Evaluation of bacterial profile, antibiotic susceptibility patterns, detection of ESBL and MBL producers and identification of quinolone and colistin resistance genes among the patients of catheter associated urinary tract infection (CA-UTI) in ICU of a tertiary hospital in Bangladesh

Saiful Alam SK.¹ Chowdhury MH.² Naser MJA ³ Shamsuzzaman SM.⁴

Abstract:

Background: In ICU, catheter associated urinary tract infections (CA-UTI) are considered as principal threats to patient's health and are the leading cause of morbidity and mortality. It is superimposed by the emergence of multi drug resistant (MDR) organisms which ultimately leads to social and economic burden on the community. Methodology: Samples were collected from clinically suspected patients of CA-UTI in ICU. Sample screening, bacterial isolation and antibiotic susceptibility were done by standard procedures. Quinolone, colistin, imipenem and tigecycline resistance genes were identified by PCR. Result: One hundred fifty urine samples were taken from clinically suspected CA-UTI patients of ICU. CA-UTI was found in 72 (48%) after standard primary screening. Among the common pathogens 30 (41.67%) were E. coli, 20 (27.78%) were Pseudomonas spp., 13 (18.05%) were Klebsiella spp., and 1 (1.38%) coagulase negative Staphylococcus (CoNS) were found. In this study, colistin showed the best sensitivity while ceftriaxone, ciprofloxacin amoxiclav and gentamicin were not promising against the isolated organisms causing CA-UTI in ICU of DMCH. Conclusion: The high proportions of CA-UTI in ICU highlights the need of regular antimicrobial surveillance program to prevent emergence of multi drug resistant (MDR) organisms.

Key words: Catheter associated urinary tract infection, Device associated infection.

SMAMC Journal, 2020; 6(1):05-13

Introduction:

Catheter associated urinary tract infection (CA-UTI) has significant clinical and economic consequences and is associated with high mortality, even after controlling the illness and comorbidities. Although, septicemia due to extension of the urinary pathogen into the blood is not common but if occurs, has a

fatality of 32.8%.² CA-UTI in ICU varies from 8 to 21% of the total nosocomial infections in ICU.³ Recognized risk factors for CA-UTI includes older age, female sex, diabetes mellitus and prolonged catheterization.⁴ It occurs commonly by bacteria or candida and is almost inevitable in patients who require urinary catheter for more than 5 days.⁵

- 1. Dr. S. K Saiful Alam M.Phil., Assistant Professor, Department of Microbiology, Shaheed Tajuddin Ahmad Medical College, Gazipur; (Corresponding Author) Mobile: 01758077921, Email: csalam1975@gmail.com
- 2. Dr. Moinul Hossain Chowdhury FCPS, Assistant Professor, Department of Anesthesia and ICU, Shaheed Tajuddin Ahmad Medical College Hospital, Gazipur;
- 3. Dr. Mohammad Jamal Abdel Naser M.Phil., Assistant Professor, Department of Microbiology, Rangpur Medical College, Rangpur;
- 4. Dr. S. M. Shamsuzzaman Ph.D., Professor and Head of the Department of Microbiology, Dhaka Medical College, Dhaka.

Common pathogens responsible for CA-UTIs in ICU includes E. coli, Pseudomonas spp., Proteus spp., Klebsiella spp., Enterobacter spp, CoNS and Candida spp.⁶

Methodology:

This was a cross-sectional study under the Department of Microbiology, Dhaka Medical College, during a period of 1st July 2015 to 30th June 2016. Protocol was approved by the research review committee (RRC) and ethical review committee (ERC) of Dhaka Medical College. Samples were taken from 150 clinically suspected patients of CA-UTI, screened by standard procedure and finally 72 samples were selected for this study. Antimicrobial susceptibility test was done by disk diffusion method following CLSI 2015.⁷

Clinical definition of CA-UTI:⁸ Patients with urinary catheter for more than 48 hours plus at least two of the clinical features as fever (>38°C), urgency, frequency, dysuria, or suprapubic tenderness with no other recognized cause.

Sample collection: At first, Foley's catheter was clamped 4 to 5 cm distal to its exit from the genital organ and waited for at least 15 minutes for collection of fresh urine. The site of puncture of the catheter was washed properly by 70% alcohol. Then a sterile syringe was inserted into the catheter at 45° angle and 10 ml freshly passed urine was drawn.

