



THE RESISTANCE OF
Pseudomonas aeruginosa
ISOLATED FROM CLINICAL
CASES TO ANTIMICROBIALS

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE COUNCIL OF THE COLLEGE OF
MEDICINE IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENTS OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE MASTER DEGREE OF
SCIENCE IN MICROBIOLOGY

BY/

Lena Fadhil Hamza AL-Gibouri

B.V.M.S.

September / ٢٠٠٦

Sha'ban / ١٤٢٧

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

اللَّهُ لَا إِلَهَ إِلَّا هُوَ الْحَيُّ الْقَيُّومُ لَا تَأْخُذُهُ سُنَّةٌ وَلَا نَوْمٌ لَهُ
 مَا فِي السَّمَوَاتِ وَمَا فِي الْأَرْضِ مَنْ ذَا الَّذِي يَشْفَعُ
 عِنْدَهُ إِلَّا بِإِذْنِهِ يَعْلَمُ مَا بَيْنَ أَيْدِيهِمْ وَمَا خَلْفَهُمْ وَلَا
 يُحِيطُونَ بِشَيْءٍ مِنْ عِلْمِهِ إِلَّا بِمَا شَاءَ وَسِعَ كُرْسِيُّهُ
 السَّمَوَاتِ وَالْأَرْضَ وَلَا يَئُودُهُ حِفْظُهُمَا وَهُوَ الْعَلِيُّ
 الْعَظِيمُ

صَدَقَ اللَّهُ الْعَلِيُّ الْعَظِيمُ

سورة البقرة – الآية (٢٥٥)



مقاومة بكتريا الزوائف الزنجارية

المعزولة من حالات سريرية

للمضادات الحيوية

رسالة مقدمة من قبل الطالبة

لينا فاضل حمزة الجبوري

بكالوريوس طب وجراحة بيطرية

الى

مجلس كلية الطب/ جامعة بابل

وهي جزء من متطلبات نيل درجة الماجستير

في علم الأحياء المجهرية

أيلول/ ٢٠٠٦

شعبان/ ١٤٢٧

الخلاصة

أجريت هذه الدراسة لغرض عزل و تشخيص بكتريا *P.aeruginosa* من حالات سريرية مختلفة شملت التهاب المجاري البولية ، حالات التهاب الاذن الوسطى والحروق وبيان مدى حساسيتها ل(٢٣) مضادا حيويا. تم مزج بعض تلك المضادات مع بعضها بتراكيز محددة وتم اختيار فعاليتها تجاه تلك العزلات . اضيفت لبعض المضادات بعض المواد الكيميائية وتم اختبار فعاليتها تجاه العزلات ايضا و اجريت مقارنة للنتائج بهدف تحديد الأكثر كفاءة .

المجموع الكلي لعزلات *P.aeruginosa* ٣٠ من مجموع (٢٦٠) عينة بواقع ١٠ من اصل (٣٢) عينة حروق , ١٠ من اصل (٥٨) عينة قيح اذن , ١٠ من اصل (١٧٠) عينة إدرار. من المرضى الراقدين في مستشفى الحلة التعليمي والمراجعين إلى نفس المستشفى خلال الفترة من تشرين الأول /٢٠٠٤ إلى أيار/٢٠٠٥ . تم تشخيص البكتريا من خلال نتائج الاختبارات التشخيصية التي تضمنت الصفات الخلوية ، الصفات الزرعية و الصفات البايوكيميائية. تم اختبار فعالية (٢٣) مضادا حيويا تجاه العزلات البكتيرية لتحديد مدى مقاومتها لها وذلك بطريقة الانتشار بالأقراص (Disk diffusion) وتبين أن العزلات البكتيرية أبدت مقاومة نسبية لمعظم المضادات تحت التجربة وعلى الترتيب :-

(١٠٠٪)penicillin,ampicillin,carbencillin, cefixime, tetracycline, doxycycline, chloramphenicol,erythromycin and rifampin,(٩٠٪)cefotaxime and co-trimoxazole,(٨٦.٧٪)gentamicin and ceftizoxime,(٨٠٪)ticarcillin,(٧٦.٧٪) piperacillin,(٧٠٪)cefepime,(٦٣.٣٪)colistin,(٦٠٪)aztreonam,(٥٦.٧٪)tobromycin,(٢٦.٧٪) ciprofloxacin and norfloxacin, (٢٠٪) amikacin and azithromycin .

وعلى ضوء تلك النتائج خلصت الدراسة الى ان العزلات التي تمت دراستها من النوع المقاوم للعديد من المضادات(MDRPA) (*Multi-drug-Resistant P.aeruginosa*) وان اغلبها متواجد في بيئة المستشفيات الأمر الذي يجعل هذه البيئة بؤرة للإصابة. اوضحت النتائج ان الجنس والعمر وطبيعة

تعاطي المضادات وفترة الرقود في المستشفى جميعها عوامل خطورة (Risk Factors) قد تساعد على الإصابة . ومن خلال تحليل النتائج تبين ان الحروق أكثر انواع الإصابات عرضة للتلوث بهذه البكتريا.

تم خلال الدراسة الكشف عن التركيز المثبط الأدنى (MIC) بطريقة (Macro-broth Dilution) ل(١٢) مضادا حيويا وتبين وجود تزايدا في التراكيز المثبطة الدنيا للمضادات الحيوية من قبل العزلات البكتيرية مما يدل على إنها من نوع (MDRPA) . كما تم خلال هذا البحث دراسة مزج المضادات بطريقة (Half-chess board) للكشف عن مدى تأثيرها على العزلات البكتيرية قيد الدراسة وقد اختير لهذا الغرض (١٠) مضادات هي

Penicillin, ampicillin, cefotaxime, ceftriaxone, ciprofloxacin, norfloxacin, amikacin, gentamicin, co-trimoxazole, rifampin.

وأظهرت النتائج تأثير تآزري بمستويات متفاوتة مقارنة بتأثيرها فرادا. تم اختبار مضادين من هذه المضادات وهما (gentamicin , ceftriaxone) للتعرف على درجة التآزر بينهما و بطريقة (Checker Board) ولوحظ ان الفعالية التآزرية القاتلة كانت كاملة (complete cidal) بالنسبة ل(٥) عزلات هي (O_{٢٥} , B_{٣٠} , B_{١٢} , U_{٢٥} , U_{٢٤}) وتآزرية جزئية (partial synergy) بالنسبة لعزلة واحدة هي (O_{٥٥}) . وتم خلال البحث الكشف عن إنتاج أنزيمات (Extended-spectrum-beta-lactamases) من قبل هذه البكتريا باستعمال مادة (EDTA) وكانت النتيجة موجبة ل(٩) عزلات باستعمال (ampicillin) و(١٢) عزلة باستعمال (cefixime) . وتم ايضا التعرف على التآزر ما بين بعض المضادات وفيتامين (B-complex) وكانت النتيجة موجبة ل(٤)(٨٠٪) عزلات من اصل (٥).

Decision of Discussion Committee

We, the examining committee certify that we have read this thesis and have examined the student in it's contents, and that in our

opinion, it is adequate as a thesis for the Master degree in science-
microbiology

Signature :

Name : Prof. Dr. Hussein S. AL-Janabi

Address: Department of Medicine

College of Medicine

University of Kufa

Chairman

Signature :

Name: Asst. Prof. Dr. Mohammad

Name: Asst. Prof. Dr. Kassim Najim

Abdel Ekhwa AL-Faham

Address: Department of Microbiology

Address: Department of Biology

College of Medicine

College of Sciences

University of Baghdad

University of Babylon

Member

Member

Signature :

Name : Prof. Dr. Habeeb S. Naher

Address: Department of Microbiology

College of Medicine

University of Babylon

Member & Supervisor

Approve for the College Committee on Graduate Studies

Signature:

Name : Dr.Ali Khair Allah

The Dean.

DECLARATION

I certify that this work was carried out under my supervision at the College of Medicine, University of Babylon as partial requirements for the master degree of science in
Microbiology

Advisor

Signature:

Name : Prof. Dr. Habeeb Sahib Naher

Department of Microbiology

College of Medicine

University of Babylon

Date: / / ٢٠٠٦

Recommendation of Head of Microbiology Department

-

In view of the available recommendations , I forward this
thesis for debate by the Examining Committee

Signature :

A.Razzak Al-Saeed Name : Assit. Prof. Dr. Mohammad Sabri

Head of Microbiology Department

College of Medicine

University of Babylon

Date: / / ٢٠٠٦

Summary

This study was carried out through the October/2004 to May/2006 for isolation and identification of *P.aeruginosa* from different clinical cases which include 260 subject of inpatients and outpatients who have suffering from : burns ,chronic otitis media and urinary tract infections (UTI) and detection of their susceptibility for twenty-three antibiotics. Some of these antibiotics were combined with each other by different concentrations and tested for their activities against those isolates. Moreover, chemical substances were added to some antibiotics in attempt to enhance their effects. The obtained results were compared with each other for determination of the highly active compound.

The total number of *P.aeruginosa* isolates accounted for 30 of 260 samples, the distribution of those isolates were: 10 from 32 burn samples, 10 from 58 otitis samples and 10 from 170 UTI samples. The bacterial isolates were identified by routine diagnostic tests which included cellular, cultural and biochemical characteristics. The activity of 23 antibiotics were detected by disk diffusion method and the results showed high degree of resistance for most antibiotics represented by: penicillin, ampicillin, carbenicillin, cefixime, tetracycline, doxycycline, chloramphenicol, erythromycin, rifampin (100%), cefotaxime and Co-trimoxazole(90%),gentamicin and ceftizoxime(86.7%),ticarcillin(80%) ,piperacillin (76.7%), cefepime(70%), colistin(63.3%), aztreonam(60%), tobromycin (56.7%), ciprofloxacin and norfloxacin (56.7%), amikacin and azithromycin (50%). Accordingly, the results were consistent the what is called multi-drug-resistant *P.aeruginosa* (MDRPA).

The results of this study showed that the sex, age, long hospitalization and prolonged antimicrobial use were regards as risk factors increased the

chance of infection. Results analysis showed that burns were more accessible for contamination by this organism. The minimum inhibitory concentrations (MIC) for (12) antibiotics by Macro-Broth dilution method were carried out. The results of this experiment showed a high level of resistance which confidently these isolates (MDRPA).

Half-Chess Board method was used to assess the potency of (10) antibiotics in combination with each other. Those antibiotics included: penicillin, ampicillin, cefotaxime, ceftriaxone, ciprofloxacin, norfloxacin, amikacin, gentamicin, Co-trimoxazole and rifampin. The results showed synergetic effect at different levels compared with their effect singly. Gentamicin and ceftriaxone were tested by Checker- Board method and showed cidal synergetic activity against the isolates (U₂₄, U₂₀, B₁₂, B₃, O₂₀) but partial synergy against one (O₀₀) isolate. Finally, the results indicated for extended-spectrum beta-lactamases production by this bacteria by using EDTA substrate and the positive result for 9 (30%) isolates with ampicillin and 12 (40%) isolates with cefixime. The study showed synergistic effect between B-complex vitamin and antibiotics, positive result for 4 (10%) isolates of (0) tested isolates.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank my supervisor professor Dr. Habeeb Sahib Naher, the Dean Dr. Ali Khair-Allah and the head of Microbiology department Dr. Mohammad Sabri.

My gratefulness to Prof. Dr. Sabah Neama (Dept. Pharmacology, College of Medicine, University of Babylon), Mr. Hattem A. Lattef, Mr. Zuher Saddek (Dept. Microbiology, College of Dentistry, University of Babylon), Dr. Amal Merza, Dr. Safa' Sahib and all staff of the Hilla Teaching Hospital for helping me.

Finally, my thanks is due to All-Mohmmod Clinic and Laboratory, Dr. Haider, my brother (the engineer Ahmad) and to all of my colleagues in the Dept. Microbiology, College of Medicine .

LIST OF CONTENTS

Contents	Page NO.
List of Contents	I
List of Tables	IV
List of Figures	V
List of Abbreviation	VI
Summary	VII
Chapter One /Introduction and Literatures Review	۱
Introduction	۱
Literatures Review	۳
General Description of <i>P.aeruginosa</i>	۳
The Antigenic Structures	۵
Typing Methods and Epidemiological Studies	۶
Pathogenicity	۷
The Exteracellular Slime Layer Substance	۷
The Capsule(alginate)	۷
The Flagella	۸
The Pili (Fimbriae)	۸
Enzymes and Toxins	۹
The Extracellular Substances	۱۰
The Pyocin	۱۰
The Pyocyanin	۱۰
Pathogenesis of <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	۱۰
Resistance to Antimicrobial Agents	۱۲
Antipseudomonal Antibiotics	۱۶
Extended-Spectrum Penicillins	۱۷
Cephalosporins	۱۷
Carbapenems	۱۹
Aminoglycosides	۲۰
Quinolones	۲۰
Monobactams	۲۱
Chapter Two/Materials and Methods	۲۲
Materials	۲۲
The Instruments and Apparatuses	۲۲
Culture Media	۲۲
Chemical	۲۲
Antimicrobial Disks	۲۴
Antimicrobial Powders	۲۵

Methods	۲۷
Patients	۲۷
Collection of Specimens	۲۷
Sterilization	۲۷
Preparation of the Culture Media	۲۸
Blood Agar Medium (۱٪) Human Blood	۲۸
Gelatin Agar Medium	۲۸
Motility Medium	۲۸
Lipolytic Agar Medium	۲۸
The Chemical Solutions and Reagents	۲۹
Gram Stain Solutions	۲۹
Catalase Test Reagent	۲۹
Oxidase Test Regent	۲۹
Frazier's Reagent	۲۹
Kovac's Reagent	۲۹
Methyl Red Reagent	۲۹
Voges-Proskauer Reagent	۳۰
McFarland Solution(tube No. ۰.۵)	۳۰
Identification	۳۰
Cultural Characteristics	۳۱
Microscopy Examination	۳۱
Biochemical Tests	۳۱
Oxidase Test	۳۱
Catalase Test	۳۱
Blood Hemolysis Test	۳۱
Gelatin Liquefaction Test	۳۱
Motility Test	۳۲
Citrate Utilization Test	۳۲
Kligler's Iron Agar Test for H ₂ O Production	۳۲
Growth at ۴۲°C	۳۲
Indol test	۳۳
Methyl- Red test	۳۳
Voges-Proskauer test	۳۳
Lipase Test	۳۳
Stock Culture	۳۳
Sensitivity Tests to Antimicrobials	۳۴
A. The Kirby-Bauer	۳۴
B. Determination of Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations (MIC)	۳۵
The Combined Effect of Some Antimicrobials against <i>P.aeruginosa</i> in vitro	۳۷
The Combined Effect of Ceftriaxone Plus Gentamicin on <i>P.aeruginosa</i> Isolates	۳۹
Synergistic Effect of EDTA with Some Antibiotics on <i>P.aeruginosa</i> isolates	۴۰
Synergistic effect of B-complex with some antibiotics on <i>P.aeruginosa</i> Isolates	۴۱
Chapter Three/Results and Discussion	۴۳
Diagnosis of <i>P.aeruginosa</i>	۴۳
Risk Factors for Infection	۴۵
Site of Infection	۴۷
Distribution of <i>P.aeruginosa</i> infection between outpatients and inpatients	۵۰
Antimicrobial Resistance in <i>P.aeruginosa</i>	۵۱

Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations (MIC)	٥٦
Antimicrobial Combination	٦٢
The Combined Effect of the Ceftriaxone Plus Gentamicin on <i>P.aeruginosa</i> Isolates	٦٨
Synergistic Effect of EDTA with Some Antibiotics on <i>P.aeruginosa</i> Isolates	٧١
Synergistic Effect of B-complex with Some Antibiotics on <i>P.aeruginosa</i> Isolates	٧٦
Conclusions	٨١
Recommendations	٨٢
References	٨٣
Arabic Abstract	i

LIST OF TABLES

Tables	Page No.
Table(١-١) Some Virulence Factors of <i>P.aeruginosa</i> and their proposed role in Pathogenicity	٨
Table(٢-١) The Culture Media	٢٢
Table(٢-٢) The Chemical Substances used in this Study	٢٣
Table(٢-٣) Antimicrobial Disks used in this Study	٢٤
Table(٢-٤) The Using Antimicrobial Powders for Minimum Inhibitory Concentration Test	٢٦
Table(٢-٥) Suitable Concentrations of Antibiotics for Tests of Cidal Activity	٣٧
Table(٢-٦) Diagram of Half-Chess Broad technique	٣٨
Table(٢-٧) Diagram of Checker Broad Technique with Different Concentrations of Drug A: Gentamicin and Drug B: Ceftriaxone	٣٩
Table(٣-١) Biochemical Tests for Bacterial Isolates in this Study	٤٤
Table(٣-٢) Risk Factors for Infection	٤٦
Table(٣-٣) Frequency of <i>P.aeruginosa</i> According to the Site of Infection	٤٨
Table(٣-٤) The Values of Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations (MIC) of Some Antibiotics Against <i>P.aeruginosa</i> Isolates	٥٨
Table(٣-٥) Sensitive Isolates of <i>P.aeruginosa</i> for Cefixime, Rifampin and Doxycycline	٥٨
Table(٣-٦) Comparison of Susceptibility Testing Results between Techniques for (٣٠) Isolates of <i>P.aeruginosa</i>	٦١
Table(٣-٧) Antibiotics Combination Effect on Burn Isolate No. ١٢ of <i>P.aeruginosa</i>	٦٤
Table(٣-٨) Antibiotics combination Effect on Burn Isolate No. ٣٠ of <i>P.aeruginosa</i>	٦٤
Table(٣-٩) Antibiotics Combination Effect on Otitis Media Isolate No. ٢٥ of <i>P.aeruginosa</i>	٦٥
Table(٣-١٠) Antibiotics Combination Effect on Otitis Media Isolate No. ٥٥ of <i>P.aeruginosa</i>	٦٥
Table(٣-١١) Antibiotics Combination Effect on UTI Isolate No. ٢٤ of <i>P.aeruginosa</i>	٦٦

Table(٣-١٢)Antibiotics Combination Effect on UTI Isolate No.٢٥ of <i>P.aeruginosa</i>	٦٦
Table(٣-١٣)Fully Cidal Synergism Cases in Antibiotics Combination on the Six Selected Isolates of <i>P.aeruginosa</i>	٦٧
Table(٣-١٤)The MIC Effect of Gentamicin and Ceftriaxone Singly and in Combination	٧٠
Table(٣-١٥)Susceptibility of Burn Isolate No. ١٢ to ampicillin and Cefixime with and Without EDTA	٧٣
Table(٣-١٦)Susceptibility of <i>P.aeruginosa</i> Isolates to B-complex with Some Antibiotics	٧٧
Table(٣-١٧)Susceptibility of <i>P.aeruginosa</i> UTI Isolate No.٢٥ to Ciprofloxacin and Ceftriaxone with and Without B-complex	٧٨

LIST OF FIGURES

Figures	Page No.
Figure(٣-١)The Ratio of <i>P.aeruginosa</i> in Patients	٥١
Figure(٣-٢)Rates of Resistance of <i>P.aeruginosa</i> for Antibiotics	٥٣
Figure(٣-٣)Multi-drug Resistance for <i>P.aeruginosa</i> Isolates	٥٥
Figure(٣-٤)Synergistic Effect of EDTA Plus Ampicillin with Different Concentrations on <i>P.aeruginosa</i>	٧٤
Figure(٣-٥)Synergistic Effect of EDTA Plus Cefixime with Different Concentrations on <i>P.aeruginosa</i>	٧٥
Figure(٣-٦)Synergistic Effect of B-complex Plus Ciprofloxacin with Different Concentrations on <i>P.aeruginosa</i>	٧٩
Figure(٣-٧)Synergistic Effect of B-complex Plus Ceftriaxone with Different Concentrations on <i>P.aeruginosa</i>	٨٠

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviations	Meaning
B	Burn sample
BHIb	Brain-Heart Infusion broth
CAP	Community-acquired pneumonia
CF	Cystic Fibrosis
Co-trimoxazole	Sulfonamide-Trimethoprim
D.W.	Distiller Water
DRF	Drug Resistance Factor
EAC	External Auditory Canal
EDTA	Ethylene Diamine Tetra Acetic Acid
ICU	Intensive Care Unit
LPS	Lipopolysaccharied
MBLs	Metallo-beta-lactamases
MDRPA	Multi-drug Resistant <i>P.aeruginosa</i>
MIC	Minimum Inhibitory Concentration
NCCLS	National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards
O	Otitis media sample
<i>P.aeruginosa</i>	<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>
PBPs	Penicillin-Binding Proteins
PPPA	Pigments Producing <i>P.aeruginosa</i>
U	UTI sample
UTIs	Urinary Tract Infections

Conclusions

١. Burns are the most susceptible for infection by *P.aeruginosa*.
٢. *P.aeruginosa* is relatively difficult to eradicate from infected sites by traditional antimicrobial therapy.

- ϣ. The structural and anatomical nature of *P.aeruginosa* confer it multi-mechanisms for an increasing multi-drugs resistance.
- ξ. Azithromycin, amikacin, ciprofloxacin and norfloxacin were the most effective antimicrobials against *P.aeruginosa* and confidently can be suggested for treatment to overcome this bacteria.
- ο. The MIC method seems to be more reliable and more acceptable compared with disk diffusion method.
- Ϛ. Management of pseudomonal infections may require to combine more than single antibiotic precisely.
- ϛ. Gentamicin and Ceftriaxone were composed effective couple for treatment MDRPA.
- λ. Using antimicrobials in combination with active compounds such as EDTA and B-complex vitamin decrease the resistance of *P.aeruginosa* to antimicrobials.

Recommendations

1. Precisely prescribe the antimicrobials for treatment of pseudomonal infections.
2. Genetic analysis to the local strains to study the mechanisms of the resistant of antimicrobials.

٣. Further studies should be achieved to detect the source of resistant of antimicrobials in hospital.
٤. Physicians, bacteriologists and clinical pharmacists all be aware the prevalence of rapid evolution of antimicrobial resistance and having the basic understanding of resistance mechanisms to antibiotics.
٥. Further studies should be achieved to detect new effective antipseudomonal antibiotics .
٦. Foundation a Committee of physicians, bacteriologists and substaff concerns the hospital environment regarding microbial flora (types ,sources and control). The Committee periodically checks the disinfection conditions (validity of disinfectant ,effectiveness,concentration at in use disinfectants).

Chapter One

Introduction And Literatures Review

١ – Introduction :

The major member of the genus *Pseudomonas* associated with human infections is *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. It is found sporadically in moist areas of the skin and in the intestinal tract of about ١٠% of healthy individuals as part of the resident microflora (Hugh and Gilardi , ١٩٧٤). In recent years it has become the major causative agent of nosocomial infections resulting in severe and complicated diseases with a high mortality rate. *P.aeruginosa* is an opportunistic organism that is able to cause infections mainly in compromised hosts (i.e. with impaired local or systemic defense mechanisms). The medical

problem resulted by this organism is its ability to resist almost all antibacterial agents, leading to predominance it when sensitive organisms are suppressed by those agents (Lindberg, 1974; Cohn and Bronside, 1984; Cunha, 2000).

P.aeruginosa is widely spread in nature and can survive and even multiply in moist environments that contain minimal amounts of organic substances. In hospitals environment, variety of reservoirs may serve as sources of infection and transmission. It may spread from a reservoir to a person or among persons, most often via the hands of hospital personnel (Ayoub, 1981; Nordbring, 1982; Murray, *et al.*, 2003).

The medically importance of this organism may be lies in its ability to produce a variety of toxins, extracellular enzymes including elastases, proteases and hemolysins (Washington, 1984; Brooks, *et al.*, 2001). Furthermore, it has high intrinsic resistance to antibiotics at levels attainable in body tissues (Roberts and Douglas, 1978; Collee, *et al.*, 1996). Different mechanisms behind this resistance have been reported and will be discussed later on in this chapter. Until the

(1960s), *Pseudomonas* infections were usually treated with polymyxins, agents that exhibit considerable toxicity, leading to develop new antipseudomonal beta-lactam compounds, including (piperacillin, ticarcillin, ceftazidime and meropenem and aminoglycosides such as gentamicin and tobramycin). Treatment with a combination of an aminoglycoside and a beta-lactam antibiotic was commonly adopted. There is little clinical evidence of the superiority of combined therapy although it has the potential for antibacterial synergy and reduced antibiotic resistance. Monotherapy with broad-spectrum beta-lactam agents such as (ceftazidime or imipenem) was used, but resistant

strains of *Pseudomonas* against these agents emerged again (Greenwood, *et al.*, 2002).

