveness of Antibiotics against Gram-Positive Cocci (GPC): Association between isolate types and antibiotic susceptibility pattern

Note. *PEN* penicillin, *AMP* ampicillin, *AMC* amoxicillin-clavulanate, *CIP* ciprofloxacin, *LEV* levofloxacin, *DO* doxycycline, *TEC* teicoplanin, *F* nitrofurantoin, *SXT* co-trimoxazole, *FOS* fosfomycin, *TET* tetracycline, *CN* gentamycin.

a: Represent statistically significant values.

b: No statistics are computed because Isolates is a constant.

c: No statistics are computed because Isolates and Gentamycin are constants.

4. DISCUSSION

Urinary tract infections (UTIs) are prevalent and clinically significant health concerns, warranting a comprehensive investigation into bacterial prevalence across various age groups [8]. Identifying UTI-causing bacterial pathogens is essential for their effective treatment and for the alignment of clinical practice with laboratory findings [34]. The overall prevalence of significant UTIs among different age groups and gender was 53.6%. This showed a lower prevalence than in Karachi, where the prevalence was 66.5% [35], and a higher prevalence than in Peshawar [36] and Lahore [37], which were 43.2% and 42.5%, respectively. Moreover, the prevalence was lower than in most major cities of other developing countries, such as Dhaka, Bangladesh where the prevalence was 71.0% [38] and Prayagraj, India where it was 77.9% [39]. The inconsistency in UTI prevalence might be due to study populations, sample size, personal hygiene, and the methodology employed. Furthermore, the prevalence of uropathogens in this study was higher than those reported from developed regions, such as France (19.2%) [40] and parts of Central Europe (26.9%) [41]. These differences may be due to variations in antibiotic usage policies, public awareness, improved sanitation infrastructure, and restricted antibiotic access to the public.

In this study, female participants were found to be more affected (male: female, 1:1.20). The data showed similarity with several studies conducted irrespective of geographical locations, including India [40], France [41], Pakistan [42], and the United States [43]. This is probably due to the anatomical differences between both genders, such as a shorter urethra [44], more sensitive skin of the external urethral meatus, and close proximity of the urethra to the rectum [45]. The current study identified a higher prevalence of UTIs in female patients aged 25-45 years. The results resemble a recent study conducted in Lahore which determined the percentage of adult females experiencing bacteriuria as 28.7% [38]. Dadi et al. [46] highlighted that sexual intercourse enhances the bacteria's access to the bladder. The results of the current study also showed that a significant proportion of positive cultures (23.4%) was obtained from individuals aged over 60 years. This finding aligns with the study of Girija et al. [47], who reported that 24% of patients presented with UTIs fell within the 70-90 years age category. A study by Pardeshi [48] found that women are more susceptible to UTIs than men, particularly middle-aged women. The study also observed that men over the age of 45 years have comparable rates of UTIs to women. further emphasizing the age and genderrelated vulnerability to these infections.

This finding also showed that pathogens causing UTIs included E coli., E. faecalis, P. aeruginosa, K. pneumoniae, S. aureus, S. agalactiae, Proteus species, and Enterobacter species. These findings are similar to Ahmad et al. [36] and Odoki et al. [49]. In this study, gram-negative rods (GNR) causing UTIs were found to be more prevalent (75%) than gram-positive bacteria (25%), highlighting the different virulence factors that help them adhere to urogenital epithelial cells, prevent them from being washed away in urine, and aid in tissue invasion [50]. E. coli emerged as the predominant etiological agent, responsible for 54.8% of isolated cases. This aligns with the findings of numerous conducted studies across different geographical regions. The results varied from that of a study conducted in Multan, Pakistan, which determined the prevalence of E. coli among uropathogens as 33% [51].



Likewise, the majority of previous studies established *E. coli* as the most frequent etiological agent of UTIs in India with 54.95% prevalence [40], in Pakistan with 62.80% prevalence [52], and in Bangladesh with a 48.00% prevalence [53]. A possible explanation is that *E. coli* shows enhanced virulence factors for attachment to the host urogenital tract's epithelial cells, such as Type 1 or Type 2 fimbriae [50].