Screening of samples:

Microscopic criteria: 10 50 μ l of well mixed uncentrifuged urine sample was placed on a clean, grease free, glass slide and covered with coverslip to examine under the high power (40X) microscope. Presence of 1 pus cell / 7 HPFs of uncentrifuged urine corresponds to 10^4 leucocytes / ml and was included in this study as a case of CA-UTI.

Microbiological criteria (Semi-quantitative culture):¹¹ Blood agar, chocolate agar and MacConkey's agar (MCA) plates were streaked in 3 sectors by well mixed urine samples using a sterile wire loop (contains .01 ml of fluid) and incubated at 37°C overnight. Growths were classified

as rare, light, moderate or heavy. Only moderate and heavy growths were considered as significant growth.

Report	Number o	Number of colonies				
	1 st	$2^{\rm nd}$	3^{rd}			
	Sector	Sector	Sector			
Rare	<10	0	0			
Light	≥10	<5	0			
Moderate	≥10	≥5	<5			
Heavy	≥10	≥5	≥5			

Determination of MIC:¹² It was done by agar dilution method using imipenem stock solution prepared by mixing 100 ml distilled water with 500 mg imipenem injection to make a concentration of 5 mg/ml. Then, 50 ml sterile Mueller-Hinton agar (MHA) was impregnated with 10 μl, 20 μl, 40 μl, 80 μl, 160 μl, 320 μl, 640 μl and 1280 μl of imipenem stock solution to achieve concentration of 1 μg/ml, 2 μg/ml, 4 μg/ml, 8 μg/ml, 16 μg/ml, 32 μg/ml, 64 μg/ml and 128 μl/ml respectively. To obtain 104cfu/spot on the agar surface, 1:10 dilution of 0.5 McFarland turbidity of test inoculums was placed on MHA plates. After incubation at 37°C overnight, the lowest concentration of antibiotic impregnated MHA showing no visible growth was considered as the MIC of imipenem.

Detection of ESBL producers by double disc synergy (DDS) test: 13 Two discs, one containing ceftazidime (30 μ gm) and the other containing amoxicillin plus clavulanic acid (20 $\mu gm+10~\mu gm$) were placed 20 mm apart (center to center) on MHA plate swiped with 0.5 McFarland turbidity of the test organism and incubated at $37^{\circ}C$ for 24 hours. A clear extension of the edge of zone of inhibition around the ceftazidime disc, towards the amoxiclav disc was interpreted as ESBL producer.

Detection of MBL producers by Double disc synergy (DDS) test: ¹⁴ Two discs, one containing imipenem (10 μ gm) and the other soaked with 20 μ l of Tris-EDTA (1 M Tris-HCL and 0.1 M EDTA, P^H 8.0) plus 20 μ l of 1:320 diluted 2- mercaptopropionic acid (MPA) were placed 10

mm apart in MHA plate swiped with 0.5 McFarland turbidity of test the organism and incubated at 37°C for 24 hours. Extension of the edge of inhibition of imipenem disc towards the Tris-EDTA-MPA disc indicates MBL producer.

Detection of MBL producers by combined disc (CD) assay: ¹⁵ Two imipenem discs (10 μ gm) were placed on MHA plate swiped with 0.5 McFarland turbidity of test organism. One of the 2 discs was impregnated with 5 μ l of 0.5 M EDTA solution (750 μ gm EDTA) and incubated at 370C for 24 hours. If the diameter of zone of inhibition around the imipenem-EDTA disc is \geq 6 mm compared to that of the imipenem disc without EDTA, was interpreted as MBL producer.

DNA extraction:¹⁶ Three hundred microliter distilled water was added with pellet in the eppendorf tube and vortexed. Then it was heated at 100°C for 10 minutes in a heat block and was placed in an ice pack for 5 minutes. Finally, the eppendorf tube was centrifuged at 13000 rpm for 6 minutes at 4°C and the supernatant was preserved at -20°C for PCR.

