



ANTIMICROBIAL RESISTANCE IN *E. COLI* AT BENUE STATE UNIVERSITY TEACHING HOSPITAL (BSUTH), MAKURDI, NIGERIA

Jombo GTA^{1*}, Ojo BO², Abba PO³

¹Department of Medical Microbiology and Parasitology, College of Health Sciences, Benue State University Makurdi, Nigeria.

²Department of Anatomical Pathology, College of Health Sciences, Benue State University Makurdi, Nigeria.

³Department of Medical Microbiology, Benue State University Teaching Hospital Makurdi, Nigeria.

Article Info

Received 29/12/2015

Revised 16/01/2016

Accepted 09/02/2016

Keywords :-

Antibacterial,
Escherichia coli,
Resistance .

ABSTRACT

The study reports three cases of extreme high rates of antimicrobial resistance of *Escherichia coli* isolates by the Microbiology laboratory within three weeks. This is based on findings from antimicrobial susceptibility reports on *Escherichia coli* of patients during routine laboratory procedures on submitted clinical samples in the first three weeks of March, 2014. Specimens were collected, transported, stored and processed using standard laboratory procedures, and susceptibility tests were carried out using modified Kirby-Bauer's method. Among the 11 antibiotics that are routinely tested for activity against *E.coli*, all the three isolates were resistant to amoxicillin, amoxicillin-clavulanic acid (augmentin), perfloxacin, cotrimoxazole. gentamicin, ciprofloxacin, ofloxacin, ceftriaxone, chloramphenicol, and cefuroxime but all were susceptible to Streptomycin. Empirical treatment of *E. coli* infections with third generation cephalosporins and quinolones should be carried out in line with the local sensitivity patterns of such drugs in order to avoid therapeutic failure with them.

INTRODUCTION

Antimicrobial resistance is increasingly becoming a major challenge in the management of both human and animal diseases world over [1,2]. The challenge associated with the management of life threatening infections such as tuberculosis, typhoid fever, Human Immunodeficiency virus and malaria among others are all traceable to high rates of treatment failure accessioned by equally high resistance [3-5]. Globally, antimicrobial resistance is believed to account for at least 150 million human deaths yearly with over 950 million prolonged illnesses with associated consequences [6-9].

This trend may be more worrisome in resource constrained settings where facilities are in adequate supply for proper susceptibility testing. In addition, with lack of experienced personnel for sensitivity testing, and paucity of records for intended tests, actual tests, and treatment failures, the actual impact may be much higher than documented [10,11].

Findings from Maiduguri showed the resistance pattern of *E. coli* to gentamicin, streptomycin, chloramphenicol, and sulphamethoxazole-trimethoprim to be 8.3%, 8.3%, 25.0% and 25.0% respectively [12]. In Ibadan on the other hand, *E. coli* was found to be 100% resistant to amoxicillin, clavulanate, co-trimoxazole and ampicillin with resistance to ofloxacin, gentamicin, nalidixic acid tetracycline in the range of 70%, 92%, 96%, and 88% respectively [13].

Corresponding Author

Jombo GTA

Email: - jombogodwin@yahoo.com

Research Article



The upsurge of *Escherichia coli* resistance over the past decade has equally thrown up another big challenge in the management of its infections in the hospital settings given its preponderance as the commonest *Enterobacteriaceae* recovered from clinical specimens [14,15]. In Spain a nationwide survey in 2006 showed *E.coli* Extended β -spectrum β -Lactamases (ESBL) acquisition of up to 52% [16], while in Australia 82% of *E. coli* ST131 strains expressed resistance when tested in vivo via mutagenesis of phospholipids [17]; and in India diarrhoeagenic *E.coli* (DEC) was responsible for a large number of paediatric deaths due to high resistance from gene acquisition [18].

In USA and China among liver transplant patients, it was found that *E.coli* was among the commonest Gram negative bacilli with the highest multiple-drug resistance including the aminoglycosides, quinolones and cephalosporins [19,20]. Similarly, Carbapenemases producing *E.coli* were recovered from ICUs in Greece, Spain and other European countries which had already shown resistance to higher quinolones and cephalosporins [21]. In Brazil and Argentina, similar high multiple resistance patterns of *E.coli* against newer generation penicillins and carbapenems were equally documented [22].