In this study, among gram-negative bacteria, the highest resistance was shown against third-generation cephalosporines, namely ceftriaxone (73.2%), cefotaxime (73.3%), and ceftazidime (73.0%). These findings align with the study of Bullens et al. [52]. The possible explanation for this is the readily available oral suspension of CFX throughout Pakistan for first-line treatment of UTIs. High levels of resistance against beta-lactam-containing antibiotics could occur due to the production of extended-spectrum beta-lactamase enzymes. Moreover, higher levels of resistance were observed against quinolone antibiotics, that is, levofloxacin (68.3%) and ciprofloxacin (65.1%). These results are consistent with the findings of [54] and highlight the need for updated treatment guidelines. On the other hand, the effectiveness of nitrofurantoin and fosfomycin showed similarity with [55], emphasizing their importance as the firstline option. Additionally, a higher rate of sensitivity (lower resistance) was observed against amikacin. gentamycin, doxycycline, meropenem, tobramycin, and imipenem. A possible justification is the higher cost of carbapenem injections the infrequent prescription and of aminoglycoside antibiotics. Hence, they could be considered as an alternative option for treating UTIs.

Among gram-negative uropathogens, *E. coli* was the predominant isolate (89.7%) sensitive to nitrofurantoin, fosfomycin (89.5%), and amikacin (80.4%). These results are comparable to the findings of Rizvi et al. [56] for Pakistan and Acharjee et al. [53] for Bangladesh. While, high resistance was shown to ceftriaxone (80.4), co-amoxiclav (80.4%), tigecycline (87.5), and cefepime (76.1%). These results are in line with the studies of Hassan conducted in Iraq [57] and Fatima et al., conducted in Pakistan [51]. In the current study, Klebsiella pnuemoniae showed complete sensitivity to imipenem (6/6, 100%), meropenem (6/6, 100%), and cefepime (6/6, 100%), Joya et al, France [42]. Pseudomonas aeruginosa was isolated in (3/84, 3.6%) specimens. A total of 2 strains were extensive drug resistant (XDRs) and only 1 strain showed sensitivity to carbapenem, quinolones, aminoglycosides, and 3rd and 4th generation cephalosporines. This is in line with a study conducted by Sendra et al. [58] in Spain, which found that P. aeruginosa was susceptible to amikacin (42.6%, n = 43/101).MDR/XDR Р. aeruginosa is emerging as a major healthcare issue and infection prevention is gaining utmost importance because it can rapidly develop resistance even to novel drugs [59].

Gram-positive bacteria were found to be relatively sensitive to gentamycin (7/7,100%), doxycycline (20/21, 95.2%), tetracycline (18/21,85.7%), and fosfomycin (15/18, 83.3%), similar to a study conducted by [60]. Only penicillin (14/21, 66.7%), ciprofloxacin (11/21, 52.4%), and levofloxacin (11/21, 52.4%) exhibited more than 50% resistance among gram-positive bacteria. This might be due to the easy availability and indiscriminate usage of these drugs, which may lead to an increase in resistance.



4.1. LIMITATIONS

There are several limitations to this study. Firstly, it was conducted at a single hospital with a relatively small sample size of 157 patients. Self-reported clinical symptoms may introduce potential bias. Moreover, sole reliance on phenotypic methods to detect antibiotic resistance without using molecular techniques reduces the depth of antimicrobial resistance analysis. Future studies should include a more diverse patient population and utilize molecular techniques to better understand the resistance mechanisms of UTIs-causing pathogens.

4.2. CONCLUSION

Due to the increasing prevalence of MDR and XDR pathogens and the cost associated with UTIs, precise infection control and careful administration of crucial. antibiotics Routine are antimicrobial susceptibility testing before prescribing antibiotics is recommended. Furthermore. hospitals should have an antibiotic stewardship program to reduce antibiotic resistance and prevent further complications.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors of this manuscript declare they have no financial and non-financial conflict of interest.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The data associated with this study will be provided by the corresponding author upon request.

FUNDING DETAILS

No funding has been received for this research.