Primers of this study

Quinolone resistance genes

Gen e		Sequence (5'-3')	Size (bp)
QnrA	F	ATTTCTCACGCC AGGATTTG	
	R	GATCGGCAAAGGTTAGGTCA	516
QnrB	F	GATC G T G A A A G C C A G A A A G G	
	R	ACG AT GC CT G GT A G TT G T C C	469
QnrS	F	ACG A C A TT C G T C A A CT G C A A	
	R	TAAATTGGCACCCTGTAGGC	417

Colistin resistance genes

blaNDM-1

blaKP C

Gen e			Sequence (5'-3')	Size	(bp)
pmrA	F	ATGA	C A A A A A T C T T G A T G A T T G A		
	R	TTAT	GATTGCCC CAAACGGTA	675	
pmrB	F	GACT	G ATTTGG G GC ACCTC		
	R	TGTT	T C A T G T A A A T G T A A A A C T T T	1304	
MBL ge	enes	3			
Gen	e		Sequence (5'-3')	Size	(bp)
blaIM P		F	GGAATAGAGTGGTTAAYTCT	18	8
		R	CCAAACYACTASGTTATCT		
blaVIM		F	GAT G G T G T T T G G T C G C A T A	39	0

CGA AT GC GC AG CA CCA G

ACCGC CTGG A CCG ATG A CCA

GCCAAAGTTGGGCGCGGTTG

CGTCTAGTTCTGCTGTCTTG

CTTGTCATCCTTGTTAGGCG

498

ESBL genes			
Gen e		Primer Sequence (5'-3')	Size (bp)
blaTEM	F	TCGGG GA A ATGTGCG	966
	R	TGCTT A ATCAGTGAGGCACC	
blaSH V	F	AGG ATTG ACTG CCTTTTTG	392
	R	ATTT G CT G A T T T C G CT C G	
blaCT X M- 15	F	CACAC GT G G A A TT T A G G G A CT	996
	R	GCCGTCTAAGGCGATAAACA	
blaOXA - 1	F	ACCAG ATTCCAACTTTCAA	598
	R	TCTTGG CTTTTATGCTTG	

Result:

In this study, of 48% CA-UTI cases detected in ICU of DMCH, isolated pathogens were E. coli 30 (41.67%), Pseudomonas spp. 20 (27.78%), Klebsiella spp. 13 (18.05%), Proteus spp. 6 (8.33%), Enterobacter spp. 2 (2.78%) and 1 (1.38%) were CoNS (Table-1 and 2).

Table-1: Bacterial profile among urine samples from catheterized patient of ICU (N = 72)

Bacteria	Total number of each bacteria
	n (%)
Escherichia coli	30 (41.67)
Pseudomonas spp	20 (27.78)
Klebsiella spp	13 (18.05)
Proteus spp.	6 (8.33)
Enterobacter spp.	2 (2.78)
Coagulase negative	1 (1.38)
staphylococcus (CoNS)	
Total	72 (100)

Of the 30 isolated E. coli in ICU, 86.67% were resistant to ceftriaxone, gentamicin and amoxiclav, 80% to ciprofloxacin, 70% to ceftazidime and 66.67% were resistant to piperacillin- tazobactam. Of the 20 isolated Pseudomonas spp., all were resistant to ciprofloxacin, 90% were resistant to ceftriaxone and tigecycline, and 85% to gentamicin, ceftazidime and amoxiclav. Among 13 Klebsiella spp. all were resistant to ceftriaxone, ceftazidime and amoxiclav, 76.92% to ciprofloxacin and gentamicin. Of the 6 Proteus spp., all were resistant to ceftriaxone, ciprofloxacin, colistin and tigecycline. Of the 2 Enterobacter spp. all were resistant to ceftriaxone. Only 1 CoNS was isolated

Table 2: Primary screening to detect CA-UTI (N=150)

Samples from suspected	Screening of sam	ples			Total number of confirmed CA-UTI cases n (%)
CA-UTI patients	Microscopic criteria N = 150 Rejected		logical criteria antitative culture) Rare and light growth	Moderate and heavy growth	n (70)
150	40	110	38	72	72(48%)

which was resistant to ceftriaxone, ciprofloxacin and nitrofurantoin while sensitive to gentamicin, colistin, tigecycline, imipenem and cefoxitin. In this study, colistin showed the best sensitivity while ceftriaxone, ciprofloxacin amoxiclav and gentamicin were almost invalid against the isolated organisms causing CA-UTI in ICU of DMCH (Table-4).