At the present time there are many intensive efforts all around the world in attempt to discover new compounds to overcome the resistance phenomenon of *Pseudomonas* to antibiotics. This is, in part the hypothesis of this research. It was planned to fulfill the following main goals:

1. Isolation and identification of *P.aeruginosa* from different clinical cases (burns, chronic suppurative otitis media and urinary tract infections UTIs) in Hilla.
2. Determination of the susceptibility of *P.aeruginosa* isolates to different antibiotics from different families by using two standard methods : (a) Disk Diffusion Method (b) Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC).
3. Detection the synergistic efficiency of selected antibiotics in combination status at different concentrations against *P.aeruginosa* isolates.
4. Detection of the synergistic action of selected compounds being added to selected antibiotics against *P.aeruginosa* isolates.

2- Literatures Review :

2-1- General Description of *P.aeruginosa* :

In this chapter the general description represented by classification, culturing morphology and cell structure will be presented in brief.

P.aeruginosa belongs to the *Pseudomonadaceae*, which is one of families of *Eubacteriales* order which belongs to the class of *Schizomycetes* (Holt,*et*

al., 1994). *P.aeruginosa* was first isolated from pus of wound and named *Bacterium aeruginosa* by Schroeter in (1872). It was originally described as the causative agent of (blue pus) by Gessard in (1885) which named it *Bacillus pyocyaneas* and showed that this organism produced two characterized pigments, pyocyanin pigment, which is a bluish-green, non fluorescent, chloroform and water soluble, and fluorescein pigment, which is a fluorescent greenish-yellow and insoluble in chloroform but soluble in water (Gilligan, 1990). However, this property specifically characterizes *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, and it will be more mentioned later in this chapter.

P.aeruginosa is a gram-negative, the cells are short rod-shaped straight or slightly curved. In liquid culture the cells occur singly, in solid culture pairs or occasionally in short chains. The organism is motile with one polar flagellum, non-spore forming. The cells of some strains are surrounded by a slime substance usually surround the capsule (alginate) (Murray, *et al.*, 2003).

P.aeruginosa is an obligate aerobe but can grow anaerobically if nitrate is available. It is found frequently as part of the microbial flora of healthy individuals. In those individuals, the gastrointestinal tract is the most frequent site of colonization. Other sites such as throat, nasal mucosa, axillae and perineum may be colonized as well (Morrison and Wenzel, 1984; Mayhall, 1997). The organism grows readily on a wide variety of culture media in a wide range of temperature ranging from 0–42°C but the optimum temperature is 37°C. The optimum pH is 7.4. It emits a sweet grape-like odor that is easily recognized (Pollack, 2000).

During the diagnosis of this organism, there are some cultural variations must be considered. After aerobic incubation on nutrient agar for 24 hours at

37°C, six distinct colonial types of *P.aeruginosa* may be observed (Phillips, 1969). Type 1 is the most common. The colonies produced by this type are relatively large, low convex, rough in appearance and oval with long axis in the line of the inoculum streak surrounded by a serrated strict of growth. Type 2 colonies are small and smooth. Colonies type 3 and 4 are small, rough and rugose respectively. Type 5 colonies are mucoid and alginate–produce is very striking, the copious exopolysaccharide produced may result in merging colonial growth. The dwarf colony type 6 is the smallest colony form *P.aeruginosa* (Collee, *et al.*, 1996).

Colonial dissociation from one colony type to another is frequently observed both on subculture and in primary diagnostic plates and does not necessarily indicate the presence of more than one strain (Greenwood, *et al.*, 2002).

Some strains hemolyze blood of beta–hemolytic type and can grow on MacConkey's agar as lactose non–fermented but the characteristic pigments are often poorly observed on this medium (Baron, *et al.*, 1994). Most strains of *P.aeruginosa* are specifically characterized by producing pyocyanin, a water soluble turquoise blue or blue phenazine pigment visible, on uncolored media such as nutrient agar and no other bacteria produce such pigment, so its detection is quite enough for identification of an isolate of *P.aeruginosa* (Baron, *et al.*, 1994; Holt, *et al.*, 1994; Gilligan, 1990; Collee, *et al.*, 1996). Some strains of *P.aeruginosa* produce other pigments pyoverdine (yellow–green fluorescent pigment, pyorubrin (red) and pyomelanin (brown) which may mask the pyocyanin (Brooks, *et al.*, 2001).

Clinical isolates are catalase and oxidase positive, *P.aeruginosa* differs from members of the *Enterobacteriaceae* by deriving energy from carbohydrates by an oxidation rather than fermentation, and only glucose is utilized. However all strains give a rapid positive oxidase reaction within 30 seconds and this is a useful preliminary test for non-pigmented strains (Sundstrom, *et al.*, 1996).

Moreover, *P.aeruginosa* is able to dehydrolyze arginine, unable to decarboxylate lysine or ornithine, unable to produce indole and H₂S, Voges-Proskauer and Methyl-Red reactions are negative, can liquefy gelatin and utilize citrate (Macfaddin, 2000). Furthermore, isolates from different colony types may reveal different biochemical and enzymatic activities and different antimicrobial susceptibility as well, but Brooks and his colleagues (2001) pointed out that identification of this organism is principally based on colonial morphology including the presence of characteristic pigments, oxidase positivity, and growth at 42°C.

2-2- The Antigenic Structures :

P.aeruginosa possesses some appendages mainly pili (fimbriae) flagellum, capsule, lipopolysaccharide (LPS) in addition to the pyocin production. Those structures will be summarized as they are closely associated with the pathogenicity of this organism.

Pili extend from the cell surface and promote attachment to host epithelial cells. Flagellum yields heat-labile antigens (H-antigen). Consequently it is non specific (Liu, 1994). Polysaccharide capsules are responsible for the mucoid

colonies seen in cultures from patients with cystic fibrosis (CF). The lipopolysaccharide (O-antigen), which exists in multiple immunotypes, is responsible for many of the endotoxic properties of the organism (Oliver, *et al.*, 1966). Also *P.aeruginosa* produce pyocin, these substances resemble antibiotics and have active effect on different strains from the same species or other species. These substances used in typing of *P.aeruginosa* and diagnosis of the species (Aboud, 1961).

2-3- Typing Methods and Epidemiological Studies :

In addition to the biochemical tests which used in the diagnosis of the bacteria, typing or fingerprinting of individual strains is a major factor in the diagnosis of the bacteria and epidemiological investigations. Epidemiological studies of *P.aeruginosa* strains depend on the Pyocin typing, Phage typing and Serotyping. Serotyping based on (LPS) antigens by agglutination forms the basis of O serotyping (Pitt, 1968).

The disadvantage of this method is its limited discriminating power. Only nine serotypes account for over (90%) of isolates, this makes epidemiological investigation difficult unless the epidemic strain belongs to unusual serotype (Hancock, *et al.*, 1963), but this technique is unsatisfactory for typing mucoid variants since O-antigens are masked. It is also unsuitable for typing colonial dissociants, because antigenic changes are observed within a single culture, and for typing polyagglutinable *P.aeruginosa*, i.e. strains that are agglutinated by more than one serum in patterns that are outside the established cross-reactions of the serotype strains (Mutharia, *et al.*, 1962; Muller and

Gubina, 2000). Pyocin typing offers greater discriminating power than Serotyping whilst retaining (simplicity and reliability), it is also suitable for polyagglutinating and mucoid strains (Collee, *et al.*, 1996). Recently, a number of genotyping methods have been developed for typing *P.aeruginosa*. These include restriction enzymes analysis (Olge, *et al.*, 1987; Greenwood, *et al.*, 2002).

2-4 - Pathogenicity :

P.aeruginosa is the species most commonly associated with human infections. Greenwood and his colleagues (2002) described this association for the high adaptability of the organism with the environmental conditions, its innate resistance to antibiotics and disinfectants and its armoury of putative virulence factors are summarized below and illustrated in table (1-1).

2-4-1 - The Exteracellular Slime layer Substance :

It is a mucoid substance composed of glycolipoprotein surrounds the bacterial cell and protects the cell from degrading enzymes and involved in cell adhesion to host epidermal surfaces and it responsible to give a large degree of antibiotic resistance for *P.aeruginosa* (Brooks *et al.*, 2001).

2-4-2 - The Capsule (Alginate) :

P.aeruginosa isolated from respiratory tracts of patients with cystic fibrosis or other obstructive airways disease produces large amounts of a substance usually referred to as alginate, an exopolysaccharide consisting of mannuronic and guluronic acids which gives rise to strikingly mucoid colonies (Collee, *et*

al., 1996). Alginate is a heterogeneous mixture of hexoses produced by all *P. aeruginosa* strains on prolonged incubation in media with high carbon and low nitrogen content. The mucoid polysaccharide alginate represents the capsule which seems to enable the bacteria to resist natural defenses and to protect it from phagocytosis and antibiotics (Baron, *et al.*, 1994).

Table (1-1) Some of virulence factors of *P. aeruginosa* and their proposed role in pathogenicity

Factor	Proposed Role
Endotoxin	terminal shock
Exoenzyme S	Local and systemic toxicity
Heat-stable hemolysin	Toxic to alveolar macrophages
Leukocidin	Depression of host defenses
Phospholipase C	Hydrolysis of lecithin
Pigments (pyocyanin and fluorescein)	Antibacterial agent
Proteases (elastase and alkaline protease)	Local tissue necrosis and spreading factor
Toxin A	Lethality and inhibition of host defenses

(Hauser and Sriram, 2005)

2-4-3- The Flagella :

Flagella are thread-like appendage composed of entirely of protein subunit called flagellin. The flagellum in *P.aeruginosa* is responsible for the motility of the bacteria (Brooks,*et al.*, 2001).

2-4-4- The Pili (Fimbriae) :

Fimbriae are surface appendages sometimes called pili which are shorter and finer than flagella and they are composed of structural protein subunits termed pillius. Minor proteins located at the tips of pili are responsible for the attachment properties (Owlia,*et al.*, 2001). There are two classes of pili: ordinary pili which play a role in the adherence to host cells and sex pili which responsible for the attachment of bacterial cells to each other during conjugation (Brooks,*et al.*, 2001). The virulence of the bacteria depends on the production of toxins and colonization antigens which represented by the ordinary pili that provide the cells with adherent properties (Brooks,*et al.*, 2001).

2-4-5- Enzymes and Toxins :

P.aeruginosa liberates some toxic products including catalase, lipase, lecithinase, elastases, proteases and two hemolysins, a heat-labile phospholipase C and a heat-stable glycolipid (Kolmos,*et al.*, 1993). All of these are toxic and enable the organism to invasive and destroy the tissues (Kolmos,*et al.*, 1993). Moreover, toxin A causes tissue necrosis and blocks protein synthesis by a mechanism of action identical to that of *Corynebacterium diphtheriae* toxin which affects the elongation of peptide chain, although the structures of the two toxins are not identical. Antitoxins to toxins A may be found in some human sera, including those patients who have

recovered from serious *P.aeruginosa* infections (Owlia, *et al.*, 2001). These toxins range from potent toxins that enter and kill host cells at or near the site of colonization to degradation enzymes that permanently disrupt the cell membranes and connective tissue in various organs (Owlia, *et al.*, 2001).

Endotoxins are composed from lipopolysaccharide which one of the components of the cell wall, release during autolysis or during microorganism dead. These Endotoxins are very toxic to the host's tissues because the found of lipid portion for lipopolysaccharide which called lipid A (Mousa, 1997). These Endotoxins are resistant to heat and cause shock with hypotension especially in elderly persons. Also cause leucopenia, hypoglycemia and cause defect in the kidneys, heart and brain (Mousa, 1997).

2-4-6- The Extracellular Substances :

2-4-6-1- The Pyocin :

Pyocin is a substance produced by over 90% of *P.aeruginosa* strains, protein in nature and has effect on strains belong to the same family or to the *Enterobacteriaceae*. The pyocin different from other antibiotics which has limit effect on the other species from the same genus or which closed with it. The production of pyocin and the sensitivity to it be consider the dominant genetic

properties and it has an ability to depress the normal and cancer cells together (Aboud, 2001).

2-4-6-2- The Pyocyanin :

The pyocyanin is a blue phenazine pigment, soluble in water, release outside the cell produce from most strains of *P.aeruginosa* when grow on culture media with temperature 28-30°C (Collee, et al., 1996).

Low and Emmerich were mentioned at the first one the activity of pyocyanin as antibiotic when they found the old culture to *P.aeruginosa* prevent the growth of some gram negative and positive bacteria. Pyocyanin causes broad-spectrum inhibition to the microorganism but doesn't have any benefit because it is toxic for all animals (Aboud, 2001).

2-5- Pathogenesis of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* :

P.aeruginosa can infect almost any external site or organ. Most community infections are mild and superficial, but in hospitalized patients, infections are more common, more severe and more varied (Maniatis, et al., 1990).

P.aeruginosa is pathogenic only when introduced into areas devoid of normal defenses, e.g. when mucous membranes and skin are disrupted by direct tissue damage; when intravenous or urinary catheters are used; or when neutropenia is present, as in cancer chemotherapy. The bacterium attaches to, and colonizes the mucous membranes or skin, invades locally and produces systemic disease (Maniatis, et al., 1990). These processes are promoted by the

Pili, enzymes and toxins. Lipopolysaccharide plays a direct role in causing fever, shock, oliguria, leukocytosis and leucopenia, disseminated intravascular coagulation and adult respiratory distress syndrome (Pollack, 2000).

The most superficial infection associated with this organism is folliculitis (Bottone and Perez, 1993). Superficial infections of the ear canal due to *P.aeruginosa* frequently develop in individuals involved in aquatic environment (Rubin and Yu, 1990). The organism can invade the underlying tissues, damaging cranial nerves and causing osteomyelitis and meningitis it is may result (Rubin and Yu, 1990).

Eye infection caused by this organism usually follows minor trauma to the cornea (Holland, *et al.*, 1993). *P.aeruginosa* is a cause of community-acquired pneumonia (CAP) and most of nosocomial infections are ascribed to this organisms, as most of the hospital environments are colonized by it (Hatchette, *et al.*, 2000).

Bacteremia and septic shock due to *P.aeruginosa* continue to be the major problems in hospitalized patients with underlying malignancies, cardiopulmonary disease, renal failure or diabetes. Bacteremia due to *P.aeruginosa* in intravenous drug users is usually associated with bacterial endocarditis and may also develop osteomyelitis of a variety bones (Boffi, *et al.*, 2001).

The organism is the leading cause of nosocomial respiratory tract infection (Bernardini, *et al.*, 1987). Also causes nosocomial urinary tract infections, wound infections, and peritonitis in patients with chronic ambulatory peritoneal dialysis (Anonymous, 1997). Wounds infections due to *P.aeruginosa*

are particularly big trouble in burn patients which mostly leads to significant mortality rates (Mousa, 1997).

2-6- Resistance to Antimicrobial Agents :

Antibiotics resistance with some microorganisms has become a worldwide concern. It is either natural or acquired resistance. If organisms previously sensitive to an antibiotic become resistant to it this is referred to as acquired resistance, such as resistance to (ceftazidime, ciprofloxacin and imipenem). This type of resistance is either relative or absolute (Mingeot, *et al.*, 1999). Relative acquired resistance refers to the gradual increase over time of the (MIC) of an organism to a particular antibiotic, whereas absolute resistance occurs when there is a single-step mutation that occurs during or after therapy and increases the (MIC) of a previously susceptible isolate to extremely high levels unachievable using the therapeutic doses (e.g. the development of gentamicin-resistant *P.aeruginosa* (Erst, *et al.*, 1999).

Given the number of compounds active against *P.aeruginosa*, it might be expected that treatment of infections caused by this bacterium would be straight forward. However, the situation is complicated by the predilection *P.aeruginosa* to develop resistance to nearly any antibacterial agent. During the chemotherapy era, there was a remarkable progress in resistance of *P.aeruginosa* to antibiotics occurred. Previously this organism was referred to as strongly drug resistant, then multi-drugs resistant, at the present time it is described as all drugs resistant (Weinstein, *et al.*, 1980; Gotoh, 2001).

Resistance is problematic at three levels: intrinsic resistance, acquired resistance and emergences of resistance during therapy. Each of these must be considered when choosing an antibiotic regimen for patients infected with *P.aeruginosa* (Hauser and Sriram, 2005). These types of resistance will be summarized below.

In general *P.aeruginosa* is naturally less susceptible than other gram-negative bacilli to many antibiotics such as (ampicillin, most cephalosporin, and the macrolides) (Bouza, *et al.*, 1999). This is because of its relative ability to transport some antibiotics out of the cell preventing accumulation of antibiotic molecules (Friedrich, *et al.*, 1999). *P.aeruginosa* also harbors an inducible chromosomally encoded beta-lactamase, referred to as AmpC beta-lactams even though it's naturally expressed at very low levels (Mingeot, *et al.*, 1999). The genome of *P.aeruginosa* consists of 6.3 million base pairs—the largest bacterium sequenced to date. This information has already provided insights into the organism's versatility and inherent resistance (Greenwood, *et al.*, 2002).

The intrinsic resistance is mainly a result of the diffusion barrier of the bacterial outer membrane, amino-acid substitution in the target molecules, via point mutation in each genetic determinant, and antimicrobial inactivating enzymes (Grayson and Eliopoulos, 1990).

Biofilm formation by *P.aeruginosa* may also contribute to antibiotics resistance. Bacteria grown as biofilms (which are an organized communities of bacterial cells that grow on surface) are much more resistance to antibiotics than those bacteria grown as dispersed growth (Erst, *et al.*, 1999).

In addition to its intrinsic resistance *P.aeruginosa* has the ability, through mutational changes or acquisition of exogenous genetic elements (plasmids and transposons) to develop resistance to each of the antipseudomonal antibiotics (Grayson and Eliopoulos, 1990). One type of mutation simultaneously comprises (penicillins, cephalosporins and the fluoroquinolones and enhances resistance to chloramphenicol and tetracyclines) is by accelerating multi-drug efflux (Poole, *et al.*, 1993). Furthermore, the chromosomally encoded AmpC beta-lactamase is capable of degrading beta-lactam antibiotics, such as (piperacillin and ceftazidime), when mutations result in production of large amounts of this enzyme. Some beta-lactamase inhibitors compounds such as (tazobactam, sulbactam and clavulanic acid) were developed in attempt to overcome the action of these compounds were latterly detected to be not quite enough to inactivate this enzyme (Hauser and Sriram, 2000). Other mutations involve loss of the OprM porins that mediate carbapenem resistance has been reported as well (Buscher, *et al.*, 1986; Livermore, 1992).

Resistance to aminoglycosides group may occur by mechanisms that differentially affect members of this group. Thus, resistance to gentamicin and tobramycin is often not accompanied with resistance to amikacin (Weinstein, *et al.*, 1980). Resistance to aminoglycosides is created by reduction uptake of these antibiotics across the outer or cytoplasmic membrane and inactivation by aminoglycosides modifying enzymes (Shannon and Phillips, 1982; Miller, *et al.*, 1997).

Recently, strains of *P.aeruginosa* resistant all antimicrobials except polymyxin B have been reported. This is not surprising, since there are many and varied mechanisms by which *P.aeruginosa* can resist the actions of

antibiotics (Spencer, 1996; Toleman, *et al.*, 2003). Susceptibility rates appear to be decreasing with the time, especially with regard to (piperacillin, ceftazidime, imipenem and ciprofloxacin). In a study on *P.aeruginosa* isolated from United States intensive care units ciprofloxacin susceptibility rates decreased from (89%) in 1993 to (78%) in 2000 (Neuhauser, *et al.*, 2003).

Even when antimicrobial agents to which an isolate is susceptible are chosen, a successful therapeutic outcome is not ensured. One reason for this uncertainty is that *P.aeruginosa* has shown a regrettable propensity to develop resistance to antibiotics during therapy (Neuhauser, *et al.*, 2003). Resistance develops because of the natural occurrence of mutations essential for antibiotic penetration or activity. Within infected tissue, selection for individual bacteria that harbor these mutations occurs because the antibiotic is present, and eventually these organisms compose the majority of the bacterial population (Hauser and Sriram, 2000).

As expected, antimicrobial agents for which a single mutation is sufficient to compromise activity are most prone to the emergence of resistance during therapy (Bhavnani, 1998). These include imipenem and the fluoroquinolones, for example, resistance emerged in a range of 20% to 50% of *P.aeruginosa* infected patients who received imipenem monotherapy and (33%) to (58%) of such patients who received ciprofloxacin monotherapy (Cunha, 2000).

P.aeruginosa resistance is not restricted to the hospital environment but has been reported in community-acquired infections, such as otitis externa, folliculitis and osteomyelitis (Maniatis, *et al.*, 1990). Outpatients with chronic indwelling urethral catheters and endocarditis in intravenous drug users

(Costerton, *et al.*, 1999). The prevalence of resistance among *P.aeruginosa* strains has been extensively reported, especially with the expansion in the number of beta-lactam agents with improved antipseudomonal activity. Resistance may not be as widespread as reported and there may be considerable geographic variation (Costerton, *et al.*, 1999).

Nosocomially acquired *P.aeruginosa* isolates tend to be more resistant to antimicrobials than do community-acquired strains, frequently displaying resistance to multiple classes of antimicrobial agents. However, development of resistance may occur during antimicrobial therapy and is particularly well documented during monotherapy (Cunha and Gill, 1990). It has become increasingly clear that resistance development in *P.aeruginosa* is multifactorial with mutations in genes encoding porins, efflux pumps, penicillin-binding proteins, and chromosomal beta-lactamase (Hsueh, *et al.*, 2002). All of these are contributing to resistance to beta-lactams, carbapenems, aminoglycosides, and fluoroquinolones (Hsueh, *et al.*, 2002). In addition, *P.aeruginosa* strains may contain extended-spectrum beta-lactamases, which can degrade imipenem. Genes encoding these enzymes can be either chromosomal or located on plasmids or integrons (Lepper, *et al.*, 2002).

2-V- Antipseudomonal Antibiotics :

P.aeruginosa has been reported worldwide to be a common pathogen both in hospitals and community setting. It is always a difficult pathogen to eradicate. It also carries a higher mortality rate than other gram-negative bacteria. Furthermore, the past decade has witnessed a dramatic increase in

resistance of this organism to antimicrobial agents. Use of a single antimicrobial agent, even when *P.aeruginosa* is sensitive is associated with the development of resistance during therapy (Cunha, 2000). The rapid evolution of antimicrobial resistance towards traditional antibiotics leads to develop alternative antibiotics which are relatively more effective against *P.aeruginosa*. These antibiotics which are usually referred to as antipseudomonal antibiotics will be described below.

Antipseudomonal antibiotics include the third-generation cephalosporins (cefoperazone, cefsulodin, ceftazidime), fourth-generation cephalosporins (cefepime, cefpirome, ceftazidime), extended-spectrum penicillins (ticarcillin, piperacillin, azlocillin), monobactams (aztreonam), carbapenems (imipenem, meropenem) and Quinolones (ciprofloxacin, enoxacin, ofloxacin). The addition of beta-lactamase inhibitors to extended-spectrum penicillins and cephalosporins has expanded the antibacterial spectra of these agents against most of gram-positive and gram-negative organisms (Wateret and Wunderink, 2001). Generally, resistance of microorganisms to antibiotics depends on the type of microorganism and type of the antibiotic as well. An explanation is given below regarding behavior of *P.aeruginosa* towards some of these antibiotics.

2-2-1- Extended-Spectrum Penicillins :

Although the exact mechanism of action of penicillins is not well understood yet, researches have shown that they bind reversibly to several enzymes outside the bacterial cytoplasmic membrane. These enzymes which known as penicillin-binding proteins (PBPs), are involved in cell-wall synthesis

and cell division. Interference of antibiotic with these processes increases internal osmotic pressure and ruptures the cell (Baer and Williams, 1996).