REFERENCES

- 1. Zhao F, Yang H, Bi D, Khaledi A, Qiao M. A systematic review and meta-analysis of antibiotic resistance patterns, and the correlation between biofilm formation with virulence factors in uropathogenic E. coli isolated from urinary tract infections. *Microb Pathog.* 2020;144:e104196. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.micpath.2020</u> .104196
- Zagaglia C, Ammendolia MG, Maurizi L, Nicoletti M, Longhi C. Urinary tract infections: the current scenario and future prospects. *Pathogens*. 2023;12(4):e623. <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/pathogens120</u> 40623
- Zagaglia C, Ammendolia MG, Maurizi L, Nicoletti M, Longhi C. Urinary tract infections caused by Uropathogenic Escherichia coli strains-new strategies for an old pathogen. *Microorganisms*. 2022;10(7):e1425. <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganis</u> ms10071425
- Zeng Z, Zhan J, Zhang K, Chen H, Cheng S. Global, regional, and national burden of urinary tract infections from 1990 to 2019: an analysis of the global burden of disease study 2019. World J Urol. 2022;40(3):755–763. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00345-021-03913-0
- Grigoryan L, Mulgirigama A, Powell M, Schmiemann G. The emotional impact of urinary tract infections in women: a qualitative analysis. *BMC Womens Health*. 2022;22(1):e182. <u>https://doi.org/10.1186/s12905-022-01757-3</u>

- Naber KG, Tirán-Saucedo J, Wagenlehner FME. Psychosocial burden of recurrent uncomplicated urinary tract infections. *GMS Infect Dis.* 2022;10:eDoc01. <u>https://doi.org/10.3205/id000078</u>
- Czajkowski K, Broś-Konopielko M, Teliga-Czajkowska J. Urinary tract infection in women. *Menopause Rev Menopauzalny*. 2021;20(1):40–47. <u>https://doi.org/10.5114/pm.2021.1053</u> <u>82</u>
- Murray BO, Flores C, Williams C, et al. Recurrent urinary tract infection: a mystery in search of better model systems. *Front Cell Infect Microbiol*. 2021;11:691210. https://doi.org/10.3389/fcimb.2021.69 1210
- Bader MS, Loeb M, Leto D, Brooks AA. Treatment of urinary tract infections in the era of antimicrobial resistance and new antimicrobial agents. *Postgrad Med.* 2020;132(3):234–250. https://doi.org/10.1080/00325481.201 9.1680052
- Klein RD, Hultgren SJ. Urinary tract infections: microbial pathogenesis, host-pathogen interactions and new treatment strategies. Nat Rev Microbiol. 2020;18(4):211-226. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41579-020-0324-0
- 11. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Urinary tract infection (catheter-associated urinary tract infection [CAUTI] and non-catheterassociated urinary tract infection [UTI]) events. https://www.cdc.gov/nhsn/pdfs/pscma nual/7psccauticurrent.pdf. Accessed October 15, 2024.

BSR

- Abalkhail A, AlYami AS, Alrashedi SF, et al. The prevalence of multidrug-resistant Escherichia coli producing ESBL among male and female patients with urinary tract infections in Riyadh region, Saudi Arabia. *Healthcare*. 2022;10(9):e1778. https://doi.org/10.3390/healthcare100 91778
- Maharjan G, Khadka P, Shilpakar GS, Chapagain G, Dhungana GR. Catheterassociated urinary tract infection and obstinate biofilm producers. *Can J Infect Dis Med Microbiol*. 2018;2018(1):e7624857. <u>https://doi.org/10.1155/2018/7624857</u>
- 14. Teferi S, Sahlemariam Z, Mekonnen M, et al. Uropathogenic bacterial profile and antibiotic susceptibility pattern of isolates among gynecological cases admitted to Jimma Medical Center, South West Ethiopia. Sci Rep. 2023;13(1):e7078. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-023-34048-4
- Uddin TM, Chakraborty AJ, Khusro A, et al. Antibiotic resistance in microbes: History, mechanisms, therapeutic strategies and prospects. J Infect Public Health. 2021;14(12):1750– 1766. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jiph.2021.10.</u> 020
- 16. Khan A, Saraf VS, Siddiqui F, et al. Multidrug resistance among uropathogenic clonal group A E. Coli isolates from Pakistani women with uncomplicated urinary tract infections. *BMC Microbiol.* 2024;24(1):e74. <u>https://doi.org/10.1186/s12866-024-03221-8</u>
- 17. Fatima S, Akbar A, Irfan M, et al. Virulence factors and antimicrobial

resistance of Uropathogenic Escherichia coli eq101 UPEC isolated from UTI patient in Quetta, Baluchistan, Pakistan. *BioMed Res Int*. 2023;2023(1):e7278070. https://doi.org/10.1155/2023/7278070