Table-3: Detection of Quinolone and Colistin resistance genes by PCR

Drug resistance genes	Detected	genes	
Quinolone resistance	Qnr A N (%)	QnrB N (%)	QnrS N (%)
genes	13 (20.97)	27 (43.55)	33 (53.23)
Colistin resistance	Pmr A N (%)	Pmr B N (%)	Pmr A + Pmr B N (%)
genes	9(52.94)	5(29.41)	2 (11.76)

Of the 62 quinolone resistant isolates, 53.23% were positive for QnrS gene while 43.55% and 20.97% were positive for QnrB and QnrA genes respectively. Of the colistin resistance genes, pmrA was found in 52.94% while pmrB in 29.41% of the 17 colistin resistant isolates. Of the 60 ESBL producers, blaCTXM-15 was found in 75%, blaOXA-1 in 38.24%, blaTEM in 18.34% and blaSHV in 11.67% of

the isolates. Among the different MBL genes, blaNDM-1 was found in 44.33%, blaVIM and blaKPC in 17.24% each and blaIMP in 13.79% of the 29 carbapenemase producers(Table-3 and 5).

Discussion:

This study revealed 48% CA-UTI in ICU which coincides with El-Din Hamdy¹⁷ on 2014 where 46% CA-UTI was reported. Similarly, Safdar¹⁸ on 2001 reported 40 CA-UTI in ICU of USA. In contrast, Dasgupta¹⁹ reported 27.59% CA-UTI on 2015 in ICU of a tertiary hospital in India that differs significantly with this study. This might be due to the fact that, the number of CA-UTI samples was 72 in this study while it was only 29 in the study by Dasgupta¹⁹. Moreover, the comorbidities of majority of ICU patients of this study might have caused longer period of catheterization and thus greater chance of CA-UTI.

Among the common pathogens causing CA-UTI in ICU, 41.67% were Escherichia coli, 27.78% were Pseudomonas spp. and 18.05% were Klebsiella spp. Similar data were reported by El-Din-Hamdy¹⁷ on 2014 where, 45.68% were E. coli, 29.07% were Pseudomonas spp. and 15.78% were Klebsiella spp. Among 30 isolated E. coli, 86.67% were resistant to ceftriaxone; amoxiclav and gentamicin while 80% to ciprofloxacin. Similar data were reported by Sattar²⁰ on 2016 from DMCH where 81.13% E. coli were

Table 4: Antibiotic susceptibility pattern of major ICU pathogens (n=72)							
Disc	E. coli (N = 30)	Pseudomonas $(N = 20)$	Klebsiella $(N = 13)$	Proteus $(N = 6)$	Enterobacter $(N = 2)$	$ \begin{array}{l} \text{CoNS} \\ \text{(N = 1)} \end{array} $	
code	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	
CRO	26(86.67)	18(90.00)	13(100.00)	6(100.00)	2 (100.00)	1(100.00)	
CIP	24(80.00)	20(100.00)	10 (76.92)	6(100.00)	1 (50.00)	1(100.00)	
CN	26(86.67)	17(85.00)	10(76.92)	<mark>6</mark> (50.00)	2(100.00)	0(00.00)	
CT	3(10.00)	6(30.00)	2 (15.38)	6(100.00)	0 (00.00)	0(00.00)	
CAZ	21(70.00)	17(85.00)	13(100.00)	6(100.00)	2(100.00)	1(100.00)	
TGC	3(10.00)	18(90.00)	2 (15.38)	6(100.00)	0(00.00)	0(00.00)	
AMC	26(86.67)	17(85.00)	13(100%)	4(66.67)	2(100.00)	0(00.00)	
IPM	11(36.67)	9(45.00)	4 (30.79)	4(66.67)	1(50.00)	0(00.00)	
FOX	11(36.67)	11(55.00)	7(53.84)	5(83.33)	1(50.00)	0(00.00)	
F	8(26.67)	12(60.00)	5 (38.46)	4(66.67)	1(50.00)	1(100.00)	
TZP	20(66.67)	2(10.00)	8 (61.15)	4(66.67)	2(100.00)	1(100.00)	