The antibacterial activity of penicillins depends partly on their ability to bind to the target enzymes. Gram-negative bacteria possess an outer membrane around the cell wall that decreases accessibility to the PBPs (Obritsch, *et al.*, 2000). The production of penicillinases (enzymes that convert penicillin to inactive penicilloic acid) by the bacteria also contributes to bacterial resistance.

Aminopenicillins and extended-spectrum penicillins penetrate the outer membrane of gram-negative bacteria more readily than the natural penicillins. The greater ability of the penicillin derivatives to gain access to the PBPs may relate to their increased antibacterial activity against these gram-negative organisms (Graig and Ebert, 1994).

2-7-2- Cephalosporins :

Cephalosporins inhibit cell-wall synthesis by binding to bacterial enzymes located on the cell membrane. The antibacterial action of cephalosporins depends on their ability to penetrate the bacterial cell wall and bind with proteins in the cytoplasmic membrane. Once the drug damages the cell wall by binding with the PBPs, the body's natural defense mechanisms destroy the bacteria (Kaye, *et al.*, 2000). To produce a bactericidal effect on the bacterial cell, the cephalosporins must reach the PBPs in sufficient concentrations to inhibit cell-wall synthesis and must resist the destructive action of the beta-lactamases produced by some bacteria which inactivate the drug by hydrolyzing its beta-lactam ring (Abrams, 2000).

The major mechanism of resistance to beta-lactam antibiotics is beta-lactamase production (Graig and Ebert, 1994). Both plasmid-mediated and chromosomally-mediated beta-lactamase production can occur. Plasmid-mediated beta-lactamases are responsible for resistance to penicillins but not to antipseudomonal cephalosporins or carbapenems (Graig and Ebert, 1994).

Monotherapy, with either aztreonam or antipseudomonal cephalosporins or penicillins, can result in selection of stably derepressed mutants an induction mutation that produce massive amounts of chromosomally-mediated beta-lactamases (Sanders, 1987). Although there are rare exceptions, the vast majority of beta-lactamases produced by *P.aeruginosa* are not affected by the beta-lactamase inhibitors such sulbactam, clavulanate or tazobactam (Godrey, *et al.*, 1981).

Other mechanisms of resistance to beta-lactams are rare. A part from the loss of protein, diminished permeability of the bacterial outer membrane to beta-lactams accounts for some of the relative resistance of *P.aeruginosa* to beta-lactams (Angus, *et al.*, 1982).

2-7-3- Carbapenems :

Carbapenems are broad-spectrum, bactericidal, beta-lactam antimicrobial agents. Like other beta-lactam drugs, they inhibit synthesis of bacterial cell walls by binding with PBPs (Abrams, 2000). The group consists of two drugs; imipenem and meropenem.

The resistance of *P.aeruginosa* to the carbapenems has become an important issue in some hospitals in which resistance rates have reached greater than (40%). This resistance is mediated by a plasmid mediated metallo beta-lactamase (imipenemase) or unaltered outer membrane protein, and can be selected by heavy-imipenem use (Quim,*et al.*, 1988; Trias,*et al.*, 1989; Watanabe,*et al.*, 1991 and Senda,*et al.*, 1996). Strains of *P.aeruginosa* that are resistant to carbapenems may also demonstrate reduced permeability of the bacterial outer membrane by loss of a porin protein (Lepper,*et al.*, 2002).

Imipenem, the first drug of this type, has good activity against many gram-negative rods, gram-positive organisms, and anaerobes. It is resistant to B-lactamases but is inactivated by dihydropeptidases in renal tubules. Consequently, it is administered together with a peptidase inhibitor, cilastatin. Imipenem may be indicated for infections due to organisms resistant to other drugs, *Pseudomonas* species rapidly develop resistance, and the concomitant use of an aminoglycoside is therefore required; however, this does not delay the development of resistance. Such a combination may be effective treatment for febrile neutropenic patients. Meropenem is similar to in pharmacology and antimicrobial spectrum of activity. However, it is not inactivated by dihydropeptidases (Hugo and Russell, 1998).

2-7-4- Aminoglycosides :

Aminoglycosides are a group of drugs sharing chemical antimicrobial pharmacologic and toxic characteristic (Baer and Williams, 1996). The group

mainly includes (streptomycin, neomycin, kanamycin, amikacin, gentamicin, tobramycin, sisomicin and netilmicin). All inhibit protein synthesis of bacteria by attaching to and inhibiting the function of the 30S subunit of the bacterial ribosome (Brooks, *et al.*, 2001).

Resistance to aminoglycosides includes two main mechanisms, enzymatic inactivation and decreased uptake. Aminoglycosides resistance in *P.aeruginosa* is most commonly due to aminoglycoside-inactivating (modifying) enzymes coded by genes on plasmids or on chromosome (Kaye, *et al.*, 2000). Modification of the aminoglycosides by these enzymes results in weak binding to the ribosome the site of action of aminoglycosides. *P.aeruginosa* is active in producing such enzyme since it can produce at least (14) different aminoglycosides-modifying enzymes (Sabath, 1984). Reduced uptake of the aminoglycoside into the bacterium is, in some cases, a mechanism of emergence of resistance during therapy for *P.aeruginosa* infection. Cross-resistance for all aminoglycosides generally results, but the level of resistance is less than that resulting from enzymatic modification (Giamarellou and Antoniadou, 2001).

2.7.9- Quinolones :

Quinolones exhibit concentration-dependent bactericidal activity and exert their activity by binding to bacterial topoisomerases (DNA gyrase) and by binding to bacterial target sites, quinolones interfere with DNA replication, DNA repair and transcription as well as other cellular functions, rapidly leading to bacterial death (Hooper and Walfson, 1993).

Resistance of *P.aeruginosa* to quinolones is a chromosomally mediated process. No clinical isolates exhibiting plasmid-mediated resistance have been

reported. Resistance to quinolones can occur by mutation of the chromosomal genes that code for the gyrases (Hooper and Walfson, 1993). Another mechanism of resistance is impaired penetration of the outer membrane of the organism.

2-7-6- Monobactams :

Monobactams have a unique monocyclic beta-lactam ring. The naturally occurring monobactams are produced by bacteria found in soil and have weak antibacterial activity. Aztreonam is a synthetic monobactam with a narrow spectrum of activity that includes many gram-negative aerobic bacteria and has little or no activity against gram-positive aerobic and anaerobic bacteria (Abrams, 2000). Aztreonam is the only available monobactam that possesses

antipseudomonal activity

and resembles aminoglycosides in its activity, but ceftazidime is twice as active. Compared with ceftazidime, aztreonam is a poor inducer of the chromosomally mediated beta-lactamases, but plasmid-mediated beta-lactamases cause a moderate hydrolysis to aztreonam (Giamarellou and Antoniadou, 2001).

Chapter Two

Materials And Methods

1- Materials :

١-١)-The Instruments and apparatuses: **the necessary instruments and apparatuses available in the laboratory were worthily used for preparing the appropriate experiments in this study.**

١-٢- Culture Media :

The culture media shown in table (٢-١) below have been used for isolation and identification of bacterial isolates.

Table (٢-١) The Culture Media

Culture media	The manufacturing company
١. Nutrient agar	Mast(UK)
٢. Nutrient broth	Mast(UK)
٣. MacConkey's agar	Mast(UK)
٤. Blood agar	Oxoid(UK)
٥. Brain-Heart Infusion agar	Mast(UK)
٦. Brain-Heart Infusion broth	Oxoid(UK)
٧. Mueller-Hinton agar	Difco(USA)
٨. Simmon's citrate agar	Oxoid(UK)
٩. Kligler's iron agar	Oxoid(UK)
١٠. MR-VP medium	Oxoid(UK)
١١. Indole test medium	Oxoid(UK)

١-٣- Chemical : **Table (٢-٢) below shows the general chemical substances used in this study.**

Table (٢-٢) The Chemical Substances used in this Study

The chemical substances	The manufacturing company
1. Stains and reagents	
Crystal violet	Fluka(UK)
Safranin	Fluka(UK)
Iodine	BDH(UK)
Hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂)	Oxoid(UK)
Tetramethyl-p-phenylene-diamine dihydrochloride (oxidase test)	Fluka(UK)
Dimethylamine benzylaldehyde	Fluka(UK)
Methyl red reagent	BDH(UK)
2. Acids, alkalines and alcohols	
Absolute ethanol	BDH(UK)
Amyle-alcohol	BDH(UK)
Acetone	BDH(UK)
Oleic acid	Fluka(UK)
Hydrochloric acid (HCL)	BDH(UK)
Sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄)	Fluka(UK)
Sodium chloride (NaCL)	BDH(UK)
Barium chloride (BaCL₂. 2H₂O)	BDH(UK)
Calcium chloride (CaCL₂)	BDH(UK)
Potassium hydroxide (KOH)	BDH(UK)
Mercuric chloride (HgCL₂)	BDH(UK)
Glycerol	Fluka(UK)
α -naphthol	BDH(UK)
Ethylene diamine tetracetic acid (EDTA)	Rideal(UK)
B-complex vitamin	MOW(India)

1-4- Antimicrobial Disks :

The antimicrobial disks shown in table (٢-٣) were used for detection the susceptibility of the *P.aeruginosa* isolates to these antibiotics. The potency of these antibiotics was checked first towards, gram-positive and gram-negative isolates represented by *Staphylococcus aureus* and *E.coli* respectively. The results of this experiment were recorded according to the standard guidelines recommended by National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards (NCCLS, ٢٠٠٣).

Table (٢-٣) Antimicrobial Disks used in this Study

Antimicrobial agent *	Symbol	Concentration $\mu\text{g}/\text{disk}$	Diameters of inhibition zones (mm)		
			resistant	intermediate	susceptible
Penicillins					
Penicillin	P	١٠ **	≤ 11	١٢-٢١	≥ 22
Ampicillin	Am	١٠	≤ 11	١٢-١٣	≥ 14
Piperacillin	PRI	١٠٠	≤ 17	-	≥ 18
Carbencillin	PY	١٠٠	≤ 13	١٤-١٦	≥ 17
Ticarcillin	Tc	٧٥	≤ 14	-	≥ 1٥
Cephalosporins					
Ceftizoxime	ZOX	٣٠	≤ 14	١٥-١٩	≥ 2٠
Cefixime	CFM	٥	≤ 1٥	١٦-١٨	≥ 1٩
Cefotaxime	CTX	٣٠	≤ 14	١٥-٢٢	≥ 2٣
Cefepime	FEP	٣٠	≤ 14	١٥-١٧	≥ 1٨
Aminoglycosides					
Amikacin	AK	٣٠	≤ 14	١٥-١٦	≥ 17
Gentamicin	CN	١٠	≤ 12	١٣-١٤	≥ 1٥
Tobromycin	TOB	١٠	≤ 12	١٣-١٤	≥ 1٥
Fluoroquinolone					
Ciprofloxacin	CIP	٥	≤ 1٥	١٦-٢٠	≥ 21
Norfloxacin	NOR	١٠	≤ 13	١٤-١٦	≥ 17

Tetracyclines					
Tetracycline	TE	۳۰	≤۱۴	۱۵-۱۸	≥۱۹
Doxycycline	DO	۳۰	≤۱۲	۱۳-۱۵	≥۱۶
Macrolide					
Erythromycin	E	۱۵	≤۱۳	۱۴-۲۲	≥۲۳
Azithromycin	AZM	۱۵	≤۱۳	۱۴-۱۷	≥۱۸
Dichloroacetic acid derivative					
Chloramphenicol	C	۳۰	≤۱۲	۱۳-۱۷	≥۱۸
Polymyxins					
Colistin	CT	۱۰	≤۱۸	۹-۱۰	≥۱۱
RifamycinB derivative					
Rifampin	RA	۵	≤۱۶	۱۷-۱۹	≥۲۰
Monobactams					
Aztreonam	ATM	۳۰	≤۱۵	۱۶-۲۱	≥۲۲
Sulfonamide derivative					
Co-trimoxazole	SXT	۲۵	≤۱۰	۱۱-۱۵	≥۱۶

* All disks above from Bioanalyse company (Turk.).

** Express concentration by International Unit (IU)/ disk.

۱-۵- Antimicrobial Powders :

The following antimicrobial powders were used to determine the Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC). The data concern with these antimicrobial are shown in table (۲-۴) together with the (MIC) standard values for *P.aeruginosa* as recommended by (NCCLs ,۲۰۰۳).

Table (٢-٤) The using Antimicrobial Powders for Minimum Inhibitory Concentration Test

Antimicrobial powder	The manufacturing company	Suggested ranges $\mu\text{g/ml}$ *	Standard values $\mu\text{g/ml}$ **		
			susceptible	intermediate	Resistant
Penicillin	Ajanta ,India	٠.٥-١٢٨	≤ ٨	-	≥ ١٦
Ampicillin	Ajanta ,India	٠.٥-١٢٨	≤ ٨	-	≥ ١٦
Cefixime	Anvaxx ,USA	٠.٥-١٢٨	≤ ١	٢	≥ ٤
Cefotaxime	Brown&burk,UK	٠.٥-٥١٢	≤ ٨	١٦-٣٢	≥ ٦٤
Ceftriaxone	Anvaxx ,USA	٠.٥-٥١٢	≤ ٨	١٦-٣٢	≥ ٦٤
Amikacin	Kee ,India	٠.٠٦-١٢٨	≤ ١٦	٣٢	≥ ٦٤
Gentamicin	Troge ,Germany	٠.٠٦-١٢٨	≤ ٤	٨	≥ ١٦
Ciprofloxacin	Brown&burk,India	٠.٠١٥-٨	≤ ١	٢	≥ ٤
Norfloxacin	Arbor ph., India	٠.٠١٥-٨	≤ ٢	٤	≥ ٨
Co-trimoxazole	Safa, Iraq	٠.٥-١٢٨	≤ ٣٢	-	≥ ٦٤
Doxycycline	Ajanta, India	٠.٥-١٢٨	≤ ٤	٨	≥ ١٦
Rifampin	Swone,India	٠.٥-١٢٨	≤ ١	٢	≥ ٤

*Suggested ranges from (Collee, *et al.*, ١٩٩٦).

**Standard values recommended by (NCCLs, ٢٠٠٣)(Murray, *et al.*, ٢٠٠٣).

2- Methods :

2-1- Patients :

In this study ,260 clinical swabs were collected from both sexes of different ages who referred to Surgical Teaching Hospital in Hilla, through October/ 2004 to May/ 2005. Thirty clinical swabs were positive for *P.aeruginosa*, ten of those swabs from burns, the other ten from chronic suppurative otitis media and the other last ten from UTI. Hence the specimens—swabs were burns exudates, ear exudates and urine respectively.

2-2- Collection of Specimens :

Those swabs were taken according to the methods suggested by (Collee, *et al.*, 1996). In ear infections: swabs moistened with Brain-Heart Infusion (BHI) broth or saline were taken after cleaning the external auditory canal (EAC) from cerumen and pus by 70% ethyl alcohol. In burns: swabs were taken from the depth of burn or lesion, a dry swab must first be moistened with a little amount of (BHI)broth or saline. In UTIs: specimens of urine were generally collected in plastic universal sterile containers. All swabs and specimens must be transported to the laboratory without delay. The samples were immediately inoculated in, MacConkey's agar, blood agar and nutrient agar and incubated for overnight at 37°C under aerobic conditions.

2-3- Sterilization :

The common culture media and solutions being used in this study were sterilized by the autoclaving. Furthermore, the sterility was checked by incubation the autoclaved media at 37°C for overnight. The pH was adjusted at 7.2 for all culture media (Collee, *et al.*, 1996). _____

٢-٤- Preparation the Culture Media :

The using culture media have been prepared according to the information which reported on the containers and sterilized by the autoclave and to ensure these media were not contaminated by put them in the incubator in the temperature 37°C for 24 hours and after that put them in the refrigerator.

The important culture media in the diagnosis have been prepared at the following method :

٢-٤-١- Blood Agar Medium (١٠٪) Human Blood :

This medium was used to cultivate bacterial strains and to study the type of blood hemolysis (Collee, *et al.*, ١٩٩٦).

٢-٤-٢- Gelatin Agar Medium :

It has used for detection of proteolytic activity or gelatin liquefaction. It was prepared by adding ٤.٤٪ of gelatin to nutrient agar medium (Macfaddin, ١٩٧٩).

٢-٤-٣- Motility Medium :

This medium has been used to detect the motility of bacteria, prepared by dissolving ٤ gm agar with ١٠٠ ml of nutrient broth, and then dispensed into sterile test tubes (٥ ml in each) (Collee, *et al.*, ١٩٩٦).

٢-٤-٤- Lipolytic Agar Medium :

This medium was used to detect the ability of organism to produce lipase enzyme. It was prepared by dissolving 0.1 gm of peptone, 0.2 gm of sodium chloride, 0.005 gm of calcium chloride and 2 gm agar in 100 ml of D.W. containing 0.5 ml of oleic acid according to (Chamberlain and Brueggemann, 1997).

2-0- The Chemical Solutions and Reagents :

2-0-1- Gram Stain Solutions :

Those were prepared and used according to the method recommended by (Macfaddin, 1999).

2-0-2- Catalase Test Reagent :

This reagent was prepared in 3% using H_2O_2 as dilute, it was used to study bacterial ability to produce catalase enzyme (Baron, *et al.*, 1994).

2-0-3- Oxidase Test Reagent :

This reagent was prepared by dissolving 1 gm (tetramethyl-paraphenylnene–diamine–dihydrochloride) in 100 ml D.W. and stored in dark bottle (Collee, *et al.*, 1996).

2-0-4- Frazier's reagent :

This reagent was prepared by dissolving 1 gm of mercuric chloride ($HgCl_2$) in 20 ml of concentrated HCL 98%, with the addition of 100 ml

D.W. It was used to detect the ability of bacteria to liquefy gelatin (Collee, *et al.*, 1996).

2-0-0- Kovac's Reagent :

It was prepared by dissolving 0 gm of p-dimethylamine benzyladehyde in 10 ml of amyle-alcohol and then 30 ml of concentrated HCL was added.

It was used to detect the Indol production (Macfaddin, 2000).

2-0-6- Methyl Red reagent :

It was prepared by dissolving 0.1 gm of methyl red indicator in 200 ml of 90% ethanol and the volume was completed up to 500 ml by using D.W. This reagent was used for detection complete glucose hydrolysis (Collee, *et al.*, 1996).

2-0-7- Voges -Proskauer reagent :

It is composed of two solutions A and B, those solutions were prepared according to Macfaddin (2000) as follows :

A- α -naphthol, which was prepared by dissolving 0 gm of α -naphthol in 100 ml of absolute ethylic alcohol.

B– Potassium hydroxide (KOH) solution which was prepared by dissolving 4 gm of KOH in 100 ml of D.W. and was used to detect the partial glucose hydrolysis.

٢-٥-٨- McFarland Solution (tube No. ٠.٥) :

It is composed of two solutions, A and B and were prepared according to (Baron, *et al.*, ١٩٩٤).

A–which was prepared by dissolving ١.١٧٥ gm of barium chloride (BaCl₂.٢H₂O) in 100 ml D.W.

B–which was prepared by added ١ ml of concentrated sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄) in 100 ml D.W. After that add ٠.٥ ml from solution A to ٩٩.٥ ml of solution B. This solution used to compare the turbidity of bacterial suspension to ١٠^٨ cell / ml.×obtain an approximate cell density of ١.٥

٢-٦- Identification :

The grown colonies on the nutrient agar with characterized diffusible pigments were selected for further diagnostic tests. The results of the following experiments regarding diagnosis at *P.aeruginosa* were according to (Baron and Finegold, ١٩٩٠; Baron, *etal.*, ١٩٩٤; Collee, *etal.*, ١٩٩٦; Macfaddin, ٢٠٠٠; Murray, *etal.*, ٢٠٠٣).

A. Cultural characteristics: These characteristics include; colonial morphology (size of colony, its color and the affect of it on the media such as blood hemolysis, diffusible pigments on nutrient agar and inability to ferment lactose on MacConkey's agar. The fluorescent characteristic water soluble pigment in broth was detected under UV-light (Jibrán, 1986).

B. Microscopic Examination: These include the examination of shape, gram-stain reaction, arrangement of cells with each other, motility and capsule presence.

C. Biochemical Tests:

1. Oxidase Test:

A filter paper was moistened with several drops of freshly prepared oxidase reagent 1%, then a small portion of the colony to be tested was picked up and rubbed on the moistened filter paper. Changing the color to blue or purple within 30 seconds indicated for a positive test (Baron, *et al*, 1994).

2. Catalase Test:

Few drops of 3% H₂O₂ were placed onto a portion of a pure colony on the clean, dry slide, the evolution of bubbles of gas, indicates for a positive test (Baron, *et al.*, 1994).

3. Blood Hemolysis Test:

Blood agar medium was streaked with a pure colony of bacteria and incubated at 37°C for 24-48 hours. The appearance of a clear zone around

the colony indicates for β -hemolysis while the presence of green-color indicates for α -hemolysis (Baron, *et al.*, 1994).

ξ. Gelatin Liquefaction Test:

Gelatin agar medium was inoculated with the colony of tested organism and incubated for 24 hours in 37°C. Then, the plates were flooded by the solution of Frazier reagent for 5-10 minutes. Gelatin-liquefying was identified by the present of clear zone around the tested colony (Collee, *et al.*, 1996).

ο. Motility Test:

Tubes containing motility medium were stabbed once at the center with on inoculating needle then, incubated at 37°C for 24-48 hours. The motile bacteria spread out from the line of inoculating (Baron and finegold, 1990).

ϕ. Citrate Utilization Test:

The surface of simmon's citrate slant medium was inoculated with colony of the tested bacteria and incubated at 37°C for 1-3 days. Conversion of the medium color from green to blue indicates for the ability of utilize citrate as a sole carbon source (Macfaddin, 2000).

ϗ. Kligler's Iron Agar Test for H₂O Production:

Only the colonies grown on MacConkey's agar were touched by a straight wire and inoculated on to medium by stabbing the buttom of the tube and streaking the surface of slant. Fermentation was detected by a change in the indicator phenol red to yellow. The pH changes in the buttom

and the slant of medium were recorded after 18–24 hours of incubation. Gas formation is usually visualized as bubbles in the medium caused by the gas formed in the agar. For reaction of black precipitate in the bottom indicates for the production of H₂S (Baron and Finegold, 1990).

8. Growth at 42°C:

P.aeruginosa has a characteristic ability to grow at 42°C in successive subculture. Tubes containing nutrient broth were inoculated with selected colonies and incubated at 42°C for 24 hours. The ability to grow was indicated for the positive result (Jibrán, 1986)).

9. Indol Test:

Tubes containing peptone water were inoculated with the colony of tested bacteria and incubated at 37°C for 48 hours, then several drops of Kovac's reagent were added to the broth medium with gentle. The appearance of red ring on the surface liquid medium was regarded as a positive result (Cruickshank, *et al.*, 1975).

10. Methyl Red Test:

Tubes containing MR–VP broth were inoculated with the colony of tested bacteria and incubated at 37°C for 48 hours. To test culture acidity 0.5 ml of methyl red reagent was added. A positive result was detected by the appearance of red color (Baron and Finegold, 1990).

11. Voges – Proskauer Test:

MR–VP medium was inoculated with the colony of tested bacteria and incubated at 37°C for 48 hours, 0.06 ml of α -naphthol reagent and 0.2 ml of 4% KOH solution were added. After 10 minutes, the formation of red color is indicative for the presence of acetone (acetyl methyl carbinol) (Baron and Finegold, 1990).

12. Lipase Test:

Lipolytic agar medium was inoculated with the colony of tested organism and incubated for 24 hours in 37°C. Positive lipolysis is represented by the presence of halo of precipitate surrounding the colony (Symth and Alford, 1984).

13- Stock Culture :

The diagnosed bacterial isolates were stored for the daily use in BHI broth which contains 0% glycerol and then frozen under -20°C for long time (Fakhridden, 2001). The isolates were re-subculture at interval approximately one month.

14- Sensitivity Tests to Antimicrobials :

The susceptibility of *P.aeruginosa* isolates were determined by two methods: disk diffusion method and Minimal Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) as follows:

A. The Kirby–Bauer standardized single disk method was carried out (Bauer, *et al.*, 1966).

1. Preparation of Culture Media

-Mueller–Hinton medium was employed for this experiment. The medium was cooled to $45-50^{\circ}\text{C}$ and autoclaved appropriate volume was poured in the Petri dishes.