- Al-Shahrani GS, Belali TM. Frequency of drug-resistant bacterial isolates among pregnant women with UTI in maternity and children's hospital, Bisha, Saudi Arabia. Sci Rep. 2024;14(1):e7397. <u>https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-024-58275-5</u>
- Morris CJ, Rohn JL, Glickman S, Mansfield KJ. Effective treatments of UTI—is intravesical therapy the future? *Pathogens*. 2023;12(3):e417. <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/pathogens120</u> <u>30417</u>
- Nobel F, Akter S, Jebin R, et al. Prevalence of multidrug resistance patterns of Escherichia coli from suspected urinary tract infection in Mymensingh city, Bangladesh. J Adv Biotechnol Exp Ther. 2021;4(3):256– 264. https://doi.org/10.5455/jabet.2021.d12

<u>6</u>

- 21. Rasool MS, Siddiqui F, Ajaz M, Rasool SA. Prevalence and antibiotic resistance profiles of gram negative bacilli associated with urinary tract infections (UTIs) in Karachi, Pakistan. *Pak J Pharm Sci.* 2019;32(6). <u>https://doi.org/10.36721/PJPS.2019.3</u> <u>2.6.REG.2617-2623.1</u>
- Roy R, Tiwari M, Donelli G, Tiwari V. Strategies for combating bacterial biofilms: a focus on anti-biofilm agents and their mechanisms of action. *Virulence*. 2018;9(1):522–554.

https://doi.org/10.1080/21505594.201 7.1313372

- Zavala-Cerna MG, Segura-Cobos M, Gonzalez R, et al. The clinical significance of high antimicrobial resistance in community-acquired urinary tract infections. Can J Infect Dis Med Microbiol. 2020;2020(1):e2967260. https://doi.org/10.1155/2020/2967260
- 24. Mekonnen S, Tesfa T, Shume T, Tebeje F, Urgesa K, Weldegebreal F. Bacterial profile, their antibiotic susceptibility pattern, and associated factors of urinary tract infections in children at Hiwot Fana Specialized University Hospital, Eastern Ethiopia. *PLOS ONE*. 2023;18(4):e0283637. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0 283637
- 25. Dasgupta C, Rafi MA, Salam MA. High prevalence of multidrug-resistant uropathogens: A recent audit of antimicrobial susceptibility testing from a tertiary care hospital in Bangladesh. *Pak J Med Sci.* 2020;36(6):1297–1302. https://doi.org/10.12669/pjms.36.6.29 43
- 26. Ahsan A, Zahra FT, Asif A, et al. Antibiotic resistance and virulence genes in *Escherichia coli* isolated from patients in a tertiary care hospital: implications for clinical management and public health. *BioSci Rev.* 2024;6(3):106–121. https://doi.org/10.32350/bsr.63.07
- 27. Bilal H, Khan MN, Rehman T, et al. Antibiotic resistance in Pakistan: a systematic review of past decade. *BMC* Infect Dis. 2021;21:e244.



https://doi.org/10.1186/s12879-021-05906-1

- Baunoch D, Luke N, Wang D, et al. Concordance between antibiotic resistance genes and susceptibility in symptomatic urinary tract infections. *Infect Drug Resist.* 2021;14:3275– 3286. https://doi.org/10.2147/IDR.S323095
- Toosky MN, Grunwald JT, Pala D, et al. A rapid, point-of-care antibiotic susceptibility test for urinary tract infections. J Med Microbiol. 2020;69(1):52–62. https://doi.org/10.1099/jmm.0.001119
- Muhammad A, Khan SN, Ali N, Rehman MU, Ali I. Prevalence and antibiotic susceptibility pattern of uropathogens in outpatients at a tertiary care hospital. *New Microbes New Infect.* 2020;36:e100716. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nmni.2020.1 00716
- 31. Ogodo AC, Agwaranze DI, Daji M, Aso RE. Chapter 13 - Microbial techniques and methods: basic techniques and microscopy. In: Egbuna C, Patrick-Iwuanyanwu KC, Shah MA, Ifemeje JC, Rasul A, eds. Analytical Techniques in Biosciences. Academic Press: 2022:201-220. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-822654-4.00003-8
- 32. Karah N, Rafei R, Elamin W, et al. Guideline for urine culture and biochemical identification of bacterial urinary pathogens in low-resource settings. *Diagnostics*. 2020;10(10):e832. <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/diagnostics101</u> 00832
- 33. Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute. CLSI M100: Performance