The outcome of antimicrobial susceptibility reports on *E.coli* at BSUTH within a span of three weeks prompted this study to document and discuss their spot findings.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study carried out at BSUTH was based on observations of antimicrobial susceptibility reports of *E. coli* within a span of three weeks (3rd to 24th) in March

2014 [23]. Specimens were collected, transported and processed using standard laboratory procedures. Susceptibility tests were carried out using modified Kirby-Bauer's disk diffusion methods. Culture broths' turbidity were gauged with 0.5 Mc-Farland's standard and antibiotic disks of 6mm diameters were used. The antibiotic concentrations of the discs were as follow: Amoxicillin (10 μ g), Amoxicillin-Clavulanic acid (20 μ g), Perfloracin (μ g), Cotrimoxazole (μ g). Gentamicin (10 μ g), Ciprofloxacin (5 μ g), Ofloxacin (5 μ g), Ceftriaxone (30 μ g), Chloramphenicol (30 μ g), Cefuroxime (30 μ g) and Streptomycin (10 μ g). Culture plates were incubated overnight at 36.5^oC [24]. Two of the isolates were from urine while the third was from a post operative wound swab.

RESULTS

The three persons from whom the *E.coli* isolates were recovered were all in patients, each had been on admission for at least five days. Two of the subjects were from urine samples while a third was from a post-operative site. All the subjects between the ages 25 to 55 years, two males and a female from whom *E.coli* was recovered from urine sample.

Three isolates of *E.coli* tested against 10 antibiotics during the period had the following antimicrobial susceptibility patterns. All the three isolates were resistant to the following antibiotics with corresponding concentrations in disks of 6mm diameters each: Amoxicillin (10 μ g), Amoxicillin-Clavulanic acid (20 μ g), Perfloracin (μ g), Cotrimoxazole (μ g). Gentamicin (10 μ g), Ciprofloxacin (5 μ g), Ofloxacin (5 μ g), Ceftriaxone (30 μ g), Chloramphenicol (30 μ g), and Cefuroxime (30 μ g) but all were susceptible to Streptomycin(10 μ g). (Table 1).

Table 1. Antimicrobial susceptibility patterns of three *E. coli* isolates at Benue state University Teaching Hospital, March 2014.

Antimicrobial	Susceptibility Report
Amoxicillin (10 μ g)	Resistant
Amoxicillin- Clavulanic acid (Augmentin) (20 μ g)	Resistant
Perfloracin (5 μ g)	Resistant
Cotrimoxazole (23.75 μ g)	Resistant
Gentamicin (10 μ g)	Resistant
Ciprofloxacin (5 μ g)	Resistant
Ofloxacin (Tarivid) (5 μ g)	Resistant
Ceftriaxone (Rocephin) (30 μ g)	Resistant
Chloramphenicol (30 μ g)	Resistant
Cefuroxime (Zinacef) (30 μ g)	Resistant
Streptomycin (10 μ g)	Susceptible

NB: Concentration of antibiotics in Discs of 6 millimetres given in parenthesis.

DISCUSSION

Among the three isolates of *E.coli*, only one was from an immunocompromised subject, the other two were not while none of them was diabetic. All the three *E. coli* isolates were resistant to all the antimicrobials tested

except streptomycin to which all were susceptible. This pattern of resistance cuts across third generation cephalosporins and quinolones, the group of drugs often reserved for empirical antimicrobial treatments in resource-



constrained settings [25]. Along with potentiated penicillins, they are often given as prophylactics in intra- or immediate post-operative periods [26]. This brings to fore that with the acclaimed potency of some of these antimicrobials some strains of *E.coli* may nevertheless be resistant to almost all commonly used antibiotics and clinicians need to be aware in the course of decisions on antimicrobial choices [27]. This pattern of resistance has severally been documented: in India *E.coli* was found to be 100%, 90.8%, 80.5%, 95.8% 73.3% and 72.5% resistant to nalidixic acid, ampicillin, doxycycline, co-trimoxazole, ofloxacin and ciprofloxacin respectively similar to the group of drugs tested in the present study[28]; in The Netherlands, resistance to beta- lactams and quinolones was found to increase dramatically from 6.6% to over 55.7% over a short period [29]; in South Korea, where multidrug-resistant (MDR) *E. coli* involving several beta-lactams and quinolones was documented although with reduced (16.8%) quinolone resistance[30]; and Ethiopia where all the *E. coli* isolates were $\geq 80.0\%$ resistant to erythromycin, amoxicillin and tetracycline with MDR involving quinolones and third generation cephalosporins [31]. Although findings from Germany [32], Egypt [33], and Brazil [34] showed generally higher susceptibility profiles of *E. coli* isolates, the incidence of MDR involving 2-6 antimicrobials was still not uncommon. The variations in the sources of the isolates- community-acquired versus nosocomial, level of antibiotic pressures in the local communities, local policies on antibiotics intake, and inherent rates of mutations of the associated *E.coli* strains could account for this difference. While still emphasizing carrying out sensitivity tests on even the assumed highly potent antibiotics to avoid therapeutic failure, local periodic antibiograms on them should be carried and made available as a guide in cases of emergency. A surveillance method should be put in place in the hospital to

periodically evaluate the emergence of resistant pathogens [35]. Also visitors and patients' relations should be adequately controlled in the hospital environment so as to prevent their colonization with these potential super bugs and eventual distribution in the larger community. The highly resistant *E.coli* strains recovered from these patients is most likely to have been acquired from the hospital environment (Nosocomial) in the course of their admission and antibiotic pressure coupled with the process of natural selection could have played a significant role in the emergence of this resistance pattern. This is not the first time the authors noticed these findings, however the frequency and scope of resistance has been on a steady increase and is gradually involving other bacterial species.