-When the medium solidified, the Petri dishes were incubated at 37°C for 30 minutes to evaporate the excess moisture.

2. Preparation of the inoculum

-With a sterile wire loop, the tops of $4-6$ pure colonies were transferred to a tube containing 5 ml of BHI broth.

-The broth was incubated at 37°C until it's turbidity standard. This usually required at least $4-6$ hours incubation. The cells density was estimated as 1.0×10^8 cell/ml by comparison with McFarland standard tube No. 1.0.

3. Inoculation

Within 10 minutes of adjusting the density of the inoculum, sterile cotton swab on a wooden applicator stick was dipped into the standardized bacterial suspension. The excess fluid was removed by rotating the swab with firm pressure against the inside of the tube above the fluid level. The swab was then used to streak the dried surface of a Mueller–Hinton plate in 3 different planes (by rotating the plate approximately 60° each time) to obtain an even distribution of the inoculum.

The plate lids were replaced and the inoculated plates were allowed to remain on a flat and level surface undisturbed for 3 to 5 minutes to allow absorption of excess moisture.

ξ. Application of the Disks

With a sterile forceps, the selected disks were placed on the surface of medium and pressed firmly but gently into the agar with sterile forceps. Within 10 minutes the inoculated plates were incubated at 37°C for 18 hours in an inverted position.

ο. Reading of Results

After incubation the diameters of the complete inhibition zones were noted measured by using a ruler. The end point, measured to the nearest millimeter was compared with zones of inhibition determined by NCCLs (2003) and to decide the susceptibility of bacteria to antimicrobial agent, whether being resistant or sensitive.

B. Determination of Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations (MIC)

The minimum inhibitory concentrations were measured for each antimicrobial agents toward the bacterial isolates according to the method recommended by Baron, *et al.*, (1994) and Collee, *et al.*, (1996) depending on the turbidity of the bacterial growth. The MIC was recorded as the lowest concentration prevents the bacteria under test to grow.

η. Preparation of the Culture Media

The brain–heart infusion broth was used prepared in the paragraph number (٢–٢–٤).

٢. Preparation of the bacterial Suspension

The bacterial suspension which specific for MIC tests were prepared by transport a pure bacterial growth from overnight growth on blood agar plate directly suspended in screw tube contain ٥ ml of normal saline.

The broth was incubated at ٣٧°C for ٤–٦ hours until it's turbidity compared to that of the recommended turbidity standard.

٣. Preparation Stock Solution

A suitable weight from antimicrobial powder was dissolved in volume of sterilized D.W. to obtain the required concentration. Serial dilutions from the initial concentration were prepared by the two fold dilution method in the liquid culture media (BHI).

٤. Procedure

In this study the macro-dilution method was used as follows :

- Nine sterile test tubes (for each antibiotic) were numbered from ١ to ٩ .
 - ١ ml of BHI broth was dispensed in each tube.
- ١ ml of the antimicrobial solution was added to tube No. ١ using a sterile pipette and mixed well. ١ ml of the mixture was transferred to tube No. ٢ . The contents of tube ٢ were then mixed thoroughly and ١ ml was transferred to tube ٣ . This process was continued up to tube No. ٩ from

which 1 ml was discarded, consequently, the final volume in each tube was 1 ml and the final concentrations of the antibiotic ranged from 0.5-128 µg/ml. The 1 ml of the bacterial suspension previously prepared was added for each tubes. In this experiment, two tubes were used as control. The first one contained 1 ml of BHI broth plus 1 ml of bacterial suspension, while the second control called negative growth control which contained only 1 ml of BHI broth.

-All the test tubes were incubated at 37°C for 18-24 hours. the MIC was recorded as the lack of visual growth relatively to the controls.

2-9- The combined effect of some antimicrobials against

P.aeruginosa in vitro :

Six identified isolates of *P.aeruginosa* were selected for this experiment according to their remarkable resistance to the tested antibiotics. The experiment included ten antibiotics table (2-9). The method of Half-Chess board recommended by Garrod (1978).

The results were compared with control and they interpreted as follows: growth similar to that of control is static action. Reduced number of colonies is partial cidal action. Small number of colonies is complete cidal action and finally if there is no growth, it is total cidal action.

Table (2-9) Suitable Concentrations of Antibiotics for Tests of Cidal Activity (Garrod ,1978)

Antimicrobial agent	Half-chess board final concentration in broth $\mu\text{g/ml}$
Penicillin	10
Ampicillin	10
Cefotaxime	10
Ceftriaxone	10
Amikacin	0
Gentamicin	0
Ciprofloxacin	0
Norfloxacin	0
Co-trimoxazole	10
Rifampin	0

Table(۲-۶)Diagram of Half-Chess Board technique

antimicrobial	P	Am	CTX	CRO	AK	CN	CIP	NOR	SXT	RA
P	\ ml p	\ ml p \ ml Am	\ ml p \ ml CTX	\ ml p \ ml CRO	\ ml p \ ml AK	\ ml p \ ml CN	\ ml p \ ml CIP	\ ml p \ ml NOR	\ ml p \ ml SXT	\ ml p \ ml RA
Am		\ ml Am	\ ml Am \ ml CTX	\ ml Am \ ml CRO	\ ml Am \ ml AK	\ ml Am \ ml CN	\ ml Am \ ml CIP	\ ml Am \ ml NOR	\ ml Am \ ml SXT	\ ml Am \ ml RA
CTX			\ ml CTX	\ ml CTX \ ml CRO	\ ml CTX \ ml AK	\ ml CTX \ ml CN	\ ml CTX \ ml CIP	\ ml CTX \ ml NOR	\ ml CTX \ ml SXT	\ ml CTX \ ml RA
CRO				\ ml CRO	\ ml CRO \ ml AK	\ ml CRO \ ml CN	\ ml CRO \ ml CIP	\ ml CRO \ ml NOR	\ ml CRO \ ml SXT	\ ml CRO \ ml RA
AK					\ ml AK	\ ml AK \ ml CN	\ ml AK \ ml CIP	\ ml AK \ ml NOR	\ ml AK \ ml SXT	\ ml AK \ ml RA
CN						\ ml CN	\ ml CN \ ml CIP	\ ml CN \ ml NOR	\ ml CN \ ml SXT	\ ml CN \ ml RA
CIP							\ ml CIP	\ ml CIP \ ml NOR	\ ml CIP \ ml SXT	\ ml CIP \ ml RA
NOR								\ ml NOR	\ ml NOR \ ml SXT	\ ml NOR \ ml RA

SXT										\ml SXT	\ml SXT \ml RA
RA											\ml RA

**P: penicillin, Am: ampicillin, CTX: cefotaxime, CRO: ceftriaxone, AK: amikacin, CN: gentamicin, CIP: ciprofloxacin, NOR
:norfloxacin, SXT: co-trimoxazole, RA: rifampin.**

A Drug B	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Drug A Drug B	4 0.5	2 0.5	1 0.5	0.5 0.5	0.25 0.5	0.125 0.5	- 0.5
Drug A Drug B	4 0.25	2 0.25	1 0.25	0.5 0.25	0.25 0.25	0.125 0.25	- 0.25
Drug A Drug B	4 -	2 -	1 -	0.5 -	0.25 -	0.125 -	Nil *

***Nil : control tube**

٢-١١- Synergistic Effect of EDTA with

Some Antibiotics on *P.aeruginosa* Isolates :

In this experiment two different techniques were used as follows:

A. The Minimum Inhibitory Concentration

Serial dilutions by two-fold dilution method were prepared from the initial concentration of ampicillin ranged ١٢٨,٦٤,٣٢,١٦,٨,٤ µg/ml and cefixime with concentrations ranged ٣٢,١٦,٨,٤,٢,١ µg/ml.

In this experiment the agar-dilution method was used which recommended by (Garrod, ١٩٧٨; Baron, *et al.*, ١٩٩٤; Butt, *et al.*, ٢٠٠٣). Mueller-Hinton agar was used, concentrations of antimicrobial agents were incorporated into agar plates, one plate for each concentration to be tested. The isolates to be tested were diluted to a slightly greater turbidity than that of a McFarland standard tube No. ٠.٥. Each plate contain from ١ ml of

diluent's antimicrobial agent and 14 ml of agar. After the plates dried, inoculated with a wire loop spread over a small area and incubated for 24 hours at 37°C. The lowest concentration of the antibiotic that allows a slight growth is the MIC.

B. The Agar-Well Diffusion Method

1. The culture media (Mueller-Hinton agar) plates were prepared by the routine method.

2. The bacterial suspension was prepared as follows, with a sterile loop, 4-6 isolated colonies from overnight pure culture were transferred to a tube containing 10 ml of BHI broth. The broth was incubated at 37°C for 4-6 hours. Then, the turbidity of bacterial suspension matching with the turbidity of the McFarland tube No. 0.5 by using the normal saline.

3. Sterile cotton swab was dipped into the bacterial suspension and streaked the dried surface of the Mueller-Hinton plates in 3 different planes.

4. The wells on the Mueller-Hinton plates were prepared by using Pasteur pipette with a diameter of 4 mm. The appropriate concentrations of the antibiotics 64, 32, 16, 8 µg/ml for ampicillin and 16, 8, 4, 2 µg/ml for cefixime were dropped in the wells (0.1 ml from each concentration) and the EDTA in a concentration of 0.1 mg/100 ml with amount 0.1 ml in the specific well.

5. The plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 hours, then the activity of the mixture was detected by determine the inhibition zone around the wells as recommended by (Aulton, 1988 and Butt, *et al.*, 2003).

Antibiotics on *P.aeruginosa* Isolates :

A. The Minimum Inhibitory Concentration

The combined action of B-complex plus amikacin, cefotaxime, gentamicin, ciprofloxacin and ceftriaxone against 10 resistant isolates of *P.aeruginosa* was tested. Serial dilutions by two-fold dilutions method were prepared from the initial concentration of each antibiotic: ciprofloxacin by concentration 2, 1, 0.5, 0.25, 0.12, 0.06 µg/ml, amikacin, cefotaxime, ceftriaxone by concentration 64, 32, 16, 8, 4, 2, 1 µg/ml, gentamicin 32, 16, 8, 4, 2, 1, 0.5 µg/ml and B-complex by concentration 0.2 ml/100 ml sterilized D.W (Ichimiya, *et al.* 1994).

In this experiment the macro-broth dilution method was used. BHI broth was used plus diluent's antibiotic and inoculated the tubes with (1) ml of the bacterial suspension after matching with the turbidity of the McFarland tube No.(0.5). Incubated the test tubes for 24 hours at 37°C.

The lowest concentration of the antibiotic that inhibits the growth of the bacteria was detected as the lack of visual growth relatively to the controls.

B. The Agar-Well Dilution Method

This experiment was carried out exactly as (2-2-11.B) ,but use the concentrations 1, 0.5, 0.25, 0.12 µg/ml for ciprofloxacin and the concentrations 64, 32, 16, 8 µg/ml for ceftriaxone as well as the concentration of B-complex also 0.2 ml/100 ml sterilized D.W.

Chapter Three

Results And Discussion

1- Diagnosis of *P.aeruginosa* :

The preliminary cultural diagnosis for bacterial isolates exhibited that all the thirty 30 isolates characterized by circular rough colonies with large size relatively with long axis in the line of the inoculum streak surrounded by a serrated strict of growth, except some isolates of urinary tract infections (UTIs) characterized by circular smooth colonies with small size. All the identified isolates produced the diagnostic diffusible pigments on nutrient agar, although the pigments varied according to the isolates between bluish-green in burns and UTIs isolates to yellowish-green in color in otitis media isolates and all those isolates produced a sweet grape-like odor which was easily recognized (Morrison and Wenzel, 1984; Gorbach, *et al.*, 1998 and Brooks, *et al.*, 2001).

All the isolates grew on 10% human blood agar. Some isolates which included: 2 isolates of otitis media, 3 isolates of burns and 3 isolates of UTIs were hemolyzed blood with β -hemolytic type and the remained isolates did not hemolyze blood. All those isolates grew on MacConkey's agar, but did not ferment lactose sugar (Baron, *et al.*, 1994; Collee, *et al.*, 1996). Under the microscope, the bacterial cells appeared as short bacilli arranged in single or short chain, negative for Gram-stain reaction, motile, non-spore forming and without capsule (Collee, *et al.*, 1996). In this study some biochemical tests, table (3-1) were carried out and the results were compared with standard results documented by (Baron and Finegold, 1990; Baron, *et al.*, 1994; Collee, *et al.*, 1996; Macfaddin, 2000). Accordingly the results revealed the characteristic closely related to the *P.aeruginosa* were in agreement with referential results. For the practical

purposes, isolates on blood agar that exhibited the characteristic colonial morphology and odor, that are β -hemolytic and oxidase-positive can be presumptively identified as *P.aeruginosa* (Baron and Finegold, 1990). Since no other bacteria produce the water soluble or media diffusible pigments, so it's detection is sufficient for identification at on isolate as *P.aeruginosa* (Baron and Finegold, 1990). Moreover, all pigments producing *P.aeruginosa* (PPPA) are able to grow at (42°C), an ability which regarded as confirmative character to (PPPA) (Baron and Finegold, 1990). All these observations were considered through the identification at *P.aeruginosa* isolates diagnosed in this study.

Table (2-1) Biochemical Tests for Bacterial Isolates in this Study

Test	Result
Catalase test	+
Gelatin Liquefaction	+
Gram-stain	-
Growth at 42°C	+
Hemolysis(β -hemolysis)	+/-
H ₂ S production	-
Indole test	-
Kligler's iron agar	K/no change
Lipase test	+
Methyl-red	-
Motility	+
Oxidase test	+
Pigments production	+
Simmon's citrate	+
Voges-Proskauer	-

+ : positive test, - : negative test, K : Alkaline.

٢- Risk Factors for Infection :

Table (٣-٢) shows the effect of some risk factors which related with the infection of *P.aeruginosa* strains. The results of the present study showed significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between males and female, since that the number of infected male accounted ١٨(٦٠%) versus ١٢(٤٠%) from infected females. Such variation in pseudomonal infections were also reported by other studies (Anonymous, ١٩٩٧; Suman, *et al.*, ٢٠٠٥). However, Nihad and his colleagues (٢٠٠٢) stated that no obvious effect of the sex on distribution of *P.aeruginosa* except in case of UTIs, since it has been found that ٢٦ (٧٨.٧٨ %) of isolates were from infected female while only ٧(٢١.٢١%) were from infected male. These differences may be attributed to social and anatomical differences between males and females. These results belong to reasons related with male patients in this study such as smoking and swimming in some patients infected by otitis media ,use of catheters in some cases of (UTIs) causing catheters associated UTIs as well as the less care by hospital and prolonged hospitalization (Herfindal and Gourley, ٢٠٠٠; Anonymous ٢٠٠٢).

Regarding the age factor, the results showed significant difference ($p < 0.05$) with respect to the infection of *P.aeruginosa*. Since the age group (١-١٥) years and (٤٦-٦٠) years were more susceptible for infections, that the percentages accounted for (٣٦.٧%) and (٤٠%) respectively. Herfindal and Gourley (٢٠٠٠) stated that children and older patients were found to be more susceptible to pseudomonal infections compared with other age groups because some disorders such as immunodeficiency, malnutrition as

well as the poor hygienic conditions may increase the chance of pseudomonal infections (Hauser and Sriram, 2005).

Table (3-2) Risk Factors for Infection

Risk factor	Infection of <i>P.aeruginosa</i> (n=30)%
1. The sex : the males the females	18(60%) 12(40%)
^{X²} Cal.=0.330	^{X²} Tab.=3.84
2. The age(year): (1-10) (11-20) (21-30) (31-40) (41-50)	11(36.7%) 4(13.3%) 3(10%) 12(40%)
^{X²} Cal.=17.04	^{X²} Tab.=7.81
3. Immunocompromised states	17(56.7%)
4. Prolonged antimicrobial use	24(80%)

*S : Significant Difference (p<0.05)

The results of the present study were also indicated that infections among patients with immunocompromised states accounted for 17(56.7%). Owlia and his coworkers(2001) pointed out that the patients with cancer who have neutropenia resulting from chemotherapy or hematologic malignancies were more susceptible for infection by *P.aeruginosa*. This bacteria is one of the major opportunistic human pathogens that causes serious and sometimes fatal infection in

immunocompromised hosts. Examples of compromising conditions include disrupted physical barriers to bacterial invasion (e.g. burn injuries, IV lines, urinary catheters, dialysis catheters, endotracheal tubes) and dysfunctional immune mechanisms, such as those occurring in neonates, cystic fibrosis (CF), AIDs, neutropenia, complement deficiency, hypogammaglobulinemia, and iatrogenic immunosuppression (Herfindal and Gourley, 2000).

Prolonged antimicrobial use as treatment for pseudomonic patient is seemed to be another risk factor for infection with *P.aeruginosa* especially multidrugs-resistant *P.aeruginosa* (MDRPA) (Obritsch, *et al.*, 2005). The results obtained from this study were quite in accordance with such results, since most isolates were detected in a percentage of (80%) of patients who were already under different chemotherapy courses. *P.aeruginosa* seems to evolve fast against antibiotics, either physically adaptation and/or tolerance or genetically represented by intrinsic resistance (Murray, 1997; Rahal, *et al.*, 2002). On the other hand Sorberg and his coworkers (2002) stated that in hospitalized patients who exposed to numerous antimicrobial agents, the intrinsic and acquired resistance enable the organism to survive, subsequently and the chance for infection will increase as well as the distribution of the organism around the environment particularly hospital environment will increase. Unproperly use of antibiotics may stimulate *P.aeruginosa* to resist antibiotics (Livermore, 2002).

2- Site of Infection :

P.aeruginosa causes a broad spectrum of infections which are associated with urinary, respiratory and gastrointestinal tract, burn, wound, eyes, ears, as well as with other sites (Herfindal and Gourley, 2000). Table (3-3) shows the distribution of *P.aeruginosa* according to the site of infection. The results of the present study showed that burns are the most accessible site by *P.aeruginosa* 31.3%. This may be ascribed to the highly distribution of this organism around the hospital environment as previously mentioned and the exposure to the burns wounds to that environment. The results were in agreement with those results obtained by other similar studies of (Kolmos, *et al.*, 1993; Xu, *et al.* 2002).

Table (3-3) Frequency of *P.aeruginosa* according to the Site of Infection

Type of sample	Total	<i>P.aeruginosa</i> isolates n(%)
Ear swabs	58	10 (17.2%)
Urine samples	170	10 (5.9%)
Burn swabs	32	10 (31%)
Total	260	30 (11.5%)

(Kolmos, *et al.*, 1993) pointed out that *P.aeruginosa* is an important pathogen in burned patients, 25-29% of burned patients become colonized during the course of their disease, and a quarter of colonized patients develop invasive infections. Septicemia is associated with a 28% increase in mortality, because this bacteria has complex virulence factors include

extracellular enzymes and toxins and cellular compounds such as lipopolysaccharide as well as motility. On the other hand, host-related factors favouring infection with *P.aeruginosa* include the depth and extent of burns, old age, long stay in hospital and systemic or topical treatment with broad-spectrum antimicrobial agents. In recent years there has been a decline in severe *Pseudomonas* infections, which has been ascribed to faster surgical removal of all necrotic tissue, followed by immediate grafting, and the introduction of topical silver compounds. Better isolation facilities presumably also play a role, since they result in a delay in colonization with *P.aeruginosa* to a time when wound healing has decreased the risk of invasive infection (Kolmos, *et al.*, 1993).

Cross-infection due to failure by staff to disinfect their hands is probably the main route of spread of *P.aeruginosa* in burns units. Contaminated bath equipment and mattresses have been identified as sources of infection, but on the whole there is little evidence that patients become infected with *P.aeruginosa* from inanimate sources, despite the fact that the organism is frequently found in the environment of a burn unit (Sidorenko, *et al.*, 1999; Igumbor, *et al.*, 2000; Bertrand, *et al.*, 2000; Fakhriden, 2001; Hauser and Sriram, 2005).

Return to the site of infection, *P.aeruginosa* in UTIs less than burns and otitis media infections. These results are relatively acceptable, since they comparable with the results being reported by (Verhaz, *et al.*, 2003) and different with (Nihad, *et al.*, 2002). Bonaventura and his coworkers (1998) who pointed that the presence of an indwelling catheter was associated with a decreased incidence of *E.coli* infections and an increased incidence of *P.aeruginosa*. VanEldere (1999) stated that catheters introduce an artificial substratum into the body and cause persistent infections. These

recurrent infections are mainly due to the accumulation of mixed biofilms on the artificial surface of the catheter or other implant. A biofilm on an indwelling urinary catheter consists of adherent microorganism, their extracellular products and host components deposited on the catheter. Biofilm on urinary catheters results in persistent infections that are resistant to antimicrobial therapy. However, the highest percentage of resistance was seen to gentamicin. It was observed that strains which showed resistance to gentamicin also showed significant increase in biofilm production.

(Hauser and Sriram, 2006) pointed out that *P.aeruginosa* was the most common bacteria isolated from mild-to-severe form of otitis externa and chronic suppurative otitis media. Moreover, involvement of the ear can present as a mild, superficial, and often self-limited infection (e.g. swimmer's ear) or as malignant otitis externa which presents with a history of non resolving otitis externa, especially in patients who have diabetes or AIDs. However, results can be variable from area to area from patient to patient, since hygienic conditions, epidemiological conditions, patient status, the severity of infection and irrational use of antibiotics, may contribute in the types and frequencies at causative agents of infection (Verhaz, et al., 2003).

ξ-Distribution of *P.aeruginosa* Infection

between Outpatients and Inpatients :

In attempt to determine the frequency of pseudomonal infection in and out of the hospital environment, the data obtained in this study were analyzed. This analysis may indicate the rate of pseudomonal distribution

within their environments. The results came as it was expected. Figure (3-1) showed the rate of infection within hospitalized patients accounted for 17(56.7%) versus 13(43.3%) in non-hospitalized individuals(out patients).The results were in agreement with almost all results being reported worldwide (Chenoweth and Lynch, 1997; Blahova, *et al.*, 2000; Broom, *et al.*, 2000; Oliver, *et al.*, 2000; Rahal, *et al.*, 2002; Normark B.H and Normark K.S, 2002; Hauser and Sriram, 2005).

From this, it can be conclude that hospital environment perhaps constitutes a habitat for microorganisms and a focus for subsequent infections or what they called (hospital-acquired infections). Furthermore the attention should be drawn to this phenomenon, since the bacterial isolates resident in hospital are more aggressive in relative with the wild types isolate, since there isolates are selectively survive the hospital policies regarding disinfection, sterilization and chemotherapy. For this, *P.aeruginosa* was described as a common pathogen in hospitals, especially in the intensive care units(ICUs) and it has always been difficult to eradicate (Sanders, 1987; Rahal, *et al.*, 2002).

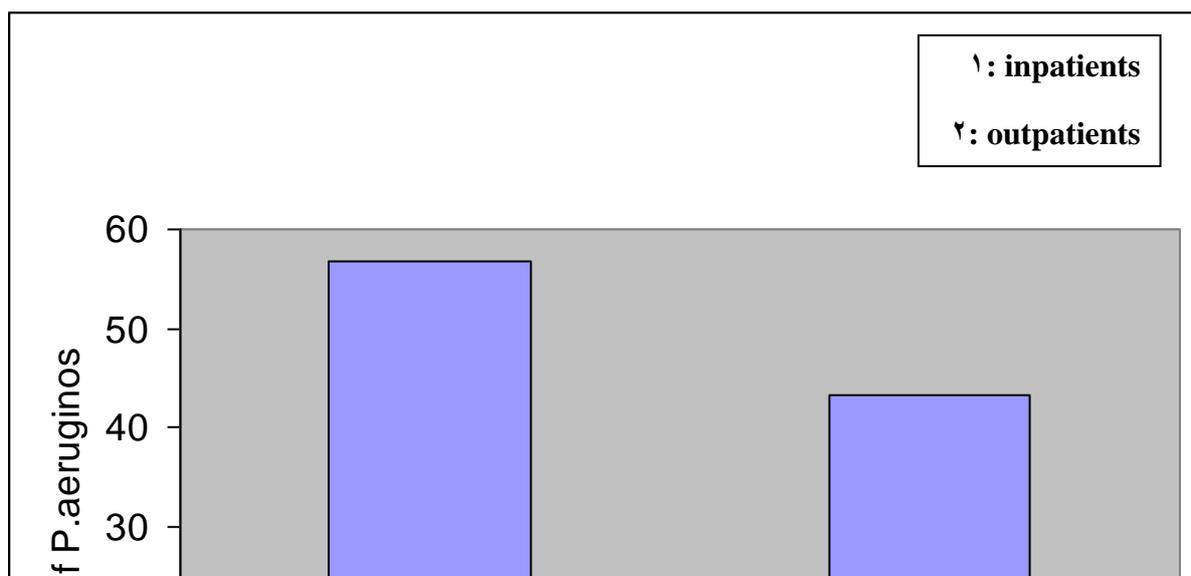


Figure (٣-١) The Ratio of *P.aeruginosa* in Patients.