CRO- Ceftriaxone CIP- Ciprofloxacin, CN- Gentamicin CT- Colistin, CAZ- Ceftazidime, TGC- Tigecycline, AMC- Amoxicillin-Clavulanic acid, IPM-Imipenem, FOX- Cefoxitin, F- Nitrofurantoin, TZP- Piperacillin-tazobactam

resistant to ceftriaxone followed by 82.36% were resistant to amoxiclav. Of the 20 isolated Pseudomonas spp. 100% were resistant to ciprofloxacin, 90% to tigecycline and ceftriaxone while 85% were resistant to ceftazidime, amoxiclav and gentamicin. It was in agreement with Akter²¹ from DMCH on 2014 who reported that 95.83% Pseudomonas spp. were resistant to ciprofloxacin, 83.33% to ceftriaxone and ceftazidime, 91.66% to gentamicin and amoxiclav. In contrast, Goel²² reported on 2012 that 82.35% Pseudomonas spp. was resistant to ciprofloxacin. The higher resistance of Pseudomonas spp.against ciprofloxacin in the present study might be due to frequent use of quinolones in treatment of UTI.

Present study also observed 45.71% imipenem resistant Pseudomonas spp. which was in agreement with Goel²² on 2012 where 47.06% Pseudomonas spp. were resistant to imipenem. In this study, 100% of the 13 Klebsiella spp. were resistant to ceftriaxone, ceftazidime and amoxiclay while 72.92% were resistant to ciprofloxacin and gentamicin. Similarly, study by Sattar²⁰ on 2016 reported that 100% of the isolated Klebsiella spp. was resistant to ceftriaxone, ceftazidime and amoxiclav. 73.33% to ciprofloxacin and 76.19% to gentamicin. This study reported that 30.76% of the 13 Klebsiella spp. were resistant to imipenem which correlates with Khatun²³ on 2014 who reported 27.50% imipenem resistant Klebsiella spp., whereas Mostafa²⁴ on 2016 reported 15.38% imipenem resistant Klebsiella spp. In this study, 100% of the six Proteus spp. was resistant to colistin This might be due to the fact that the isolated Proteus spp.

in this study were intrinsically resistant to colistin as we know that addition of L-Ara4N (4-amino-4-deoxy-L-arabinose) in the LPS of Proteus spp. is responsible for the development of its intrinsic resistance to colistin.²⁵

This study searched for quinolone and colistin resist ance genes as well as ESBL and MBL genes among the isolates of ICU causing CAUTI which revealed 53.23% QnrS, 43.55% QnrB and 20.97% QnrA genes among 62 quinolone resistant isolates. In accordance Das²⁶ on 2016 reported 59.57% QnrS, 49.65% QnrB and 23.40% QnrA. In contrast, Yugendran and Harish²⁷ on 2016 reported 15% QnrB and 10% QnrS gene. Higher proportion of quinolone genes in the present

Table 5: detected ESBL and MBL genes

Detected genes			
blaCTXM-15 N (%) 45 (75)	blaOXA-1 N (%) 23 (43.55)	blaTEM N (%) 11 (18.34)	blaSHV N (%) 7 (11.67)
blaNDM-1 N (%) 13	blaVIM N (%) 5 (17.24)	blaKPC N (%) 5	blaIMP N (%) 4 (13.79)
	blaCTXM-15 N (%) 45 (75) blaNDM-1 N (%)	blaCTXM-15 blaOXA-1 N (%) N (%) 45 23 (43.55) blaNDM-1 blaVIM N (%) N (%) 13 5	blaCTXM-15 blaOXA-1 blaTEM N (%) N (%) N (%) 45 23 11 (75) (43.55) (18.34) blaNDM-1 blaVIM blaKPC N (%) N (%) N (%) 13 5 5

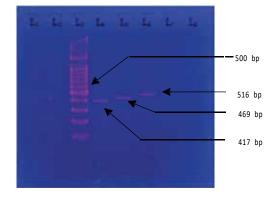


Figure 1: Amplified DNA of 417 bp for QnrS gene (Lane 4), DNA of 469 bp for QnrB gene (Lane 5), 516 bp for QnrA gene (Lane 6), 100 bp DNA ladder (Lane 3), negative control E. coli ATCC 25922. (Lane 8).