The relatively high susceptibility of the *E. coli* isolates to streptomycin could be attributed to the relatively lower rate of its abuse in the management of non-specific bacteria infections since it is generally reserved for treatment of tuberculosis[36].

CONCLUSION

This study has shown that *E. coli* could be resistant to all the antibiotics within a hospital setting, hence antimicrobials generally believed to be active should as well be subjected to periodic sensitivity testing, and such reports consulted during empirical treatment.

In both surgical and medical emergencies as well as for prophylaxis where *E. coli* may stand the chance of being among the commonest implicating bacteria, empirical antimicrobial prescriptions should depend on the most recent susceptibility pattern of isolates in the locality.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT: None

CONFLICT OF INTEREST:

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

REFERENCES

1. Howard DH, Scott RD, Packard R and Jones D. (2003). The global impact of drug resistance. *Clin Infect Dis*, 36(Suppl), S4-S10.
2. Hultner A, Harbarth S, Carlet J, Cosgrove S, Goossens H, Holmes A and Jarlier V *et al.* (2013). Antimicrobial resistance: a global view from the 2013 world healthcare-associated infections forum. *Antimicrob Resist and Infection Control*, 2, e31.
3. Laxminarayan R, Duse A, Wattal C and Zaidi AKM, Wertheim HFL, Sumpradit N, Vlieghe E, Hara GL *et al.* (2014). Antibiotic resistance-The need for global solutions. The Lancet Infectious Diseases Commission. <http://www.thelancet.com/infection>. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/s1473-3099\(13\)70318-9](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/s1473-3099(13)70318-9).
4. Laxminarayan R and Heymann DL. (2012). Challenges of drug resistance in the developing world. *BMJ*, 344, e1567.
5. Hollyway R, Mathai E, Sorensen T and Gray T. (2009). Community-based surveillance of antimicrobial use and resistance in resource-constrained settings: report on five pilot projects. Geneva: World Health Organization.
6. Goosens H and Lipstitch M. (2006). Global burden of antimicrobial resistance. *Adv Stud Med*, 6(7c), s644-s651.
7. Allegranzi B, Bagheri Nejad S, Combescure C, Graafmans W, Alar H and Donaldson L *et al.* (2011). Burden of endemic healthcare-associated infection in developing countries: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet*, 377(9761), 228-241.
8. Smith R and Coast J. (). The true cost of antimicrobial resistance. *BMJ*, 346, 2013, e1493.
9. Centre for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). (2015). Antimicrobial resistance threat report 2013. <http://www.cdc.gov/drugresistance/threat-report-2013/>.
10. Bagheri Nejad S, Allegranzi B, Syed SB, Ellis B and Pittet D. (2011). Healthcare-associated infection in Africa: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Bull World Health Organ*, 89(10), 757-765.