◦- Antimicrobial Resistance in *P.aeruginosa* :

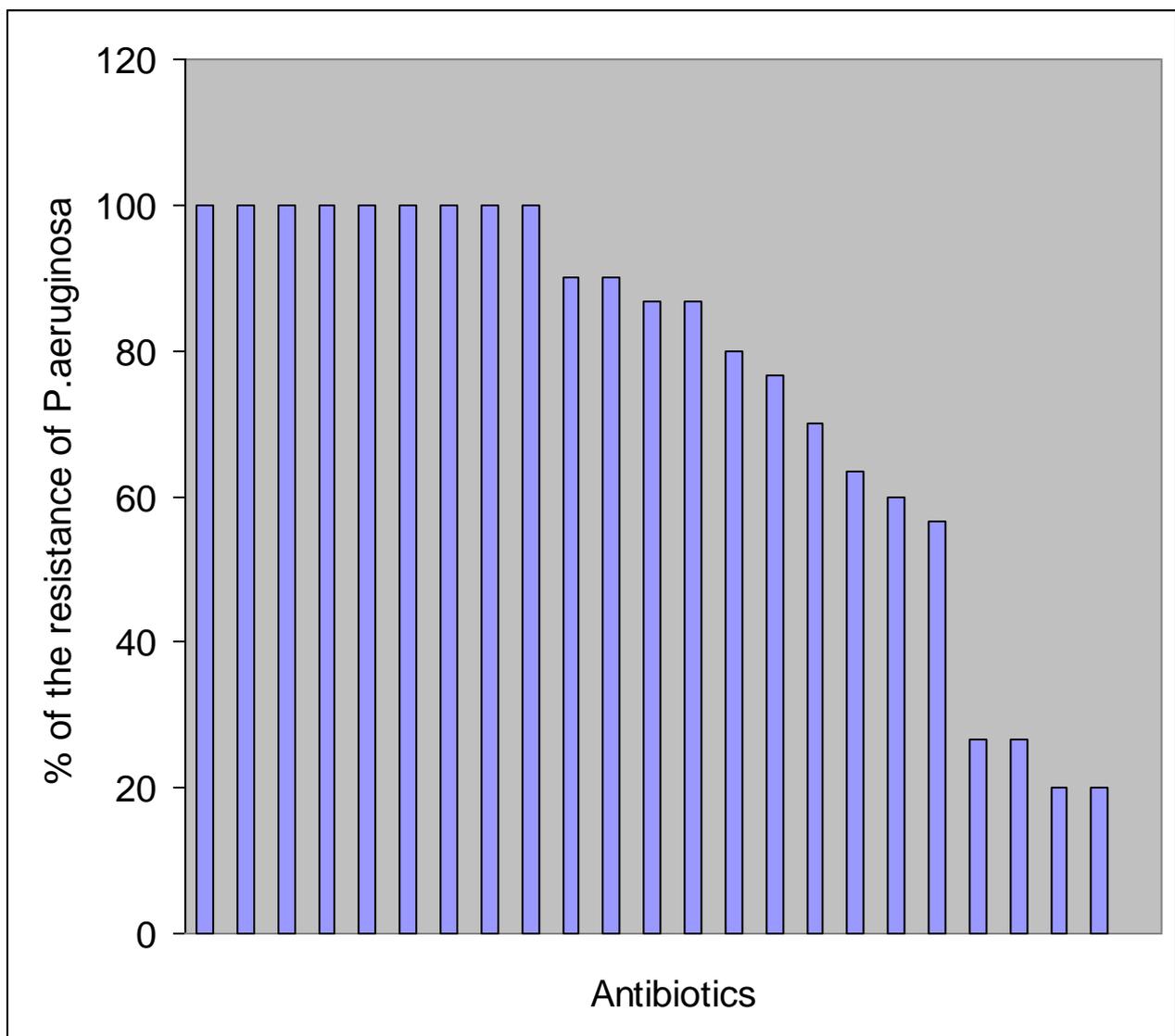
Results shown in figure (٣-٢) reveal a remarkable increase in Pseudomonal resistance to beta-lactam antibiotics represented by penicillin, ampicillin, carbencillin, cefixime, cefotaxime, ceftizoxime, ticarcillin, piperacillin and cefepime, since the level of resistance accounted for the first four antibiotics (١٠٠%) to for (٩٠%), (٨٦.٧%), (٨٠%), (٧٦.٧%) and

(100%) for cefotaxime, ceftizoxime, ticarcillin, piperacillin and cefepime respectively. The resistance to the penicillins and cephalosporins has become an important issue in most hospitals in which resistance rate have reached greater levels. These results were in agreement with those results being obtained by other studies of (Jibrán, 1986; Igumbor, *et al.*, 2000; Mehta, *et al.*, 2001; De-Freitas and Barth, 2002; Nihad, *et al.*, 2002; Zhang, *et al.*, 2002).

The beta-lactamases have been reported to hydrolyze all antipseudomonal agents. Moreover, *P.aeruginosa* cells particularly in patients with chronic infections can develop a biofilm, in which bacterial cells are enmeshed into a mucoid exopolysaccharide becoming more resistant to beta-lactams as well as decrease the outer membrane permeability that enable bacteria to gain resistance development (Bonfiglio, *etal.*, 1998; Giamarellou and Antoniadou, 2001). The problem with *P.aeruginosa* is that, the use of a single antipseudomonal agent, even when *P.aeruginosa* is sensitive, is associated with the development of resistance during therapy (Kaye, *etal.*, 2000). Resistance mediated by *P.aeruginosa* can be attributed both to an inducible, chromosomally mediated beta-lactamases that can render broad-spectrum cephalosporins inactive, and to a plasmid-mediated beta-lactamases that can lead to resistance to several penicillins and older cephalosporins (Graig and Ebert, 1994; Eltahawy and Khalaf, 2001).

The results with regard to other antibiotics represented by tetracycline, doxycycline, erythromycin, rifampin, chloramphenicol, cotrimoxazole, gentamicin colistin, aztreonam and tobromycin were variable and the resistance of *P.aeruginosa* against these antibiotics ranged from (100%) for the first five antibiotics to (96.7%) for the tobromycin. The

resistance toward co-trimoxazole, gentamicin, colistin and aztreonam accounted for (90%) , (86.7%) , (63.3%) and (60%) respectively, while *P.aeruginosa* isolates showed resistance with less percentages to other antibiotics represented by ciprofloxacin, norfloxacin, amikacin and azithromycin accounted for (26.7%), (26.7%) , (20%) and (20%) respectively.



Am	P	Py	Cfm	Te	Do	C	E	Ra	Ctx	Sxt	Zox	Cn	Tc	Prl	FEP	Ct	Atm	Top	Cip	Nor	Ak	Azm
----	---	----	-----	----	----	---	---	----	-----	-----	-----	----	----	-----	-----	----	-----	-----	-----	-----	----	-----

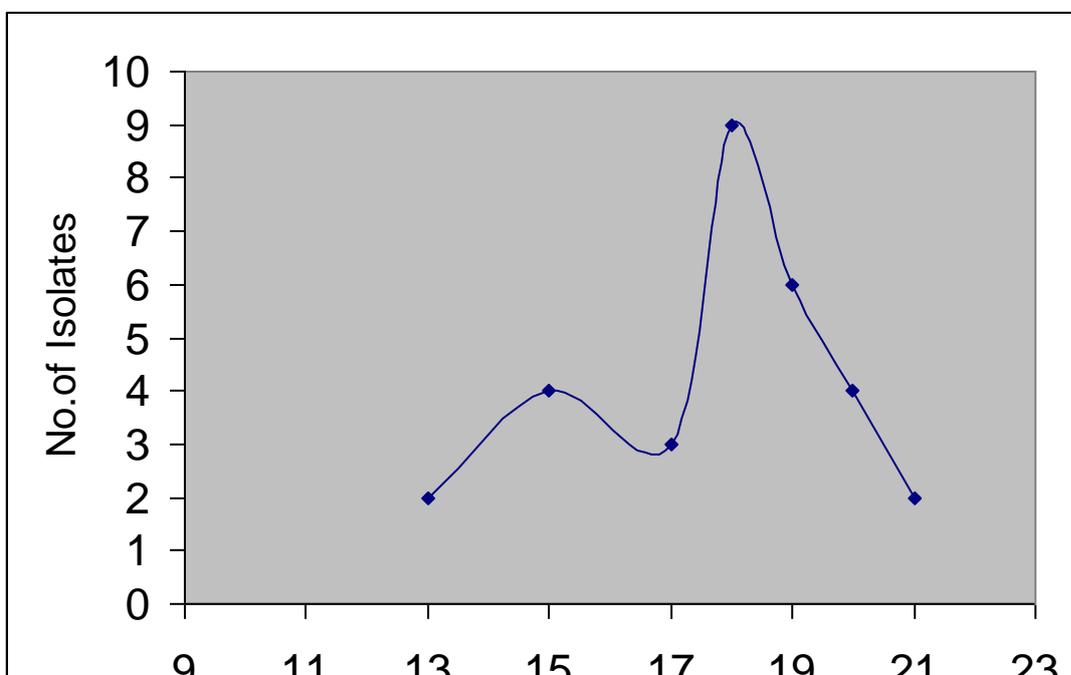
Figure(۳-۲) Rates of Resistance of *P.aeruginosa* for Antibiotics.

P.aeruginosa resistance can be conferred by the outer membrane which provides an effective intrinsic barrier to accessing the targets are located either in the cell wall or cytoplasmic membrane or within the cytoplasm and modifications in outer membrane permeability via alterations in porin protein channels represent a component of many resistance mechanisms. In addition, inactivating enzymes released from the inner membrane can function more efficiently within the confines of the periplasmic space. The mechanisms by which intracellular concentrations of drugs are limited include decreased permeability through the outer membrane, decreased uptake through the cytoplasmic membrane and active efflux back out across the cytoplasmic membrane (Henwood, *et al.*, ۲۰۰۱; Po-Ren, *et al.*, ۲۰۰۲).

From these records one can conclude that the azithromycin, amikacin, norfloxacin and ciprofloxacin are the most effective antibiotics against *P.aeruginosa* and confidently can be suggested for treatment to overcome this bacteria. The results described above were compared with other results

reported by Suzuki and his colleagues (1997), Burns and his colleagues (2000) and Sorberg and his coworkers (2002) and were in relative satisfactory accordance, although some other results being reported by other studies (Nihad, *et al.*, 2002 ; Boubaker, *et al.*, 2003) were in contrast somewhat.

Figure (3-3) explains the relationship between the number of isolates and the number of the antibiotics to which are resistant. The results in this study showed that 2 isolates resistant the less number of antibiotics accounted for 13 antibiotics and 2 isolates resistant the large number of antibiotics accounted for 21 antibiotics, while 4 isolates resistant 10 antibiotics and another 4 isolates resistant 20 antibiotics. The remain isolates resistance antibiotics as follow: 3 isolates resistant 14 antibiotics, 6 isolates resistant 19 antibiotics and finally 9 isolates resistant 18 antibiotics. (Gotoh, 2001 and Singh, *et al.*, 2002) mentioned that multiple antibiotics resistance was at first thought to be caused exclusively by the combination of several resistance mechanisms including membrane impermeability, the outer membrane barrier in bacteria and interplay between impermeability and multidrug efflux pumps.



Figure(۳-۳) Multi-Drug Resistant For *P.aeruginosa* Isolates.

Also (Livermore, ۲۰۰۲) pointed out that *P.aeruginosa* carries multiresistance plasmids less often than does *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, develops mutational resistance to cephalosporins less readily than *Enterobacter* species and has less inherent resistance than *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia*. But *P.aeruginosa* consider uniquely problematic by a combination of: the species inherent resistance to many drugs classes, it's ability to acquire resistance, via mutations, to all relevant treatments; it's high and increasing rates of resistance locally; and it's frequent role in serious infections. A few isolates of *P.aeruginosa* are resistant to all reliable antibiotics and this problem seems likely to grow with the emergence of integrons that carry gene cassettes encoding both carbapenemases and amikacin acetyltransferases (Lambert, ۲۰۰۲).

۳- Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations (MIC) :

Although a number of factors affect the patient outcome in bacterial infection, the rapid detection of effective antibacterial therapy is known to

reduce severity and mortality as well. The past decade has witnessed a dramatic increase in the prevalence of antibacterial resistance and much of this resistance is related to commonly used antimicrobial agents. The rapid evolution of antibacterial resistance requires that both bacteriologists and physicians have a basic understanding of the mechanisms of resistance to ensure the most appropriate antibacterial choices are made when initiating therapy. Moreover, the proper concentration of antibiotic can be helpful in establishing the level of resistance and can substantially affect the pathogens (Myrna, 1998; Murray, *et al.*, 2003).

In the present study, twelve (12) antibiotics were tested for (MICs). These antibiotics are: cefixime, rifampin, doxycycline, penicillin, ampicillin, cefotaxime, gentamicin, co-trimoxazole, ceftriaxone, amikacin, norfloxacin and ciprofloxacin. These antibiotics were chosen as they are traditionally used in the treatment of bacterial infections. In the broth dilution method, various concentrations of an antibiotic were inoculated with a standard suspension of tested bacterial isolate. Following an overnight incubation at 37°C, the (MIC) was determined by observing the lowest concentration of the antibiotic that will inhibit visible growth of the tested bacteria (Baron, *et al.*, 1994; Murray, *et al.*, 1999).

Results shown in table (3-4) indicated a high degree of pseudomonal resistance to most antibiotics being used in this study. The level of resistance accounted for: (100%) regarding the cefixime, rifampin and doxycycline antibiotics to (96.7%) and (93.3%) for penicillin and ampicillin respectively. Furthermore, the (MICs) ranged from 4 to <128 µg/ml for cefixime and 8 to <128 µg/ml for the rifampin, doxycycline, penicillin and ampicillin respectively. Reimer and Reller (1981) obtained resistance for the pseudomonal isolates accounted for (100%) against penicillin and

ampicillin with (MICs) ranges reach to ($>^{512}$) $\mu\text{g/ml}$ to both antibiotics. The results of the present study which outlined in table (3-5) showed that (6) isolates were sensitive for cefixime with MIC ranged from 4 to 16 $\mu\text{g/ml}$, (7) isolates were sensitive for rifampin with MIC ranged from 16 to 32 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ and (8) isolates were sensitive for doxycycline with MIC ranged from 16 to 32 $\mu\text{g/ml}$.

In the present study all the results which related with cefixime, rifampin and doxycycline were recorded as resistance according to the NCCLS guidelines, although these results were in agreement with the results obtained by Alkawash and his coworkers (1999) who stated that the MICs for doxycycline and rifampin against *P.aeruginosa* ranged from (32-64) $\mu\text{g/ml}$ were appeared to confer benefit in treatment of human cystic fibrosis (CF) infected by *P.aeruginosa* when they were given in combination with other drugs. These seems to be in agreement with results obtained from the present study as observed in the antibiotics combination experiment.

Table (3-4) The Values of Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations (MIC) of some Antibiotics against *P.aeruginosa* Isolates

Antimicrobial agent	Suggested MICs ranges $\mu\text{g/ml}$ *	Percentages for resistant bacteria (n=30)%	MICs values $\mu\text{g/ml}$ **
CFM	0.5-128	30(100)	4-<128
RA	0.5-128	30(100)	8-<128
DO	0.5-128	30(100)	8-<128
P	0.5-128	29(96.7)	8-<128
Am	0.5-128	28(93.3)	8-<128
CTX	0.5-512	26(86.7)	8-128
CN	0.06-128	26(86.7)	0.25-<128
SXT	0.5-128	25(83.3)	32-<128
CRO	0.5-512	16(53.3)	1-128
AK	0.06-128	8(26.7)	0.5-64
NOR	0.15-8	8(26.7)	0.06-<8
CIP	0.15-8	6(20.0)	0.06-4

* suggested MICs ranges for *P.aeruginosa* (Collee, *et al.*, 1996).

** experimental MICs values for *P.aeruginosa*, all intermediate resistance isolates recorded resistance (Murray, *et al.*, 1999).

Table (3-5) Sensitive Isolates of *P.aeruginosa* for Cefixime, Rifampin and Doxycycline

Antimicrobial agent	Sensitive isolates			Total	MIC ranges $\mu\text{g/ml}$ *	Standard values $\mu\text{g/ml}$ **
	Burns	Otitis	UTI			
Cefixime	1	3	2	6	4-16	≤ 1 2 ≥ 4
Rifampin	0	3	4	7	16-32	≤ 1 2 ≥ 4
Doxycycline	0	3	2	5	16-32	≤ 4 8 ≥ 16

*Experimental values .

**Standard values recommended by (NCCLs, 2003).

The results obtained by this study showed that *P.aeruginosa* isolates revealed high resistance rates (86.7%), (86.7%) and (83.3%) for cefotaxime, gentamicin and Co-trimoxazole respectively. Moreover, the MICs values for these antibiotics ranged from 8 to 128 µg/ml, 0.25 to <128 µg/ml and 32 to <128 µg/ml respectively, while (Poirel, *et al.*, 2001) pointed out that the MIC value of cefotaxime ranged from 4 to 64 µg/ml with a percentage of (50%) regarding *P.aeruginosa* strains being isolated by them. These results with gentamicin were agreeable with that results observed by (Po-Ren, *et al.*, 2002) who pointed out that the MIC values for this antibiotics against *P.aeruginosa* ranged from 0.5 to 128 µg/ml with a percentage of (75%).

The resistance of Pseudomonas isolates tested in this study against ceftriaxone, amikacin, norfloxacin and ciprofloxacin accounted for (53.3%), (26.7%), (26.7%) and (20%) respectively. Furthermore, the MIC values ranged from 1-128 µg/ml for ceftriaxone , 0.5-64 µg/ml for amikacin, 0.16-8 µg/ml for norfloxacin and 0.16-4 µg/ml for ciprofloxacin. Relatively, these antibiotics seems to be the most effective antibiotics against *P.aeruginosa* and consequently can be suggested for overcoming this organism. This suggestion may require further in vitro and in vivo investigations in order to develop an anti-pseudomonal compound being confidently recommended and safety used for treatment of pseudomonal infections in human. However, the results were in accordance with those results detected by worldwide studies (Livermore and Chen, 1999; Galloway, *et al.*, 1999). All those studies concluded that ciprofloxacin and may all the quinolone members are the only effective oral

antipseudomonal agents available at the present time and their use may help patients to recover.

To confirm the results, the study used (۲) two different techniques for testing the susceptibility of the MDRPA against the tested antibiotics in attempt to detect the proper method and giving a real picture for susceptibility of this organism for these antibiotics. Table (۲-۶) shows a comparison results between disk diffusion and (MIC) techniques. The results revealed no significant difference ($p > 0.05$) between these two methods. The MIC seem to be more reliable and more acceptable compared with the other method. This result may confirm the results obtained by (Murray, *et al.*, ۱۹۹۹) who proposed that the MIC method is a well-standardized and reliable reference method that is useful for research purposes. The results may conclude that MIC method provides accurate and precise results. This can be attributed to the objectivity of the presence or absence the growth which is visually detected, therefore this method is desirable in selected cases.

The results with disk diffusion method may be affected by some factors such as the culture media (type, nature and concentration), growth density, temperature and pH of the medium in addition to the technical difficulties. Furthermore, the results with disk diffusion method may vary according to the qualification and experience of the demonstrator who measured the results (the inhibition zone) (Garrod, *et al.*, ۱۹۷۸). Even though, the disk diffusion method remains applicable, simple, inexpensive, does not require any special equipments and it provides category results that are easily understood by clinicians (Murray, *et al.*, ۲۰۰۳).

Table (3-6) Comparison of Susceptibility Testing Results between Techniques for (30) Isolates of *P.aeruginosa*

Antimicrobial agent	Degree of susceptibility	Susceptibility testing methods	
		Disk diffusion method n(%)	MIC method n(%)
P	S	0	1(3.3)
	I	0	0
	R	30(100)	29(96.7)
Am	S	0	2(6.7)
	I	0	0
	R	30(100)	28(93.3)
CFm	S	0	0
	I	0	0
	R	30(100)	30(100)
RA	S	0	0
	I	0	0
	R	30(100)	30(100)
Do	S	0	0
	I	0	3(10)
	R	30(100)	27(90)
SXT	S	3(10)	0(16.7)
	I	0	1(3.3)
	R	27(90)	24(80)
CN	S	4(13.3)	4(13.3)
	I	2(6.7)	0(16.7)
	R	24(80)	21(70)
CTX	S	3(10)	4(13.3)
	I	8(26.7)	9(30)
	R	19(63.3)	17(56.7)

NOR	S	$22(73.3)$	$22(73.3)$
	I	.	$1(3.3)$
	R	$8(26.7)$	$7(23.3)$
CIP	S	$22(73.3)$	$24(80)$
	I	$4(13.3)$	$3(10)$
	R	$4(13.3)$	$3(10)$
AK	S	$24(80)$	$22(73.3)$
	I	$6(20)$	$7(23.3)$
	R	.	$1(3.3)$
CRO	S	-(N)	$14(46.7)$
	I	-	$9(30)$
	R	-	$7(23.3)$

(N): Non-dun.

∇- Antimicrobial Combination :

The idea behind the use of drugs combinations to treat bacterial infections is to reduce the chance of resistant mutants arising during the treatment. Theoretically, if the rate of mutation to one drug is, for example, 10^{-8} and to the second is 10^{-9} , the probability of mutation to resistance to both drugs occurring in a single cell is 10^{-17} (Wilson and Miles, 1975). A bacterial population of 10^{10} cell/ml is beyond the range normally expected in vivo and the danger of resistant mutants emerging should be largely or totally removed (Jibrán, 1986).

Another reason for the use of drugs in combination status is that the combination may be more effective than either drugs when used alone. The interaction between any two drugs in combination may be either synergistic, partially synergistic (i.e.additive), indifferent or antagonistic (Collee, *et al.*, 1996). Combinations that can achieve synergistic or additive effects are of great value when toxicity of one or both members of the combination is considered because with the enhanced effect one can use low concentrations to produce the desired therapeutic action. Several important antimicrobials have significant dose-related toxicities which

seriously limit their use (e.g. chloramphenicol and aminoglycosides) (Cunha, 2000).

The use of combinations might couple a broad-spectrum of antimicrobial activity. In some polymicrobial (multiple) infections, it may be necessary to treat with agents active against each of the major pathogens (Obritsch, *et al.*, 2005). Antimicrobial combinations have been of particular interest clinically for the treatment of infections caused by organisms that were resistant to acceptable concentrations of single antimicrobials. Although those antimicrobials have been used to treat a wide varieties of infections, there are very few controlled trials of their efficacy and only a small number of instances in which there appears to be clear agreement between the invitro laboratory data and clinical applications. These include the use of piperacillin, mezlocillin, ticarcillin or other pecillins plus tobromycin or gentamicin for serious pseudomonas infections (Cunha, 2000).