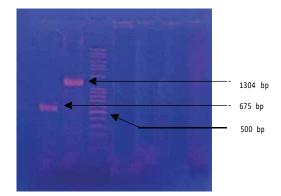


Figure 2: Amplified DNA of 675 bpfor pmrA gene(lane 2), DNA of 1304 bp for pmrB gene (lane 3), 1000 base pair DNA ladder (Lane 4), negative sample (Lane 5, 6 and 7), negative control E. coli ATCC 25922 (Lane 8).

study might be due to irrational use of quinolones specially ciprofloxacin in the recent past.²⁸ Quinolone resistance among gram positive bacteria occurs due to mutation in glrA and gyrA genes rather than Qnr genes²⁹ which reveals the reason of non- detection of quinolone resistance genes in the isolated CoNS.

Out of 17 phenotypically detected colistin resistant bacteria, pmrA gene was found in 52.94% while pmrB was found in 29.41% of the isolates. Similarly, Mostafa²⁴ reported 50% pmrA and 22.72% pmrB genes in her study on 2017. Present study revealed 44.83% blaNDM-1 and 17.24% blaVIM and blaKPC each of the 29 carbapenemase producers. In agreement to this, Sattar²⁰ reported 43.24% blaNDM-1, 16.22% blaVIM and 21.6% blaKPC on 2016. In Bangladesh, prevalence of blaNDM-1 is increasing as reflected by several studies such as 3.5% blaNDM-1 in 2011, ³⁰ 22.86% in 2012, ³¹ 43.24% in 2015²⁰ and 44.83% in the present study. This might be due to irrational use of carbapenem in the recent past due to emergence of resistance against cephalosporin and penicillin.

Conclusion:

In this study, the microbiological causes of CA-UTI in ICU of Dhaka Medical College hospital have been evaluated. Moreover, resistance patterns against commonly used drugs were also searched along with the genes responsible for the resistance. The hidden truth that was revealed by this study is that, the incidence of drug resistance is increasing specially in ICU which might be due to the indiscriminate use of antibiotics.

References:

1. Burton DC, Edwards JR, Gould CV. Trends in catheter- associated urinary tract infections in adult intensive care units-United States, 1990-2007. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol, 2011; 32: 748–756.

- 2. Chang R, Greene MT, Chenoweth. Epidemiology of hospital acquired urinary tract related bloodstream infection at a university hospital. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol, 2011; 32: 1127–1129.
- 3. Mladenović J, Veljović M, Šegrt Z et al. Catheter- associated urinary tract infection in a surgical intensive care unit. Vojnosanit Pregl, 2015; 72: 883–888.
- 4. Chenoweth C, Saint S. Preventing catheter associated urinary tract infections in the intensive care unit. Critical Care Clinics, 2013; 29: 19–32.
- 5. Jaggi N, Sissodia P. Multimodal supervision programme to reduce catheter associated urinary tract infections and its analysis to enable focus on labor and cost-effective infection control measures in a tertiary care hospital in India. J Clin Diagn Res, 2012; 6: 1372-1376.
- 6. Wagenlehner, FM, Loibl, E. Incidence of nosocomial urinary tract infections on a surgical intensive care unit and implications for management. Int J Antimicrob Agents, 2006; 28: 86–90.
- 7. Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute Performance Standards for Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing: Nineteenth Informational Supplement. CLSI document M100-S19. CLSI: Wayne, PA. 2009.
- 8. Horan TC, Andrus M, Dudeck MA. CDC/NHSN surveillance definition of health care-associated infection and criteria for specific types of infections in the acute care setting. Am J Infect Control, 2008; 36: 309-332.
- 9. Clinical guidelines obstetrics and gynecology. Management of bladder and urinary drainage apparatus, Department of health, Western Australia, 2015. Web page: http/www.Kemh.wa.gov.au/general/disclaime.html.