Standards for Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing. Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute; 2024.

- 34. Storme O, Saucedo JT, Garcia-Mora A, Dehesa-Dávila M, Naber KG. Risk factors and predisposing conditions for urinary tract infection. *Ther Adv Urol.* 2019;11:e1756287218814382. <u>https://doi.org/10.1177/175628721881</u> <u>4382</u>
- 35. Ejaz SM, Vohra MS, Raza Y. Prevalence and antibiotic susceptibility pattern of isolates from patients with urinary tract infection in Karachi. *Microbiol Immunol Commun.* 2022;1(1):7–19. <u>https://doi.org/10.55627/mic.001.01.0</u> <u>179</u>
- 36. Ahmad S, Ali F, Qureshi S, et al. The evaluation of antibiotic susceptibility pattern and associated risk factors of UTI in tertiary care hospital of Peshawar. *Pak J Pharm Sci.* 2022;35:897–903. <u>https://doi.org/10.36721/PJPS.2022.3</u> 5.3.SP.897-903.1
- 37. Asim A, Javed R, Aziz A, et al. Incidence of culture proven UTI and antimicrobial sensitivity pattern among the adult population in the local area. J Pak Soc Intern Med. 2024;5(2):496–501.
- 38. Islam MA, Islam MR, Khan R, et al. Prevalence, etiology and antibiotic resistance patterns of communityacquired urinary tract infections in Dhaka, Bangladesh. *PLOS ONE*. 2022;17(9):e0274423. <u>https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0</u> <u>274423</u>
- 39. Bhargava K, Nath G, Bhargava A, Kumari R, Aseri GK, Jain N. Bacterial profile and antibiotic susceptibility

BioScientific Review Volume 7 Issue 1, 2025 pattern of uropathogens causing urinary tract infection in the eastern part of Northern India. *Front Microbiol*. 2022;13:e965053. <u>https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2022.96</u> 5053

40. Joya M, Aalemi AK, Baryali AT. Prevalence and antibiotic susceptibility of the common bacterial uropathogens among UTI patients in French Medical Institute for Children. Infect Drug Resist. 2022;15:4291– 4297.

https://doi.org/10.2147/IDR.S353818

- 41.Hrbacek J, Cermak P, Zachoval R. Current antibiotic resistance trends of uropathogens in central Europe: survey from a tertiary hospital urology department 2011–2019. *Antibiotics*. 2020;9(9):e630. <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/antibiotics909</u> 0630
- 42. Younas MR, Imran M. Bacterial profile and antimicrobial resistance of uropathogenic Enterobacteriaceae. Urology. 2019;97:24–26
- Faine BA, Rech MA, Vakkalanka P, et al. High prevalence of fluoroquinolone-resistant UTI among US emergency department patients diagnosed with urinary tract infection, 2018–2020. Acad Emerg Med. 2022;29(9):1096–1105. https://doi.org/10.1111/acem.14545
- 44. Meena P, Rana DS, Bhalla AK, et al. Clinical profile and predisposing factors for the development of urinary tract infection during the first 3 months postrenal transplantation: a tertiary care hospital experience. *Indian J Transplant*. 2020;14(2):104–110. https://doi.org/10.4103/ijot.ijot_66_19