Accordingly the antibiotics combination for six selected isolates of *P.aeruginosa* was investigated and the results were shown in tables (3-7 to 3-13). The results indicated for synergistic effects between beta-lactam antibiotics represented by penicillin, ampicillin, cefotaxime and ceftriaxone. These antibiotics are the safest and mostly widely used class of antibiotics ever developed were known to bind with specific receptors in the cell wall which called penicillin binding proteins (PBPs), at least some of which are enzymes involved in transpeptidation reactions, from three to six (or more) PBPs per cell can be present. After antibiotic molecules have attached to the receptors, peptidoglycan synthesis is inhibited as final transpeptidation is blocked. A final bactericidal event is the removal or inactivation of an inhibitor of autolytic enzymes in the cell wall. This

activates the autolytic enzymes and results in cell lysis (Obritsch, *et al.*, 2000), but Cunha, (2000) stated that the double beta-lactam combinations were popular years ago for the treatment of fever in neutropenic patients have not shown any advantage over the association of antimicrobials with different targets and most probably should not be used in the treatment of severe infections caused by *P.aeruginosa*.

Table(3-7) Antibiotics Combination Effect on Burn Isolate No. 12 of *P.aeruginosa*

Antibiotics	P	Am	CTX	CRO	AK	CN	CIP	NOR	SXT	RA
P	++	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+
Am		++	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+
CTX			++	-	-	-	(+)	(+)	+	(+)
CRO				(+)	-	-	(+)	+	-	-
AK					+	-	+	+	-	+
CN						++	+	+	++	+
CIP							+	+	+	+
NOR								(+)	(+)	(+)
SXT									++	++
RA										++

Table (۳-۸) Antibiotics Combination Effect on Burn Isolate No.۳۰ of *P.aeruginosa*

Antibiotics	P	Am	CTX	CRO	AK	CN	CIP	NOR	SXT	RA
P	++	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+
Am		++	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+
CTX			+	-	-	-	-	++	++	-
CRO				+	-	-	-	(+)	-	-
AK					+	-	++	+	-	+
CN						++	(+)	++	++	-
CIP							+	+	+	-
NOR								++	++	++
SXT									++	+
RA										++

++ : static effect only

+ : partial cidal effect

(+) : incomplete cidal effect

- : fully cidal effect

Table (۳-۹) Antibiotics Combination Effect on Otitis Media Isolate No. ۳۰ of *P.aeruginosa*

Antibiotics	P	Am	CTX	CRO	AK	CN	CIP	NOR	SXT	RA
P	++	+	+	-	-	-	++	++	++	(+)
Am		++	+	+	+	+	++	++	++	(+)

CTX			+	-	-	-	+	++	++	-
CRO				+	-	-	+	++	++	-
AK					+	-	++	++	+	(+)
CN						++	++	++	++	(+)
CIP							(+)	++	++	+
NOR								(+)	++	-
SXT									++	+
RA										++

**Table (3-10) Antibiotics Combination Effect on Otitis Media Isolate
No. of *P.aeruginosa***

Antibiotics	P	Am	CTX	CRO	AK	CN	CIP	NOR	SXT	RA
P	++	+	-	-	-	-	++	++	+	+
Am		++	+	+	+	+	++	++	++	+
CTX			++	+	-	-	++	++	++	(+)
CRO				++	-	-	++	++	++	(+)
AK					(+)	-	++	++	+	(+)
CN						++	++	++	++	+
CIP							++	++	+	+
NOR								++	++	++
SXT									++	+
RA										++

++ : static effect only

+ : partial cidal effect

(+) : incomplete cidal effect

- : fully cidal effect

Table (٣-١١) Antibiotics Combination Effect on UTI Isolate No.٢٤ of *P.aeruginosa*

Antibiotics	P	Am	CTX	CRO	AK	CN	CIP	NOR	SXT	RA
P	++	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+
Am		++	-	-	-	-	++	++	+	-
CTX			+	-	-	-	+	+	+	-
CRO				(+)	-	-	+	+	-	-
AK					(+)	-	++	++	++	-
CN						++	+	+	-	-
CIP							++	+	+	+
NOR								++	+	+
SXT									++	+
RA										++

Table (٣-١٢) Antibiotics Combination Effect on UTI Isolate No.٢٥ of *P.aeruginosa*

Antibiotics	P	Am	CTX	CRO	AK	CN	CIP	NOR	SXT	RA
P	++	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+
Am		++	-	-	-	-	++	++	+	-
CTX			(+)	-	-	-	+	++	-	+
CRO				(+)	-	-	+	+	-	-
AK					(+)	-	+	+	-	-
CN						+	+	++	+	+
CIP							++	++	++	+
NOR								++	++	++
SXT									++	+
RA										++

++ :static effect only

+ :partial cidal effect

(+) :incomplete cidal effect - :fully cidal effect

Table (٣-١٣) Fully Cidal Synergism cases in Antibiotic Combination on the six Selected Isolates of *P.aeruginosa*

Antibiotics	P	Am	CTX	CRO	AK	CN	CIP	NOR	SXT	RA
P			-	-	-	-	-	-		
Am			-	-	-	-				-
CTX				-	-	-	-		-	-
CRO					-	-	-		-	-
AK						-			-	-
CN									-	-
CIP										-
NOR										-
SXT										
RA										

- : fully cidal effect .

Beta-lactam antibiotics which were used in this study revealed another synergism case with amikacin and gentamicin from one side and with ciprofloxacin and Norfloxacin from other side. This may due to the ability of beta-lactam antibiotics enhance the absorption of aminoglycosides by increase the permeability and by hydrophilic uptake pathway which responsible for the transport of beta-lactams ,and during the outer membrane by channels filled with water so called transmembrane diffusion (Brooks,*et al.*,٢٠٠١) and help the quinolone antibiotics by inhibition cell wall synthesis, enable the quinolones molecules from

entering to the bacterial cell and reaching to the target site (DNA gyrase) leading to kill the bacteria (Steven, *et al.*, 1991).

The potency of trimethoprim and the sulfonamides against *P.aeruginosa* is limited, since the MICs of this compound toward *P.aeruginosa* is typically in the resistance is not well understood yet ,but this may be to the poor affinity for the target enzymes and low outer membrane permeability (Kohler,*et al.*, 1996) and although this bacteria resistant Co-trimoxazole when used alone, but when combined with beta-lactam antibiotics from one side and with aminoglycosides from other side it revealed synergistic effect. (Aboud, 2001) observed that the combination of bacteriostatic antibiotic with bactericidal antibiotic led to synergistic effect that may due to the penetration mechanism of the antibiotic in to the bacterial cell being do not be affected by mutations occur in the organism ,that may because of it's structure properties.

Rifampin is particularly active against gram-negative bacteria and Mycobacteria. It acts by inhibiting bacterial DNA dependent RNA polymerase. Point mutations in the chromosomal genes confer resistance to rifampin. The frequency of point mutations occurrence precludes the use of rifampin as a single agent for the treatment of bacterial infections resulted by *P.aeruginosa* (Murray,*et al.*, 2003). Cunha,(2000) stated that ,invitro synergism has been observed if rifampin was added to the combination of penicillins and/or aminoglycosides and results have improved in some experimental animal models using these combinations, so that rifampin represented synergism case when combined with every of (ampicillin, cefotaxime, ceftriaxone ,amikacin ,gentamicin ,ciprofloxacin and norfloxacin) each one on side in this study.

^ - The Combined Effect of the Ceftriaxone Plus

Gentamicin on *P.aeruginosa* isolates :

Despite the advent of newer antipseudomonal compounds such as carbapenems and the fluoroquinolones, aminoglycosides have an important role in the therapy of serious *P.aeruginosa* infections. They continue to be used because of (1) their excellent and fast concentration-dependent bactericidal activity, a determining factor in the prognosis of severe *P.aeruginosa* infections in neutropenic patients or in ICU life-threatening nosocomial infections, particularly during the first 24 hours of treatment ; (2) their limited tendency to develop resistance during therapy; (3) the synergistic effect when combined with antipseudomonal penicillins and antipseudomonal cephalosporins invitro and invivo; (4) the protective effect toward resistance development in the beta-lactams whenever they are given simultaneously in vivo; (5) their lack of inoculum effect; (6) their prolonged and concentration-dependent post antibiotic effect (>2 hours) ; (7) their antimicrobial activity at levels below their MICs; (8) the possibility to be given once daily despite a half-life that demands twice-daily or three daily administration (Giamarellou and Antoniadou, 2001).

Regarding to ceftriaxone, it is used in high volume worldwide and is not associated with significant resistance problems (Cunha, 2000), as well as the antibacterial spectrum of activity for it is similar to that of ceftizoxime and cefotaxime, but ceftriaxone has the longest half-life of all the third-generation cephalosporins (about 9 hours), which allows for once-daily dosage (Ellsworth, *et al.*, 2003). For all these aspects ,gentamicin and ceftriaxone were used as combination against *P.aeruginosa* isolates in the present study.

The invitro susceptibility of (6) six selected isolates of *P.aeruginosa* to gentamicin in combination plus ceftriaxone was determined by means of a checker board technique which recommended by (Garrod, 1978) as shown in table (2-6). The results of the present study showed that the combination of gentamicin and ceftriaxone resulted in synergistic activity against 5(83.3%) of the six tested isolates. The growth of these isolates was inhibited by combining gentamicin and ceftriaxone in concentrations of one-fourth of the amount of each antibiotic required to inhibit the growth of these isolates when tested alone (table, 2-14), while partial synergy (i.e. additive effect) was observed between gentamicin and ceftriaxone against one isolate (No. O00), inhibition of growth was observed when one-fourth the effective concentration of ceftriaxone was combined with one-half the effective concentration of gentamicin.

Cunha (2000) stated that the presence of all cell wall-active agents and in many species such as *P.aeruginosa* with aminoglycosides such as streptomycin ,gentamicin and amikacin resulting in bactericidal synergism. Owlia and his colleagues (2001) showed that with the exception of beta-lactams, alginate did in fact impede the penetration of antibiotics such as aminoglycosides, therefore the use of beta-lactams antibiotics in combination with aminoglycosides enhancement the activity of these antibiotics.

It has been suggested that patients with severe MDRPA infections should be treated with combination therapy, consisting of an antipseudomonal beta-lactam with an aminoglycoside or fluoroquinolone rather than aminoglycosides and fluoroquinolone combinations, to provide adequate therapy and improve patient outcomes (Obritsch,etal., 2005). As the prevalence of MDRPA increases and treatment options become limited

, various antimicrobial combinations have been proposed as an alternative in clinical practice despite resistance to one or both agents in the combination.

Table (3-14) The MIC Effect of Gentamicin and Ceftriaxone Singly and in Combination

Synergy test	Isolate	CN $\mu\text{g/ml}$	CN + CRO $\mu\text{g/ml}$	CRO $\mu\text{g/ml}$
Synergy	U20	1	0.25-0.5	2
	U24	2	0.5-1	4
	B12	2	0.5-1	4
	B30	2	0.5-1	4
	O20	2	0.5-1	4
Partial synergy	O00	4	2-1	4

⁹- Synergistic Effect of EDTA with Some Antibiotics

on *P.aeruginosa* isolates :

Egorov ,(1980) stated that using antibiotics in combination with other preparations may help in prevention of development of antibiotics-resistant microorganisms such as some biologically active compounds referred to the ethylene diamine tetra acetate. He supposed that such compound may decrease the resistance of bacteria to be antibiotics, perhaps by prevention of drug resistance factor (DRF) to transferred through bacteria by conjugation and/or transformation. The results of the present study showed that *P.aeruginosa* isolates were able to produce the metallo-beta-lactamases (MBLs) and this phenomenon has been clearly and extensively demonstrated (Nicas and Hancock, 1980; Lee, *et al.*, 2002 Walsh, *et al.*, 2002 ;Butt, *et al.*, 2003 ;Akpolat,*et al.*, 2003; Hemaltha ,*et al.*, 2000).

The results of the present study showed that positive result for MBLs included a total in of 9(30%) isolates from the all (30) thirty isolates when followed by the agar dilution method. These were 4(23.3%) isolates of burns and 5(16.7%) isolates of UTIs. The growth of these isolates was inhibited by ampicillin in concentration 32 µg/ml with presence of EDTA while these isolates had not been inhibited by ampicillin when used the (4) four concentrations (16, 32, 64, 128) µg/ml in absence the EDTA. When cefixime was used instead of ampicillin with the concentrations (16, 32, 64, 128) µg/ml showed positive result for MBLs included a total in of 12(40%) isolates from the all (30) isolates. These were 10(33.3%) of burns isolates and 2(6.7%) of UTI isolates. The growth of these isolates were inhibited by cefixime in concentration 16 µg/ml with the presence of EDTA but were not inhibited if EDTA remove.

From these MBLs positive isolates, burn isolate (No. 12) was selected to experiment using the same antibiotics (ampicillin and cefixime) with the same concentrations by well-agar diffusion method. This isolate exhibited a significant zone size enhancement with a mixture of EDTA plus ampicillin in concentration 16 µg/ml and with a mixture of EDTA plus cefixime in concentration 4 µg/ml, results outlined in table (3-10), figures (3-4), (3-5). MBLs enzymes belong to group of beta-lactamases divalent cations of zinc as co-factor for enzyme activity. They have potent activity not only against carbapenems group but also against other beta-lactamases (Nicas and Hancock, 1980; Poirel, *et al.*, 2001). MBLs are not inhibited by the commercially available inhibitors such as sulbactam and tazobactam (Walsh, *et al.*, 2002), but the production of MBL was detected by EDTA, because EDTA can interact with *P.aeruginosa* LPS, since the EDTA can remove ions from it's LPS sites, whereas the antibiotic molecules being

cationic ,would compete with these ions for these sites (Nicas and Hancock, 1980).

There are reports on MBLs production in *P.aeruginosa* from various countries like Brazil ,Korea ,Singapore and France. MBL was first reported as a zinc dependent enzyme in *Bacillus cereus* in mid 1960s (Hemaltha, *et al.*, 2005) and since has been described in different gram-negative bacteria. All these enzymes were produced by chromosomal genes. However ,in 1991, the first plasmid-mediated MBLs from *P.aeruginosa* have been reported from Japan, while another type of acquired beta-lactamase was first reported from Italy in 1999 (Butt, *et al.*, 2003).

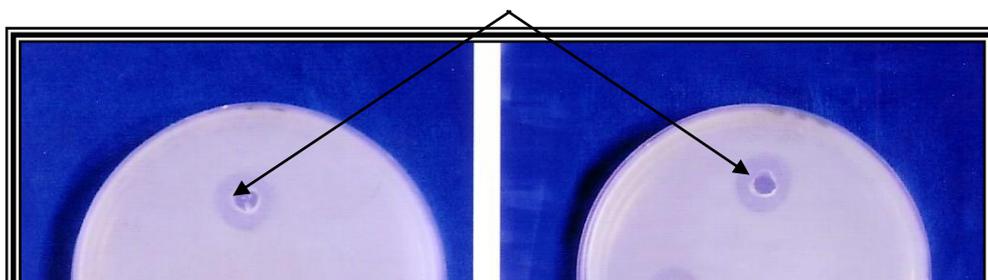
Table (3-15) Susceptibility of Burn Isolate No. 12 to Ampicillin and Cefixime with and without EDTA

Antimicrobial agent	Concentration µg/ml	Diameter of the inhibition zone(mm)	
		Without EDTA	With EDTA
Am	8	0	13
	16	0	14
	32	6	20
	64	7	23
CFM	2	0	16

	٤	٠	١٩
	٨	٨	٢٦
	١٦	٨	٢٧

MBL production is a significant problem in hospital isolates of *P.aeruginosa*. The mobility of beta-lactamase genes associated with integrons and being disseminated throughout bacterial populations is of great concern to microbiologists and physicians alike (Walsh, *et al.*, ٢٠٠٢). So the rapid detection of MBL-positive gram-negative bacilli is necessary to aid infection control and prevent their dissemination.

٠.١ ml mixture



antibiotic

an

0.1 ml

0.1 ml

EDTA



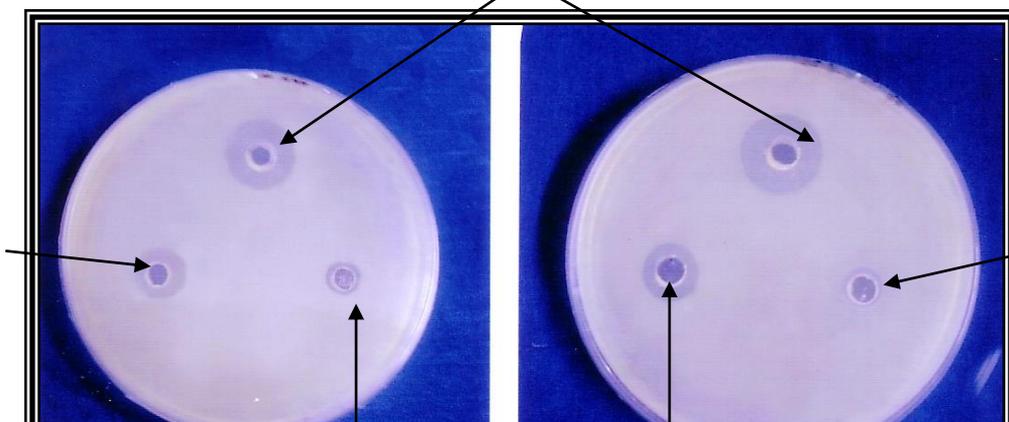
0.1 ml antibiotic

0.1 ml EDTA

16 µg/ml

1 µg/ml

0.1 ml mixture



0.1 ml

0.1 ml

EDTA
antibiotic

0.1 ml antibiotic

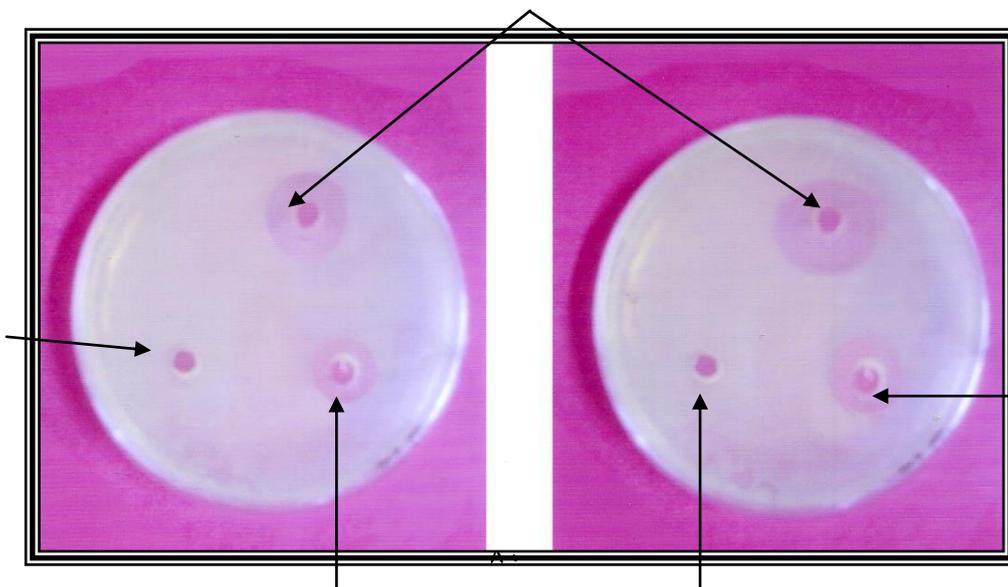
0.1 ml EDTA

32 µg/ml

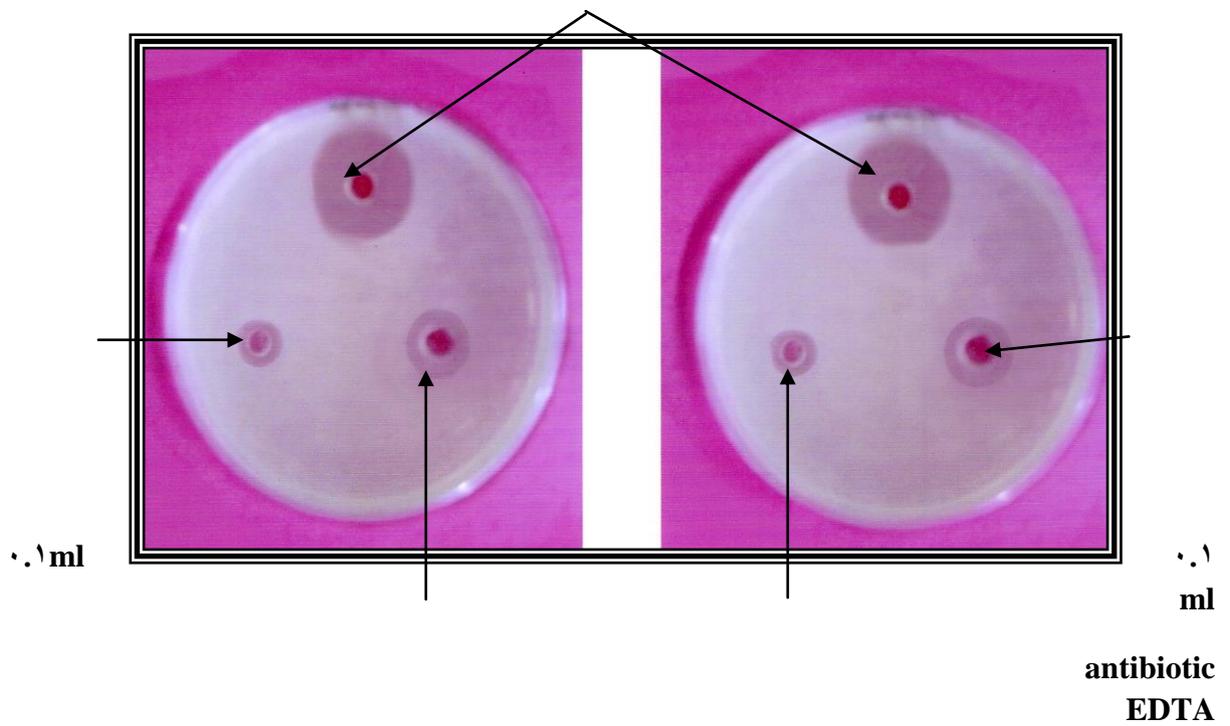
64 µg/ml

Figure (3-4) synergistic effect of EDTA plus ampicillin with different concentrations on *P.aeruginosa* .

0.1 ml mixture



0.1 ml
antibiotic
EDTA
0.1 ml EDTA 0.1 ml antibiotic
2 µg/ml 4 µg/ml
0.1 ml mixture



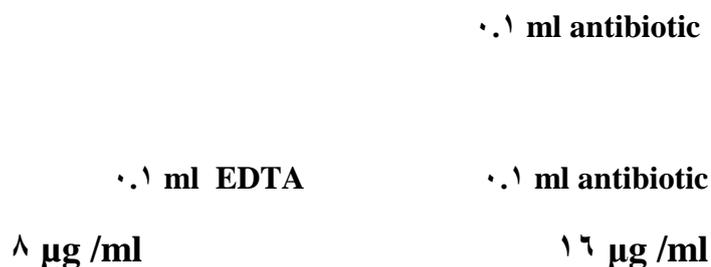


Figure (3-5) synergistic effect of EDTA plus cefixime with different concentrations on *P.aeruginosa* .

3-5 - Synergistic Effect of B-complex with Some antibiotics
on *P.aeruginosa* isolates :

The effect of vitamins with some antibiotics was also tested in this study. The experiment was carried out on five isolates of *P.aeruginosa* which resistance or intermediate resistance to some antibiotics used in this study as follow: (amikacin, cefotaxime, gentamicin ,ciprofloxacin and ceftriaxone) by using macro-broth dilution (MIC) method. The results of this experiment showed that reduced MIC values from resistance or intermediate resistance to sensitive values, outlined in table (3-16). The first burn isolate No.12 has intermediate resistance for amikacin and ceftriaxone with MIC 32µg/ml, in presence of B-complex converted to sensitive with MIC 8µg/ml for both antibiotics .Secondly, otitis media isolate No.33 has resistance for gentamicin with MIC 16µg/ml converted to sensitive with MIC 4µg/ml and resistance to cefotaxime with MIC 64µg/ml convert to 4µg/ml in presence the B-complex .Regarding, UTI isolate No.24 has resistance to gentamicin with MIC 16 µg/ml and to ciprofloxacin with MIC 4µg/ml convert to sensitive with 4µg /ml and 0.12µg/ml for

gentamicin and ciprofloxacin respectively. UTI isolate No. 20 has resistance to ciprofloxacin with MIC 2 µg/ml and ceftriaxone with MIC 32 µg/ml convert to sensitive to ciprofloxacin with MIC 0.2 µg/ml and ceftriaxone with MIC 8 µg/ml. Finally, otitis isolate No. 00 has resistance for ceftriaxone with MIC 64 µg/ml and intermediate resistance for cefotaxime with MIC 16 µg/ml. This isolate did not affect when these antibiotics mixed with B-complex.