- 10. Collee G, Duguid P, Fraser G, Marmian P. editors,Mackey and MacCartney's Practical Medical Microbiology.Volume 2. 14th edition. Churchill LivingstonePublishers. Longman Singapore. 2003.
- 11. Craven DE, Chroneou A, Hjalmarson KI. Ventilator- associated tracheobronchitis: the impact of targeted antibiotic therapy on patient outcomes. Chest, 2009; 135: 521–528.
- 12. Andrews JM Determination of minimum inhibitory concentrations. J Antimicrob Chemother 2001; 48: 5-16.
- 13. Collee JG, Marr W. Specimen collection, culture containers and media. In: Collee JG, Frased AG, Marmion BP, Simmons A, (editors). Mackie and McCartney Practical Medical Microbiology, 14th eds. Churchil. Livingstone USA, 1996: 95-111.
- 14. Kim SY, Hong SG, Thomson KS. Convenient test using a combination of chelating agents for detection of metallo-beta-lactamases in the clinical laboratory J Clin Microbiol 2007; 45: 2798-2801.
- 15. Qu T, Zhang J, Wang J, Chen Yet al. Evaluation of phenotypic test for detection of MBL producing Pseudomonas aeruginosa strains in China. J Clin. Microbiol, 2009; 47:1136-1142.
- 16. Cheng S, Fockler C, Barnes WM, Higuchi R. Effective amplification of long targets from cloned inserts and human genomic DNA. Proc Natl Acad Sci, 1994; 91: 5695–5699.
- 17. El-Din-Hamdy, MS, Shabban M, Abdallah NG. Device associated infections and antimicrobial resistance patterns of isolated pathogens in surgical intensive care unit at Ain Sham University Hospital.

- Egyptian Journal of Medical Microbiology, 2014; 23:17-29.
- 18. Safdar N, Christopher J. Maki DG. Nosocomial infections in the intensive care unit associated with invasive medical devices. Current Infectious Disease Reports, 2001; 3:487–495.
- 19. Dasgupta S, Das S, Chawan NS, Hazra A. Nosocomial infections in the intensive care unit: Incidence, risk factors, outcome and associated pathogens in a public tertiary teaching hospital of Eastern India. Indian Journal of Critical Care Medicine, 2015; 19: 14-20.
- 20. Satter S. Phenotypic and genotypic characterization of extended spectrum β -lactamase, AmpC β -lactamases, carbapenemase and aminoglycoside modifying enzymes in Escherichia coli and Klebsiella species isolated from patients of Dhaka Medical College Hospital [M. Phil thesis], Dhaka Medical College; 2016
- 21. Akter S. Detection of bacterial causes of ventilator associated respiratory tract infection by culture and multiplex PCR with their antibiotic resistance pattern [M. Phil thesis],. Dhaka Medical College Hospital; 2014
- 22. Goel V, Hogade SA, Karadesai SG. Ventilator associated pneumonia in a medical intensive care unit: Microbial aetiology, susceptibility pattern of isolated microorganisms and outcome. Indian J Anaesth, 2012; 56: 558-562.
- 23. Khatun R. Phenotype and genotype of ESBL and carbapenemase producing bacterial isolates at DMCH [M.Phil thesis]. Dhaka Medical College; 2014
- 24. Mostofa HA. Colistin susceptibility patterns in

gram negative bacteria isolated from patients of Dhaka Medical College Hospital with distribution of antibiotic resistance genes among them [M. Phil thesis]. Dhaka Medical College; 2017

- 25. Olaitan AO, Morand S, Rolain JM. Mechanisms of polymyxin resistance: acquired and intrinsic resistance in bacteria. Frontiers in Microbiology, 2014; 5:1-18.
- 26. Das B. Detection of quinolone resistance Qnr genes and its association with extended spectrum β-lactamase, AmpC β-lactamase, carbapenemase genes and Qnr positive Enterobacteriaceae [M. Phil thesis]. Dhaka Medical College; 2016
- 27. Yugendran T, Harish BN. High incidence of plasmid- mediated quinolone resistance genes among ciprofloxacin-resistant clinical isolates of Enterobacteriaceae at a tertiary care hospital in Puducherry, India. Peer J, 2016; 4: 1-13.

- 28. Mamun KZ, Tabassum S, Shears P, Hart CA. A survey of antimicrobial prescribing and dispensing practices in rural Bangladesh. Mymensingh Med J, 2006; 15: 81-84.
- 29. Nordmann P, Poirel L. Emergence of plasmid-mediated resistance to quinolones in Enterobacteriaceae. J Antimicrob Chemother, 2005; 56:463–469.
- 30. Islam MA, Talukdar PK, Hoque A, Huq M, Nabi A, Ahmed D et al. Emergence of multidrug- resistant NDM-1 producing gram negative bacteria in Bangladesh. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis, 2012; 31: 2593-2600 31. Farzana R, Shamsuzzaman SM, Mamun KZ. Isolation and molecular characterization of New-Delhi metallo- β lactamase-1 producing super bug in Bangladesh. Journal of Infection on Developing Countries, 2013; 7: 161-16