- 45. Jalil MB, Al Atbee MYN. The prevalence of multiple drug resistance *Escherichia coli* and *Klebsiella pneumoniae* isolated from patients with urinary tract infections. *J Clin Lab Anal*. 2022;36(9):e24619. https://doi.org/10.1002/jcla.24619
- 46. Dadi BR, Abebe T, Zhang L, Mihret A, Abebe W, Amogne W. Distribution of virulence genes and phylogenetics of uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* among urinary tract infection patients in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. *BMC Infect Dis.* 2020;20(1):e108. <u>https://doi.org/10.1186/s12879-020-</u> 4844-z
- 47. Girija S, Priyadharsini JV, Paramasivam A. Prevalence of *Acb* and *non-Acb* complex in elderly population with urinary tract infection (UTI). *Acta Clin Belg.* 2021;76(2):106–112. https://doi.org/10.1080/17843286.201 <u>9.1669274</u>
- Pardeshi P. Prevalence of urinary tract infections and current scenario of antibiotic susceptibility pattern of bacteria causing UTI. *Indian J Microbiol Res.* 2018;5(3):334–338. <u>https://doi.org/10.18231/2394-5478.2018.0070</u>
- Odoki M, Aliero AA, Tibyangye J, et al. Prevalence of bacterial urinary tract infections and associated factors among patients attending hospitals in Bushenyi District, Uganda. Int J Microbiol. 2019;2019(1):e4246780. https://doi.org/10.1155/2019/4246780
- Govindarajan DK, Kandaswamy K. Virulence factors of uropathogens and their role in host pathogen interactions. *Cell Surf.* 2022;8:e100075.



https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tcsw.2022.10 0075

- 51. Fatima T, Rafiq S, Iqbal A, Husnain S. Prevalence and antibiogram of MDR *E. coli* strains isolated from UTI patients—1-year retrospective study at Nishtar Medical Hospital, Multan. *SN Compr Clin Med.* 2020;2(4):423–431. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s42399-020-00246-8</u>
- 52. Bullens M, de Cerqueira Melo A, Raziq S, et al. Antibiotic resistance in patients with urinary tract infections in Pakistan. *Public Health Action*. 2022;12(1):48–52. <u>https://doi.org/10.5588/pha.21.0071</u>
- 53. Acharjee M. Prevalence of urinary tract infection among the patients admitted in the Brahmanbaria Medical College Hospital in Bangladesh. *Merit Res J Med Med Sci.* 2020;8:111–119. <u>https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.38324</u> <u>18</u>
- 54. Idrees MM, Rasool MF, Imran I, et al. A cross-sectional study to evaluate antimicrobial susceptibility of uropathogens from South Punjab, Pakistan. Infect Drug Resist. 2022;15:1845–1855. <u>https://doi.org/10.2147/IDR.S356489</u>
- 55. Ejaz H, Imran M, Zafar A, et al. Phenotypic Characterisation of Carbapenemase-Producing Escherichia coli Isolated from a Tertiary Care Paediatric Hospital. Int Med Jl. 2020;27(2):e155.
- 56. Rizvi ZA, Jamal AM, Malik AH, Zaidi SMJ, Rahim NUA, Arshad D. Exploring antimicrobial resistance in agents causing urinary tract infections at a tertiary care hospital in a developing country. *Cureus*.

2020;12(8):e9735. https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.9735

- 57. Hasan T. Extended spectrum beta lactamase *E. coli* isolated from UTI patients in Najaf Province, Iraq. *Int J Pharm Res.* 2020;17(1):00–00. <u>https://doi.org/10.31838/ijpr/2020.12.</u> <u>04.049</u>
- 58. Sendra E, Montesinos IL, Rodriguez-Alarcón A, et al. Comparative analysis of complicated urinary tract infections caused by extensively drug-resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and extended-spectrum β-lactamaseproducing *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. *Antibiotics*. 2022;11(11):e1511. <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/antibiotics111</u> <u>11511</u>
- 59. Karruli A, Catalini C, D'Amore C, et al. Evidence-based treatment of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* infections: a critical reappraisal. *Antibiotics*. 2023;12(2):e399. <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/antibiotics120</u> 20399
- Gajdács M, Ábrók M, Lázár A, et al. Increasing relevance of Grampositive cocci in urinary tract infections: a 10-year analysis of their prevalence and resistance trends. *Sci Rep.* 2020;10:e17658. <u>https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-74834-y</u>

20 -