Table (3-16) Susceptibility of *P.aeruginosa* Isolates to B-complex
With Some Antibiotics

Type & number of the isolate	Antimicrobial agent	MICs values µg/ml without B-complex	MICs values µg/ml with B-complex
B12	AK	32(I)*	8(S)**
	CRO	32(I)	8(S)
O33	CN	16(R)***	4(S)
	CTX	64(R)	4(S)
U24	CN	16(R)	4(S)
	CIP	2(R)	0.12(S)
U20	CIP	2(R)	0.20(S)
	CRO	32(R)	8(S)
O00	CRO	64(R)	64(R)
	CTX	16(I)	16(I)

*I : Intermediate

**R : Resistance

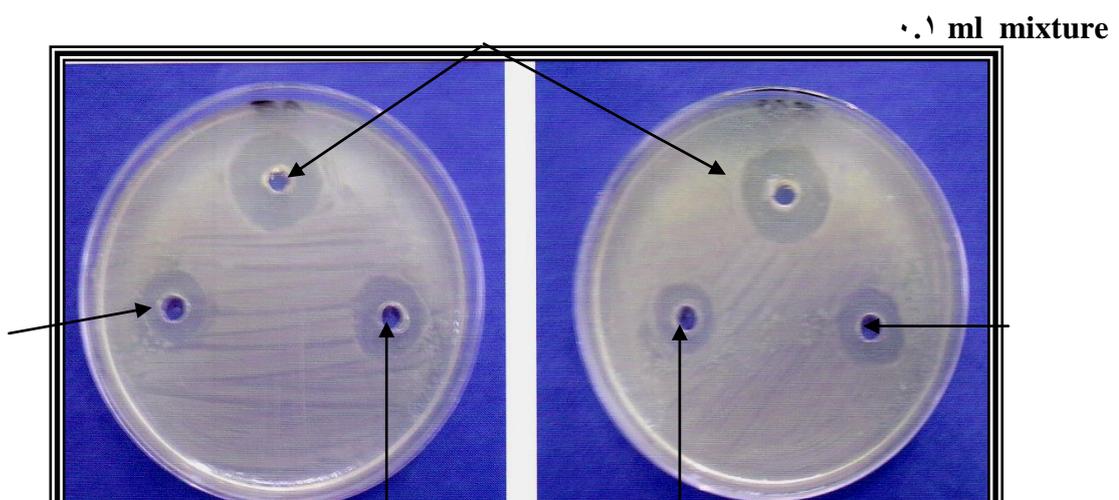
***S : Sensitive

From these positive isolates selected UTI isolate No. 20 to experiment the effect of B-complex with ciprofloxacin and ceftriaxone by well-agar diffusion method. As shown in table (3-17), figures (3-6), (3-7) results exhibited a significant zone size enhancement with a mixture of B-complex plus ciprofloxacin in concentration 0.12 µg/ml and B-complex plus ceftriaxone in concentration 1 µg/ml. The mechanism of this action seems to depend on the outer membrane which contains a set of less abundant proteins which are involved in the transport of specific molecules vitamins and iron siderophore complexes (Brooks, *et al.*, 2001). These proteins show high affinity for substrates and probably function like the classic carrier transport systems of the inner cytoplasmic membrane. This experiment carried out according to study of (Ichimiya, *et al.*, 1994) who investigated the activity of some vitamins with penicillin G, gentamicin, quinolone, cephalosporin and imipenem. They observed a remarkable enhancement in the antibiotics activity except penicillin G.

Generally the results obtained in detection the effect of EDTA were more effect on *P.aeruginosa* isolates from the results obtained in detection the effect of B-complex.

Table(3-17) Susceptibility of *P.aeruginosa* UTI Isolate No.20 to Ciprofloxacin and Ceftriaxone with and without B-Complex

Antimicrobial agent	Concentration $\mu\text{g/ml}$	Diameter of the inhibition zone(mm)	
		Without B-complex	With B-complex
CIP	0.12	12	22
	0.25	12.5	23
	0.5	13	25
	1	14	27
CRO	8	10	21
	16	11	21
	32	14	23
	64	16	25



0.1 ml

0.1 ml

B-complex
antibiotic

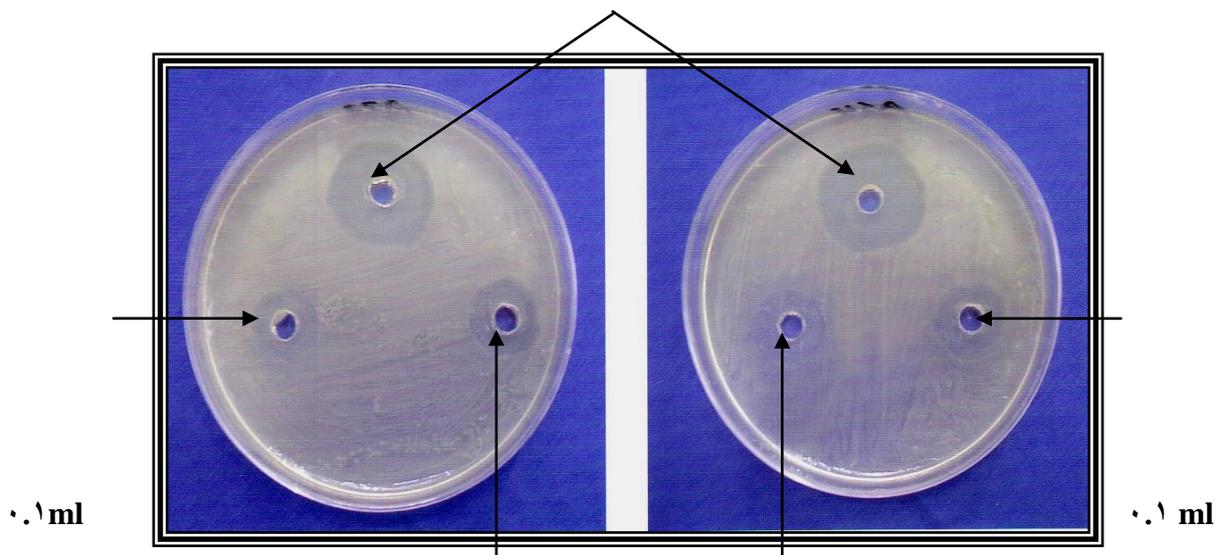
0.1 ml antibiotic

0.1 ml B-complex

0.12 µg/ml

0.25 µg/ml

0.1 ml mixture

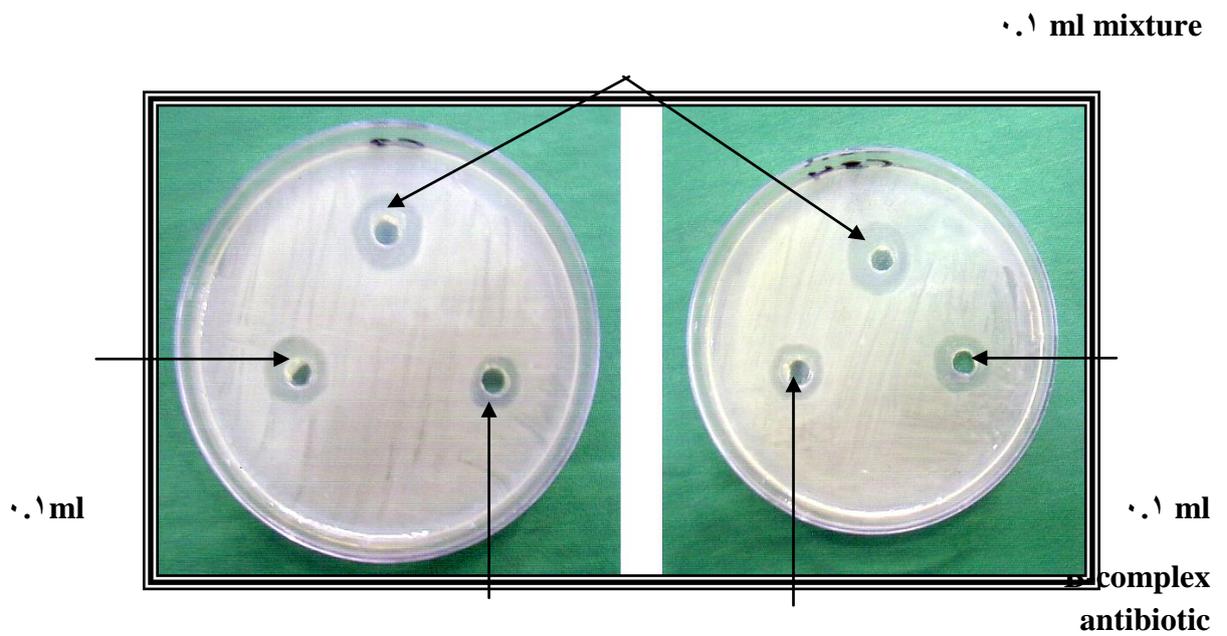


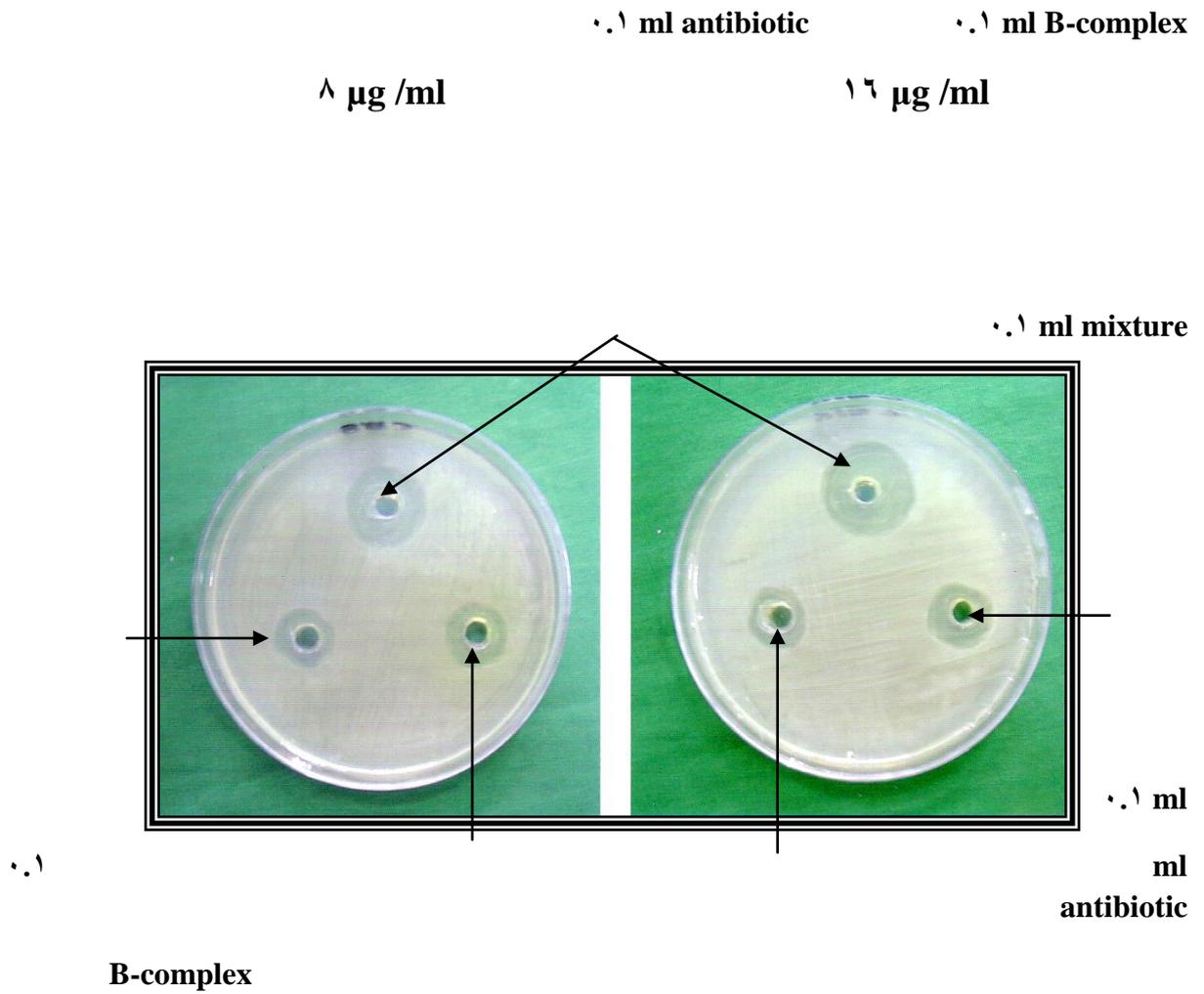
B-complex
antibiotic

0.1 ml antibiotic
0.5 µg/ml

0.1 ml B-complex
1 µg/ml

Figure (3-6) synergistic effect of B-complex plus ciprofloxacin with different concentrations on *P.aeruginosa* .





0.1 ml antibiotic

0.1 ml B-complex

32 µg/ml

64 µg/ml

Figure (۳-۷) synergistic effect of B-complex plus ceftriaxone with different concentration on *P.aeruginosa* .

References

- ◆Abrams, A.C. (۲۰۰۰) . *Clinical Drug Therapy, Rationales for Nursing Practice*. ۵th ed. Lippincott. USA. p. ۴۵۴ – ۴۷۱ .

- ◆Aboud,Z.M.(۲۰۰۱).**The effect of antibiotic combination on *Staph.aureus* and *P.aeruginosa* .M. Sc. Thesis in Microbiology.College of Science.Kufa Univ.(In Arabic).**

- ◆Akpolat,N.; Ozekinci,T; Aktar,G.; Karashin,O. and Suay,A. (۲۰۰۳). **Effect of EDTA on the Susceptibility of *P.aeruginosa* to Imipenem ,Ceftazidime and Cefepime in Muller-Hinton agar. *Turk.J.Med.Sci.* ۳۳ ; ۴۱۳ – ۴۱۴ .**

- ◆Alkawash, M.; Head,M; Alshami,I and Soothill,J.S. (۱۹۹۹) .**The Effect of Human Lactoferrin on the MICs of Doxycycline and Rifampicin for *Burkholderia cepacia* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* Strains . *J. of Antimicrob. Chemother.* ۴۴ , ۳۸۵ – ۳۸۷ .**

- ◆Angus,B.L.; Garey,A.M. and Caron,D.A. (۱۹۸۲) .**Outer membrane permeability in *P. aeruginosa* , Comparison of wild-type with an Antibiotic Super Susceptible Mutant . *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.* ۲۱: ۲۹۹ – ۳۰۹ .**

- ◆Anonymous . (۱۹۹۷) . **National Nosocomial Surveillance (NNIS)report , data summary from October ۱۹۸۶–April ۱۹۹۷, issued May ۱۹۹۷ .A report from NNIS system .*Am. J. Infect. Control* ,۲۵ : ۴۷۷ – ۴۸۷ .**

-
- ◆Anonymous . (٢٠٠٢). **The Cost of Antibiotic Resistance Effect of Resistance among *Staph. aureus*, *Kelebsiella pneumoniae* , *Acinetobacter baumannii* , and *P. aeruginosa* on length of hospital stay . *Infect. Control – Hosp – Epidemiol.* ٢٣ (٢): ١٠٦ – ٨ .**
- ◆Aulton,M. E. (١٩٨٨) . *Pharmacentics, The Science of Dosage from Design.* ١st ed .Churchill Livingstone ,London. P. ٤٩٤ – ٤٩٦.
- ◆Ayoub,N. (١٩٨١) .**Epidemiological Markers of *P.aeruginosa* in General Hospitals (in Baghdad).** *Thesis for M.Sc. University of Baghdad .*
- ◆Baer,C.L. and Williams,B.R. (١٩٩٦) . *Clinical Pharmacology and Nursing .* ٣rd ed .by Springhouse Corporation, USA, p. ١٠٠٢ – ١٠٣٠.
- ◆Baron,Et. and Finegold,S. (١٩٩٠) .*Diagnostic Microbiology* ,^٨th ed. Bailey &Scott's the C.V. Mosby, Co., USA.
- ◆Baron,Et.; Peterson,L.R. and Finegold,S.M. (١٩٩٤). **Bailey and Scoffs Diagnostic Microbiology .** ٩th ed., the C. V. Mosby, Co.,USA. p. ٣٨٦ – ٤٠٣ .
- ◆Bauer,A.W.; Kirby,W.M.M.; Sherries,J.C. and Turk,M. (١٩٦٦). **Antibiotic Susceptibility Testing by a Standardized Single Disc Method.** *Am.J. Clin. Pathol.*, ٤٥ : ٤٩٣ – ٤٩٦ .
- ◆Bernardini,J.; Piraino,B. and Sorkin,M. (١٩٨٧). **Analysis of continous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis–related *P.aeruginosa* infections.** *Am.J. Med.* ٨٣:٨٢٩-٨٣٢.

◆Bertrand,Xi.; Bailly,P.; Blasco,G.; Balvay,P.; Boillot,A. and Talon,D. (۲۰۰۰). **Large Outbreak in a Surgical Intensive Care Unit of Colonization or Infection with *P. aeruginosa* that Over Expressed an Active Efflux Pump .** *Clin. Infect. Dis.* ۳۱(۴) :E۹-E۱۴.

◆Bhavnani,S.M. (۱۹۹۸). **Antimicrobial Usage and Resistance Problems: Surveillance issues and a strategy for the future** *Antimicrob. Infect. Dis.* ۱۷: ۴۱ .

◆Blahova,R. ; Jikralikova,K.; Kremery,V. and Schafer,V.(۲۰۰۰). **Host Range Variability in the Transfer of Antibiotic Resistance Determinants from *P. aeruginosa* strains.** *J- chemother.* ۱۲ (۳):۱۹۹-۲۰۳ .

◆Boffi,E.; Amari,E.; Chamot,R. ;Auckenthaler,J.; Pechere and Vandelden,C. (۲۰۰۱). **Influence of Previous Exposure to Antibiotic Therapy on the Susceptibility Pattern of *P. aeruginosa* Bacteremic Isolates .** *Clin. Infect. Dis.* ۳۳ : ۱۸۵۹- ۱۸۶۴.

◆Bonaventura,G.D.; Ricci,E.; Loggia,N.D.; Catamo,G. and Piccolomini,R. (۱۹۹۸). **Evaluation of the E test for Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing of *P.aeruginosa* Isolates from Patients with Long-Term Bladder Catheterization.** *J. of Clinical Microbiology.* ۳۶ (۳) :۸۲۴-۸۲۶ .

◆Bonfiglio,G.; Carciotto,V.; Russo,G.; Stefani,S.; Schito,G.; Stefani,S. ;Schito,G.C. ; Debbia,E. and Nicoletti,G. (۱۹۹۸) .**Antibiotic Resistance in *P. aeruginosa* : an Italian Survey .** *J. Antimicrob. Chemother.* ۴۱ (۲) : ۳۰۷ – ۱۰ .

- ◆Bottone,E.J. and Perez,A.A. (1993). ***P.aeruginosa* Folliculitis Acquired Through Use of a Contaminated Loofash Sponge : an unrecognized potential public health problem . *J. Clin. Microbial*, 31: 480 – 483 .**
- ◆Boubaker,B.B. ;Boukadida,J.; Triki,O. ; Hannachi,N. and Ben-Redjeb,S. (2003) .**Outbreak of Nosocomial Urinary Tract Infections due to a Multidrug Resistant *P. aeruginosa* . *Pathol-Biol-(Paris)*. 51 (3) : 147 – 50 .**
- ◆Bouza,E. ; Garcia- Garrote,F. and Cercendado,E. (1999). **A Survey of Resistance in 136 hospitals in Spain . *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother*. 43 : 981 .**
- ◆Brooks,G.F. ;Butel,J.S. and Morse,S.A. (2001). *Jawetz, Melnik and Adelberg's. Medical Microbiology*. 22nd ed . p. 229–231. **Medical East ed ; Appleton Large.**
- ◆Brooum,A. ; Liu,S. and Lewis,K. (2000) .**A Dose–Response Study of Antibiotic Resistance in *P. aeruginosa* Biofilms. *Antimicrob. -Agents-Chemother*. 44 (3) : 640 – 6 .**
- ◆Burns,J.L.; Saiman,L.; Whittier,S.; Larone,D.; Krzewinski,J.; Liu,Z..; Marshall,S.A. and Jones,R.N. (2000). **Comparison of Agar Diffusion Methodologies for Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing of *P.aeruginosa* Isolates. *J. of Clinical Microbiology* . 38 (5) : 1818 – 1822 .**
- ◆Buscher, K.H.; Cullmann,W. and Dick,W. (1986) .**Imipenem Resistance in *P.aeruginosa* Resulting from Diminished Expression of an Outer Membrane Protein . *Antimicrobial Agents chemother* .31 : 703 – 708 .**

- ◆Butt,T. ; Msman,M. ; Ahmad,R.N. and Imran,M. (۲۰۰۳). **Emergence of Metallo-beta-lactamase Producing *P.aeruginosa*** .*J.Pakistan-Medical Association* .۵۵.
- ◆Chamberlain,N.R. and Brueggmann,S.A. (۱۹۹۷). **Characterization and Expression of Fatty Acids Modifying Enzymes Produce by *Staph. epidermidis*** .*J. Med. Microb.* ۴۶: ۶۹۳-۶۹۷.
- ◆Chenweth,C. and Lynch,J.P. (۱۹۹۷) . **Antimicrobial Resistance : Implications for Managing Respiratory Failure** . *Curr- Opin – Pulm- Med.* . ۳ (۲) : ۱۵۹ – ۶۹ .
- ◆Cohn, I. and Bronside,H. (۱۹۸۴) . ***Infectious* .In principles of surgery, ۴th ed.** Ed. S.I. Schwartz, G.T. Shires, F.G . Spencer and E.H. Storer . New York : Gram–Hill Book company.p.۱۶۵-۱۹۸.
- ◆Collee, J.G .; Fraser,A.G. ; Marmion,B.P. and Simmons,A. (۱۹۹۶). **Mackie and Mecartney . Practical Medical Microbiology.** ۱۴th ed .,Churchill Living stone, USA. p.۴۱۳ – ۴۲۴ .
- ◆Costerton,J.W.; Stewart,P.S. and Greenberg,E.P. (۱۹۹۹) .**Bacterial Biofilms : a Common Cause of Persistent Infections** . *Science*,۲۸۴ : ۱۳۱۸-۱۳۲۲.
- ◆Cruickshank,R. ; Duguid,J.P.; Mornion,B.P. and SwainR.H.A. (۱۹۷۴) . *Medical Microbiology* . ۲۰th ed. ,Vol. ۱, Churchill Livingstone . London .
- ◆Cunha,B.A. and Gill,M.V .(۱۹۹۵).**Cefepime** .*Medical Clinics of North America* ,۷۹ (۴) , ۷۲۱ – ۷۳۲ .