11. Nkang AO, Okonkwo IO, Mejeha OK, Adewale OG, Udeze AO, Fowofade A *et al.* (2009). Assessment of antibiotics susceptibility profiles of some selected clinical isolates from laboratories in Nigeria. *J Microbiol Antimicrobial*, 1(2), 19-26.
12. Moses AE, Egwu GO and Ameh JA. (2012). Antimicrobial resistant pattern of *E. coli* 0157 isolated from human cattle and surface water samples in northeast Nigeria. *J Veterinary Advances*, 2(5), 209-215.
13. Okesola AO and Aroundegebe TI. (2011). Antibiotic resistance pattern of uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* in South West Nigeria. *Afri J Med Med Sci*, 40(3), 235-238.
14. Rahman SR, Ahmed MF and Begun A. (2014). Occurrence of urinary tract infection in adolescent and adult women of shanty town in Dhaka city Bangladesh. *Ethiop J Health Sci*, 24(2), 145-152.
15. Song S, Kim C and Lim D. (2014). Clinical efficacy of ertapenem for recurrent cystitis caused by multidrug-resistant extended-spectrum β -lactamase-producing *Escherichia coli* in female outpatients. *Korean J Urol*, 55(4), 270-275.
16. Blanco J, Mora A, Mamani R, Lopez C, Blanco M and Dahbi G, *et al.* (2013). Four main varitypes among extended-spectrum- β -lactamase-producing isolates of *Escherichia coli* O25b:H4-B2-ST131: bacterial, epidemiological and clinical characteristics. *J Clin Microbiol*, 51(10), 3358-3367.
17. Pham MD, Peters KM, Sarkar S, Lukowski SW, Allsopp LP and Gomes D, *et al.* (2013). The serum resistance of a globally disseminated multidrug resistant uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* clone. *PLoS Genet*, 9(10), e1003834.
18. Agganwal P, Uppal B, Ghosh R, Prakash SK and Rajeshwari K. (2013). Highly resistant *Escherichia coli* as a common cause of Paediatric diarrhea in India. *J Health Popul Nutrition*, 31(3), 409-412.
19. Snyder JJ, Israni AK, Peng Y, Zhang L, Simon TA and Kasiske BL. (2009). Rates of first infection following kidney transplant in the United States. *Kidney Int*, 75, 317-326.
20. Shi SH, Kong HS, Xu J, Zhang WJ, Jia CK, Wang WL, Shen Y, Zhang M and Zheng SS. (2009). Multidrug resistant gram-negative bacilli as predominant bacteremic pathogens in liver transplant recipients. *Transpl Infect Dis*, 11, 405-412.
21. Hong T, Moland ES, Abdalhamid B, Hanson ND, Wang J, Sloan C, Fabian D, Farajallah A, Levine J and Thomson KS: (2005). *Escherichia coli*: development of carbapenem resistance during therapy. *Clin Infect Dis*, 40, e84-e86.
22. Kitchel B, Sundin DR and Patel JB: (2009). Regional dissemination of KPC-producing *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*, 53, 4511-4513.
23. Bauer AW, Kirby WMM, Sherris JC and Truck M. (1966). Antibiotic susceptibility testing by standardized single disc method. *Am J Clin Path*, 45, -496.
24. Baker FJ, Silverton RE and Pallister CJ. (2001). Routine bacteriological examination of specimens. In: Baker and Silverton's Introduction to Medical Laboratory Technology, Baker FJ, Silverton RE, Pallister CJ, eds. 7th edition, Edward Arnold, London, UK, 299-315.
25. Mushi MF, Mshana SE, Imirzalioglu C and Bwanga F. (2014). Carbapenemase genes among multidrug resistant Gram negative clinical isolates from a tertiary hospital in Mwanza, Tanzania. *Biomed Res Int*, 2014, e303104.
26. Santoro-Lopes G, Gouvea EF. (2014). Multidrug-resistant bacterial infections after liver transplantation: an over-growing challenge. *World J Gastroenterol*, 20(20), 6201-6210.
27. Rath S, Dubey D, Sahu MC and Padly RN. (2014). Surveillance of ESBL producing multidrug resistant *Escherichia coli* in a teaching hospital in India. *Asian Pac J Trop Dis*, 4(2), 140-149.
28. Aggarwal P, Uppal B, Ghosh R, Prakash SK and Rajeshwari K. (2013). High-resistant *E. coli* as a common cause of paediatric diarrhoea in India. *J Health Popul Nutr*, 31(3), 409-412.
29. Wintersdorff CJH, Penders J, Stobberingh EE, Lashof AMO, Hoebe CJA, Savelkoul PHM and Wolffs PFG. (2014). High rates of antimicrobial drug resistance gene acquisition after international travel, The Netherlands. *Emerg Int Infect Dis*, 20(4), 649-557.
30. Kim JB, Jung S, Hwang EC and Kwon DD. (2014). Prevalence of antibiotic-resistant bacteria on rectal swabs and factors affecting resistance to antibiotics in patients undergoing prostate biopsy. *Korean J Urol*, 55(3), , 201-206.
31. Kibret M and Abera B. (2014). Prevalence and antibiogram of bacterial isolates from urinary tract infections at Dessie Health Research Laboratory, Ethiopia. *Asia Pac J Trop Biomed*, 4(2), 164-168.
32. Meyer E, Schwab F, Schroeren-Boarsch B and Gastmeller P. (2010). Dramatic increase of third-generation cephalosporin-resistant *E. coli* in German intensive care units: secular trends in antibiotic drug use and bacterial resistance, 2001-2008. *Critical care*, 14, R13.
33. Aly MEA, Essam TM and Amin MA. (2012). Antibiotic resistance profile of *E. coli* strains isolated from clinical specimens and food samples in Egypt. *Int J Microbiol Res*, 3(3), 176-182.
34. Santo E, Salvador MM and Marin JM. (2007). Multidrug-resistant urinary tract isolates of *Escherichia coli* from RibeiraoPreto, Sao Paulo, Brazil. *Braz J Infect Dis*, 11(6).
35. Philippon A and Arlet G. (2006). Beta-Lactamases of Gram-negative bacteria: never-ending clock work. *Ann Biol Clin*, 64, 37-51.
36. Lawson L, Habib AG, Okobi MI, Idiong D, Olajide I and Emenyonu N, *et al.* (2010). Pilot study on multidrug-resistant tuberculosis in Nigeria. *Ann Afric Med*, 9(3), 184-187.