-
- ◆Cunha,B.A. (٢٠٠٠). **Antibiotic Resistance.** *Medical clinics of North America. Antibiotic Therapy , Part ١.* ٨٤ (٦) :١٤٠٧ – ١٤٢١.
- ◆De-Freitas, A.L. and Barth,A.L. (٢٠٠٢) . **Antibiotic Resistance and Molecular Typing of *P. aeruginosa* : Focus on imipenem .***Braz-J-Infect-Dis.* ٦ (١):١-٧ .
- ◆Egorov,N.S. (١٩٨٥). *Antibiotics A Scientific Approach.* ١st ed. **Churchill Livingstone. London. p.٣٩٠-٣٩٢.**
- ◆Ellsworth,A.J. ; Witt,D.M.; Dugdale,D.C. and OliverL.M. (٢٠٠٣). *Mosby's ٢٠٠٢-٢٠٠٣ Medical Drug Reference.*p.١٧٧-١٧٩.٢٠٠٣ by Mosby ,Inc.USA
- ◆Eltahawy, A.T. and Khalaf,R.M. (٢٠٠١) . **Antibiotic Resistance Among Gram–Negative Non-Fermentative Bacteria at a Teaching Hospital in Saudi Arabia .** *J. Chemother.* ١٣ (٣) :٢٦٠ – ٤ .
- ◆Erst, E.J. ; Hashimotos,S. and Guglielmo,J. (١٩٩٩) . **Effects of Antibiotic Therapy on *P.aeruginosa* Induced Lung Injury in a Rat Model.** *Antimicrob. Agents chemother.* ٤٣ : ٢٣٨٩.
- ◆Fakhridden,A.J. (٢٠٠١) .**A Bacteriological Study of the Pathogens Causing Nosocomial Infection.** *M .Sc. Thesis in Microbiology .College of Science , Kufa Univ.*

-
- ◆Friedrich,L.V. ; White,R.L. and Bosso,J.S. (1999) . **Impact of Use of Multiple Antimicrobials on Changes in Susceptibility of Gram-Negative Aerobes.** *Clin. Infect. Dis.* 28 : 1017.
- ◆Galloway,A.; Wright,J.; Murphy,O. and Dickinson,G. (1999) .**Sensitivity Testing of *P.aeruginosa* to Ciprofloxacin Comparison of the Modified stoke's Method with MIC Results Obtained by the E-Test.** *J. of Antimicro. Chemother.* 43, 314 –315 .
- ◆Garrod,L.P.; Reeves,D.S.; Phillips,I.; Williams,J.D. and Wise,R. (1978) . *Laboratory Methods in Antimicrobial Chemotherapy.* Churchill Livingstone, New York .p31-49.
- ◆Giamarellou, H. and Antoniadou,A. (2001) . **Antipseudomonal Antibiotics .** *Medical Clinics of North America* 85 (1).
- ◆Gilligan, P.H. (1995). *Pseudomonas and Burkholderia* ,In: Murray. P.R. ; Baron, E.J.; Faller M.A.; Tenover, F.C. and Tenover,R.H. (eds). *Manual of Clinical Microbiology* American Society for Microbiology, Washington DC 509 – 519 .
- ◆Godrey,A.J.; Byran,L.E. and Rabin,H.R. (1981). **Beta-lactam Resistant *P.aeruginosa* with Modified Penicillin-Binding Proteins Emerging During Cystic Fibrosis Treatment .** *Antimicrobial . Agents Chemother.* 19 : 705 – 711.
- ◆Gorbach, S.L.; Bartlett,J.G. and Blacklow,N.R. (1998) . *Infectious Diseases .* 2nd ed . Part VII . W.B. Saunders Company ,A Division of Harcourt Brace Company. p. 1824.

- ◆Gotoh, N. (2001) . **Antibiotic Resistance Caused by Membrane Impermeability and Multi-Drug Efflux Systems** . *Nippon – Rinsho* , 59 (4) : 712 – 8 .
- ◆Graig,W.A. and Ebert,S.C. (1994) .**Antimicrobial Therapy in *P.aeruginosa* Infections** in Batch, A.L.; Smith, R.P. (eds) *P.aeruginosa infections and Treatment* . New York, Marcel Decker , p . 441 – 518 .
- ◆Grayson, M.L. and Eliopoulous,G.M. (1990) . **Antimicrobial Resistance in the Intensive Care Unit** . *Sem. Resp. Infect.* 5 : 204 – 214 .
- ◆Greenwood,D.S.; Richar,C.B and Pentherer,F.J. (2002) .*Medical Microbiology*. 16th ed. Churchill Livingstone ,London.p.282-287 .
- ◆Hancock, R.E .; Mutharia,L.M. and Chanl,C. (1983) . ***P.aeruginosa* Isolates from Patients with Cystic Fibrosis : a class of serum sensitive, non typable strains deficient in LPS O side chain** . *Infect. Immun.* 42 : 170 .
- ◆Hatchette,T.F.; Gupta,R. and Marrie,T.J.(2000) .***P.aeruginosa* Community–Acquired Pneumonia in Previously Healthy Adults : case report and review literature**. *Clin. Infect. Dis.* 31 : 1349 – 1356 .
- ◆Hauser,L.R. and Sriram,P. (2000) . **Severe *P.aeruginosa* Infections**. *Postgraduate Medicine* ,117 (1) : 41 – 8 .
- ◆Hemaltha,V.; Sekar,U. and Kamat,V. (2000) . **Detection of Metallo-Beta lactamase Producing *P.aeruginosa* in Hospitalized Patients** . *Indian J. Med. Res.* 122 : 148 – 152 .

- ◆Henwood,C.J.; Livermore,D.M.; James,D. and Warner,M. (2001). **Antimicrobial Chemotherapy Disc Susceptibility Test.** *J-Antimicrob-chemother.* 47 (6):789-99.
- ◆Herfindal, E.T. and Gourley,D.R. (2000). *Textbook of Therapeutics ,Drug and Disease Management* 9th ed . **Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, A Wolters Kluwer Co., USA.p.1049-1054.**
- ◆Holland,S.P.; Pulido,J.S.; Shires,T.K and Costerton. (1993) .*P.aeruginosa Ocular Infections .In R.B. Fick, Jr (ed.),Pseudomonas aeruginosa : the opportunist , CRC press ,Inc. Boca Raton , Fla. P.109-116.*
- ◆Holt,J.G.; Kreig,N.R; Sneath,P.H.A; Staley,J.T and Williams,S.T. (1994). *Bergey's Manual of systemic Bacteriology.* 9th ed. **The Williams & Wilkns Co., Baltimore ,Md.p.98.**
- ◆Hooper ,D.C. and Walfson,J.C .(1993) . *Mechanisms of Bacterial Resistance to Quinolones , in Hooper DC ,Walfson JS (eds): Quinolones Antimicrobial Agents , ed 2 , Washington , DC, American Society for Microbiology .*
- ◆Hsueh, P.R.; Chen,M.L.; Sun,C.C. ; Chen,W.L.; Pan,H.J.; Yang,L.S., ;Chang,S.C.; Ho,S.W.; Lee,C.Y.; Hsieh,W.C. and Luh,K.T. (2002). **Antimicrobial Drug Resistance in Pathogens Causing Nosocomial Infections at a University Hospital in Taiwan 1981-1999 .** *Emerging infections diseases .* 8 (1).

◆Hugh,R. and Gilardi,G.L. (1974). *Pseudomonas* .In *manual of Clinical Microbiology* .2nded. Ed. E.H.Lenntte,E.H. Spaulding and J.P.Truant. Washington D.G.:American Society for Microbiology .p.200-269.

◆Hugo, W.B. and Russell, A.D. (1998),*Pharmaceutical Microbiology*. 6th ed. Blackwell Science Ltd. USA.p.166.

◆Ichimiya,T.; Yamasaki,T. and Nasu,M .(1994) .**In-Vitro Effects of Antimicrobial Agents on *P.aeruginosa* Biofilm Formation** .*J. of Antimicrob. Chemother.* 34 :331-341.

◆Igumbor,E.Gwanzura,L.;Chirara,M.;Obi,C.and Muza,D .(2000).**Antibiotic Sensitivity and Plasmid Profiles of *P. aeruginosa*** .*Cent-Afr-J-Med.* 46 (11) :296-300 .

◆Jibran,S.A. (1986). **Isolation and Identification of Bacteria from Traumatic Wounds and Their Sensitivity Patterns to Antibiotics** .*Thesis for M.Sc., Univ. , of Al Mustansiriya.*

◆Kaye,K.S. ; Fraimow,H.S. and Abrutgn,E. (2000) . **Antibacterial Therapy** . *Infections Disease clinics of North America* .14 (2) .

◆Kohler,T. ; Kok,M; Michen-Hamzhepour,M.; Plesiat,P. ; Gotoh,N.; Nishino,T.; Curty,L.K. and Pechere,J.C. (1996) .**Multidrug Efflux in Intrinsic Resistance to Trimethoprim and Sulfamethoxazole in *P.aeruginosa*** .*Antimicrob. Agents and chemother.* 40 (10): 2288- 2290 .

◆Kolmos,H.J.;Thuesen,B. ; Nielsen,S.V.; Lohmann,M.; Kristoffersen,K. and Rosdahi,V.T. (1993). **Outbreak of Infection in Burns Unit due to**

***P.aeruginosa* Originating from Contaminated Tubing Used for Irrigation of Patients** *J. of Hospital Infection*. 24 : 11-21.

◆Lambert,P.A. (2002) **Mechanisms of Antibiotic Resistance in *P.aeruginosa***. *J. of the Royal Society of Medicine* .91 (95) : 22-26 .

◆Lee,K.; Lim,L.B.; Yum,J.H.; Yong,D.; Chong,Y.; Kim,J.M. and Livermore,D.M. (2002) **Cassette-Containing Novel Integrons in Metallo-B-Lactamase-Producing *P.aeruginosa* and *P.putida* Isolates Disseminated in a Korea Hospital**. *Antimicrob. Agents and Chemother.* 46 (4) : 1053-1058.

◆Lepper,P.M.; Grusa,E.; Reichl,H.; Hogel,J. and Trautmann,M. (2002) **Consumption of Imipenem Correlates with B-lactam Resistance in *P.aeruginosa***. *Antimicrob. Agents and chemother.* 46 (4) : 2920-2925.

◆Lindberg, R.B. (1994) **Culture and identification of Commonly Encountered Gram –Negative Bacilli : *Pseudomonas* , *Klebsiella* , *Enterobacter* ,*Serratia* , *Proteus* and *Providencia* . In opportunistic pathogens, Ed.J.E.Prier and H.Friedman .Baltimore: University Park Press .p.19-30.**

◆Liu, P.V. (1994). **Extra Cellular Toxins of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* .** *J.Infect.Dis.* ,170 : S90 .

◆Livermore,D.M. (1992). **Interplay of Impermeability and Chromosomal B-lactamase Activity in Imipenem–Resistant *P.aeruginosa*** *Antimicrob Agents and chemother.*36 : 2046 – 2048 .

◆Livermore,D.M. (२००२) . **Multiple Mechanisms of Antimicrobial Resistance in *P.aeruginosa* :Our Worst nightmare ?** *Clin-Infect-Dis.*३४ (०) : ६३४ – ४० .

◆Livermore,D.M. and Chen,H.Y. (१९९९). **Quality of Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing in the U.K.: a *P.aeruginosa* survey revisited** .*J. of Antimicrob. Chemother.* ४३ : ०११ – ०२२ .

◆Macfaddin,J.F. (१९१९). *Biochemical Tests for Identification of Medical Bacteria* . **The Williams & Wilkins Co., USA** .

◆Macfaddin,J.F. (२०००) .*Biochemical tests for Identification of Medical Bacteria* ३rd ed .p. ६८९ – ६९१ .**The Williams & Wilkins Co.,USA.**

◆Maniatis, A.N.; Karkavitsus,C. ; Maniatis,N.A.; Tsiftsakis,E.; Genimata,V and Legakis,N.J. (१९९०). ***Pseudomonas aeruginosa* Folliculitis due to non-O : ११ Serogroups Acquisition Through Use of Contaminated Synthetic Sponges.** *Clin.Infect.Dis.* २१ : ४३१ – ४३९ .

◆Mayhall,C.G. (१९९१).**Nosocomial Pneumonia Diagnosis and Prevention** *Infect. Dis..Clin.North. Am.*११ : ४२४ – ४०१ .

◆Mehta, M.; Punia,J.N. and Joshi,R.M. (२००१). **Antibiotic Resistance in *P.aeruginosa* Strains Isolated from Various Clinical Specimens** .*Indian J.Microbiol.* १९ : २३२ – २ .

◆Miller,G.H.; Sabatelle,F.J. and Hare,R.S. (१९९१).**The Most Frequent Aminoglycosides Resistance Mechanisms—Changes with Time and Geographic Area: a reflection of aminoglycosides usage Patterns** . *Clin.Infect.Dis.* २४ (II): S६१-S१२ .

-
- ◆Myrna,T.M. (١٩٩٨) .**What's New in Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing.**
Phil. J. Microbiol . Infect. Dis. ٢٧ (٣) : ١١٣-١١٥ .
- ◆National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards(NCCLS). (٢٠٠٣).
Performance standards for Antimicrobial susceptibility testing .٩th ed.
,informational supplement ,Wayne ,Pa.
- ◆Nenhauser,M.M.; Weinstein,R.A. and Rydman,R. (٢٠٠٣).**Antibiotic Resistance among gram-negative bacilli in U.S.intensive Care units : implications for fluroquinolone use .** *JAMA .* ٢٨٩ (٧) : ٨٨٥ – ٨ .
- ◆Nicas,T.I. and Hancock,R.E.W. (١٩٨٠). **Outer Membrane Protein H١ of *P. aeruginosa* : Involvement in Adaptive and Mutational resistance Ethyenediamine tetraacetate, polymyxin B and gentamicin.** *J. of Bacteriology.* ١٤٣ (٢) : ٨٧٢-٨٧٨.
- ◆Nihad ,A.; Wa'ad,M. and Sheelan,A. (٢٠٠٢). **Prevalence and Antibiogram Profile of *P.aeruginosa* Isolated from Patients Attending STH At Tikrit city** . *The Medical Journal of Tikrit University.* ٨ : ٦١ – ٦٧ .
- ◆Nordbring,E. (١٩٨٢).***Pseudomonas* :Clinical Problems Related to Virulence Factors and Development of Resistance .** *Arch.Inter.Med.* ١٤٢ : ٢٠١٠ – ٢٠١١ .
- ◆Normark, B.H. and Normark,S .(٢٠٠٢). **Evolution and Spread of Antibiotic Resistance .** *J. Intern-Med* .٢٥٢ (٢): ٩١-١٠٦ .
- ◆Obritsch,M.O.; Fish,D.N; Maclaren,R. and Jung,R. (٢٠٠٥). **Nosocomial Infections due to Multidrug-Resistant *P.aeruginosa* : Epidemiology and treatment options.** *Pharmacotherapy* .٢٥ (١٠) : ١٣٥٣-١٣٦٤ .

-
- ◆Oliver,A.; Canton,R.; Campo,P.; Baquero,F. and Bkazquez,J. (۲۰۰۰). **High Frequency of hypermutable *P.aeruginosa* in Cystic Fibrosis Lung infection .Madrid . Spain ,*Science* ۱۹ ; ۲۸۸(۵۴۶۹):۱۲۵۱-۴ .**
- ◆Olge,J.W.; Janda,J.M. ; Woods,D.E. and Vasil,M.L.(۱۹۸۷). **Characterization and Use of a DNA probe as an epidemiological marker For *P.aeruginosa* .*J. of Infectious Dis.* ۱۵۵: ۱۱۹-۱۲۷ .**
- ◆Owlia,P.; Behzadiyan-Nejad,Q.; Souri,E. and Sadari,H. (۲۰۰۱). **Microscopic Study of the effects of sub-inhibitory concentrations of gentamicin on capsule production of *P. aeruginosa* .*Arch. Irr. Med.* ۴ : ۱۸ – ۲۰ .**
- ◆Phillips,I. (۱۹۶۹). **Identification of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in the Clinical laboratory .*J.of Medical Microbiology* . ۲ : ۹- ۱۶ .**
- ◆Pitt,T.L. (۱۹۸۸). **Epidemiology typing of *P.aeruginosa* .*European J. of Clinical Microbiology and infectious Dis.* ۷ : ۲۳۸ – ۲۴۷ .**
- ◆Poirel,L.; Rotimi,V.O.; Mokaddas,E.M.; Karim,A. and Nordmann,P. (۲۰۰۱). **VEB-۱-like extended-spectrum B-lactamases in *P.aeruginosa* ,Kuwait .Past Issue .*J.of Emerging Infectious Dis.* ۷ (۳).**
- ◆Pollack,M. (۲۰۰۰). ***P. aeruginosa* .In G.L.Mandell ,J.E.Eennett and R. Dolin (ed) *Principles and Practice of Infectious Diseases* .^۵th Ed . Churchill Livingstone , Inc. New York .p.۱۹۸۰-۲۰۰۳.**
- ◆Poole ,K.; Krebs,K. and McNally,C. (۱۹۹۳). **Multiple antibiotic Resistance in *P.aeruginosa* :evidence for involvement of an Efflux operon .*J. Bacterial* . ۱۷۵ : ۷۳۶۳ – ۷۳۷۲ .**

◆Po-Ren,H.; Mei-Ling,C.; Chun-Chuan,S.; Wen,H.C.; Hui,J.; Li-She,Y.; Shan-Chwen,C.; Shen,W.H.; Chin,Y.; Wei-Chuan,H. and Kwen,T. (۲۰۰۲) **.Antimicrobial drug resistance in Pathogens causing nosocomial infections at a university Hospital in Taiwan ۱۹۸۱ – ۱۹۹۹ .۸ (۱) .(Medline).**

◆Rahal,J-J;Urban,C. and Segal–Maurer,S. (۲۰۰۲) **.Nosocomial antibiotic resistance in multiple gram- negative species .USA. *Clin. Infect Dis.* ۱۵ ; ۳۴ (۴) : ۴۹۹-۵۰۳ .**

◆Reimer , S. and Reller,N. (۱۹۸۱).**Control strain MICs with and without Serum . *Antimicrob. Agents chemother.* .۱۹: ۱۰۵۱- ۱۰۵۴ .**

◆Roberts , N.J. and Douglas.R.G .(۱۹۷۸).**Gentamicin use and *Pseudomonas* and *Serratia* resistance :effect of a surgical prophylaxis Regimen .*Antimicrob.Agents chemother.* ۱۳ : ۲۱۴ – ۲۲۰ .**

◆Rubin,J. and Yu,V.L. (۱۹۹۰). **Malignant external otitis :in sights into Pathogenesis, clinical manifestations, Diagnosis and therapy. *Am. J. Med.* ۸۵: ۳۹۱ – ۳۹۸ .**

◆Quim ,J.P. ; Divincenzo,C.A. and Lerner,S.A .(۱۹۸۸) . **Resistance to imipenem in *P.aeruginosa*. Clinical experience and biochemical Mechanisms. *Rev. Infect .Dis.* ۱۰ : ۸۹۲ – ۸۹۸.**

◆Sabath, L.D. (۱۹۸۴) **.Biochemical and physiologic basis for susceptibility and resistance of *P.aeruginosa* to antimicrobial agents .*Rev.Infect.Dis.* ۶ (۳) :S۶۴۳-S۶۵۶.**

- ◆ Sanders, C.C. (1987). **Chromosomal cephalosporins responsible for Multiple resistance to newer beta-lactam antibiotics** . *Ann.Rev. Microbiol* 41 : 573 – 593.
- ◆ Senda, C.C.; Arakawa, Y. and Nakashima, K. (1996). **Multifocal outbreaks Of metallo-beta-lactamase-producing *P.aeruginosa* resistant to Broad-spectrum, beta-lactams , including carbapenem** . *Antimicrob.Agents chemother* 40 : 349-353.
- ◆ Shannon, K. and Phillips, I. (1982) . **Mechanisms of resistance of aminoglycosides in clinical isolates** . *J.Antimicrobial chemother* 9 : 91- 102.
- ◆ Sidorenko, S.V.; Oel'fand, E.B. and Mamontova, O.V. (1999) . **Hospital infections caused by *P.aeruginosa* significance in intensive Therapy** . *Anesteziol-Reanimatol* . (3) : 46-54.
- ◆ Singh, N.; Gayowski, T. ; Rihs, J.D.; Wagener, M.M. and Marino, I.R. (2002) . **Evolving trends in multiple-antibiotic resistance bacteria in Liver transplant recipients : a longitudinal study of antimicrobial susceptibility patterns** . *Liver-Transp.* 9 (1) : 22 -6.
- ◆ Sorberg, M.; Farra, A.; Ransjo, U. ; Gardlund, B. ; Rylander, M.; Wallen, L. ; Kalin, M. and Kronvall, G. (2002) . **Longterm antibiotic resistance surveillance of gram-negative pathogens suggest that temporal trends can be used as a resistance warning system** . *Scand-J-Infect-Dis.* 3 (5) : 372-8.
- ◆ Spencer, R.C. (1996) . **An 8 year microbe base survey of the epidemiology , frequency and antibiotic susceptibility of *P.aeruginosa* Hospital isolates in the U.K.** *J.Antimicrob chemother* . (37) : 295 – 301

-
- ◆Steven, S.H. ; Fouraker,B.D. and Jensen,H.G .(1991) .**Intraocular Safety of ciprofloxacin** . *Arch.Ophthalmol.* 109: 1737 .
- ◆Suman,E.; Varghese,S. and Jose,J. (2005) . **Gentamicin resistance in Biofilm producing infections** .*Indian J.Med.Sci.* 59:214 -216.
- ◆Sandstrom,J.; Jacobson,K. and Munch –Wikland,E. (1996) .**Pseudomonas aeruginosa in otitis externa** .*Arch.Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg* . 122 : 833 – 836.
- ◆Suzuki,Y.; Ishii,Y; Ishihara,R.; Nakazawa,A ; Deguchi,K. ; Matsumoto,Y. ; Nishinari,C. ; Nakane,Y. and Fukumoto,T. (1997) . **Antimicrobial activities of clarithromycin against recent obtained clinical isolates**. *Jpn–J-Antibiot.* 50 (9):776-93 .
- ◆Symth, A. and Alford,J.A. (1984). **Lipolytic microorganism in compendium of methods for the microbiological examination of foods**. 2ndEd. **ApHA** .Washington .
- ◆Toleman,M.A.; Rolston,K. and Jones,R.N. (2003) .**Molecular and biochemical characterization of OXA-48, an extended-spectrum class 2d, beta-lactamase in P. aeruginosa** .*Antimicrob.Agents Chemother.* 47 : 2809- 2863 .
- ◆Trias,J; Dufresne,J. and Levesque,R.C. (1989). **Decreased outer Membrane permeability in imipenem-resistant mutants of P.aeruginosa** .*Antimicrob.Agents Chemother.* 33: 1202-1289.

-
- ◆VanEldere, J. (1999) *P.aeruginosa* in nosocomial infections :a survey of resistance in Belgian hospitals , *J.Antimicrob. chemother* 51 (2) : 347 – 52 .
- ◆Verhaz, A. ; Skrbic, R. ; .Rakic– Music, M. and Sabo, A. (2003) .Catheter related urinary infections at the clinical center in Banjaluca .*Med –Pregl.* 56 (9-10): 460 – 4 .
- ◆Walsh, T.R.; Bolmstrom, A.; Qwarnstrom, A. and Gales, A . (2002). Evaluation of a new E test for detecting Metallo-beta-lactamases In Routine clinical testing .*J.of clini.microbio.* 40 (8) : 2755 – 2759 .
- ◆Washington , J.A. (1984). *Medically important bacteria . In clinical diagnosis and Management by laboratory methods* . 1st ed. Ed. J.B. Henry .Philadelphia W.B.Saunders company .p. 1082-1121 .
- ◆Watanabe, M.; Lyobe, S. and Inoue, M. (1991) .Transferable imipenem resistance in *P.aeruginosa* . *Antimicrob.Agents chemother.* 35: 147 – 151 .
- ◆Wateret, G.W. and Wunderink, R.G .(2001) . Increasing threat of gram– Negative bacteria .*Crit –Care –Med* . 29 (4) : 75 – 81 .
- ◆Weinstein, R.A.; Nathan, G. and Gruen, S. (1980) . Endemic aminoglycosides resistance in gram–negative bacilli: epidemiology And mechanisms *J.Infect .Dis.* 141 (3) : 338 – 45 .
- ◆Wilson, G.S. and Miles, A. (1975) . *Topley and Wilson’s principles of Bacteriology , Virology and Immunity* . 6th ed. London. Arnold .

◆Xu, Y. ; Li,T. ; Qi,S.; Shen,R. ;Shen,R. ;Chen,D. ; X.Ben and Zou,Y. (2002). **An investigation of bacterial epidemiology and an analysis of bacterial resistance to antibiotics in a burn unit from 1993-1999.** *Zhonghua – shao-shang Za-Zhi* .18 (3) :159- 62 .

◆Zhang ,R.; Jin,Y. and Han,C . (2002) . **The isolation of *P.aeruginosa* from Burn wound and the analysis of its antibiotic resistant spectrum.** *Zhonghua-shao-shang-za-zhi* .18 (5): 285 -7 .