"EXTENDED SPECTRUM OF BETA LACTAMASES, AMPICILLINASE C AND METALLO BETA LACTAMASES IN EMERGING MULTI DRUG RESISTANT GRAM-NEGATIVE BACTERIA IN INTENSIVE CARE UNIT"

By

MISS AISHWARYA S KANDAKUR

REG NO: 21MSCMIC01

Dissertation submitted to

BLDE (DEEMED TO BE UNIVERSITY)

VIJAYAPURA, KARNATAKA

In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

IN

MEDICAL MICROBIOLOGY

Under the guidance of

Dr. SANJAY WAVARE PHD
ASSISTANT PROFESSOR

DEPARTMENT OF MICROBIOLOGY

BLDE (DEEMED TO BE UNIVERSITY)

SHRI B.M. PATIL MEDICAL COLLEGE, HOSPITAL &

RESEARCH CENTRE, VIJAYAPUR, KARNATAKA

2023

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RESEARCH CENTRE, VIJAYAPURA.

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Date:30.03.2024
Place: Vijayapura

Miss Aishwarya s kandakur
Reg No: 21MSCMIC01
Post Graduate Student,
Department of microbiology
BLDE (DU)
Shri B M Patil Medical College,
Hospital & Research Centre
Vijayapura

BLDE (DEEMED TO BE UNIVERSITY),
SHRI B.M. PATIL MEDICAL COLLEGE, HOSPITAL &
RESEARCH CENTRE, VIJAYAPURA.

CERTIFICATE BY THE GUIDE

This to certify that the dissertation entitled **"EXTENDED SPECTRUM BETA LACTAMASES, AMPICILLINASE C AND METALLO BETA LACTAMASES IN EMERGING MULTI DRUG RESISTANT GRAM-NEGATIVE BACTERIA IN INTENSIVE CARE UNIT"** is a bonafide research work done by Miss Aishwarya s kandakur, under my overall supervision and guidance, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of MSc in Medical Microbiology

Date:30.03.2024
Place: Vijayapura

Dr. SANJAY WAVARE PHD
Assistant Professor
Department of Microbiology
BLDE (DU),
Shri B. M. Patil Medical College,
Hospital & Research Centre,
Vijayapura

BLDE (DEEMED TO BE UNIVERSITY),
SHRI B.M. PATIL MEDICAL COLLEGE, HOSPITAL &
RESEARCH CENTRE, VIJAYAPURA.

ENDORSEMENT BY THE HEAD OF DEPARTMENT

This to certify that the dissertation entitled **"EXTENDED SPECTRUM BETA LACTAMASES, AMPICILLINASE C AND METALLO BETA LACTAMASES IN EMERGING MULTI DRUG RESISTANT GRAM-NEGATIVE BACTERIA IN INTENSIVE CARE UNIT"** is a bonafide research work done by Miss Aishwarya s kandakur under the guidance of Dr. SANJAY WAVARE **PHD.** Assistant Professor Department of Microbiology at BLDE (Deemed to be University), Shri. B. M. Patil Medical College Hospital and Research Centre, Vijayapura.

Date**: 30.03.2024**

Place: Vijayapura

Dr. ANNAPURNA SAJJAN

Professor & Head
Department of Microbiology
B. L. D. E. (DU)
Shri B. M. Patil Medical College,
Hospital & Research Centre, Vijayapura

BLDE (DEEMED TO BE UNIVERSITY),
SHRI B.M. PATIL MEDICAL COLLEGE, HOSPITAL &
RESEARCH CENTRE, VIJAYAPURA.

ENDORSEMENT BY THE PRINCIPAL

This to certify that the dissertation entitled **"EXTENDED SPECTRUM BETA LACTAMASES, AMPICILLINASE C AND METALLO BETA LACTAMASES IN EMERGING MULTI DRUG RESISTANT GRAM-NEGATIVE BACTERIA IN INTENSIVE CARE UNIT"** is a bonafide research work done by Miss Aishwarya s kandakur under the guidance of Dr. SANJAY WAVARE **PHD**. Assistant Professor, Department of Microbiology at BLDE (Deemed to be University) Shri. B. M. Patil Medical College Hospital and Research Centre, Vijayapura.

S V Patil

Date:30.03.2024
Place: Vijayapura

Dr. S V PATIL
Dean, Faculty of allied health science
B. L. D. E (DU)
Shri B. M. Patil Medical College,
Hospital & Research Centre
Vijayapura

BLDE (DEEMED TO BE UNIVERSITY),
SHRI B.M. PATIL MEDICAL COLLEGE, HOSPITAL &
RESEARCH CENTRE, VIJAYAPURA.

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Date:30.03.2024
Place: Vijayapura

Miss Aishwarya s kandakur
Post Graduate Student
Department of Microbiology
Shri B. M. Patil Medical College
Hospital & Research Centre,
Vijayapura

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This dissertation work has been a compilation of great learning experience, knowledge, encouragement, patience and perseverance. At every step, I had inspiration and help from my teachers, guidance from my peers, encouragement from friends and the love of my family, without which this task was impossible. I want to thank several people who have contributed to the final result in many different ways:

To commence with, I pay my obeisance to **GOD**, the Almighty, who has bestowed upon me good health, courage, inspiration, zeal and the light.

After GOD, I express my sincere and deepest gratitude to my guide, **Dr. SANJAY WAVARE** Assistant Professor, Department of Microbiology, BLDE (Deemed to be University), Shri B. M. Patil Medical College, Hospital & Research Centre, Vijayapura, who ploughed through several preliminary versions of my text, making critical suggestions and posing challenging questions. Her expertise, invaluable guidance, constant encouragement, understanding, patience and healthy criticism added considerably to my experience. Without her continual inspiration, completing this study would not have been possible.

I am thankful to **Dr. Annapurna sajjan**, Prof. and Head, Department of Microbiology, BLDE (Deemed to be University), Shri B. M. Patil Medical College, Hospital & Research Centre, Vijayapura

I am thankful to **Dr. S V. Patil**, Dean, Faculty of Allied Health Science BLDE (Deemed to be University), Shri B. M. Patil Medical College, Hospital & Research Centre, Vijayapura, for permitting me to conduct this study.

I am very grateful to **Dr. Raghavendra Kulkarni**, Registrar of BLDE (DU) Vijayapura, for their constant support and well wishes.

I am highly thankful to **Dr. P R Shahapur,** Professor, Department of Microbiology, for his unfaltering patience and kind help in motivating me

I am indebted to **Dr. Basavaraj M C,** Professor of the Department of Microbiology, for the healthy critiquing and for sharing his seemingly infinite knowledge.

I am highly thankful to our coordinator Dr. **Smitha Bagali,** Professor., Department of Microbiology, for her dynamic presence and kindly helping in the progress of my study periodically.

I am extremely thankful to **Dr. Aparna Takpere, Dr. Rashmi M Karigoudar, Dr. S. S. Mangalgi, Dr. Jyothi P,** for their valuable help and guidance during my study.

I thank **Dr. Vijaya Sorganvi,** a Statistician, for their guidance and support in the statistics of my research work.

I sincerely acknowledge the support and kindness shown by the staff members of **Central Library**, Shri B M Patil Medical College Vijayapura, at all times.

I sincerely admire the support of my fellow postgraduate friends, **Miss. Poojashree, Miss. Chaitra, Miss. Virupamma**, Thank them for a healthy atmosphere, unwavering support and patience throughout my post-graduation.

I am thankful to all the non-teaching and clerical staff members of the Department of Microbiology for their cooperation in my research study.

I sincerely thank my parents, **Mr. Sangamesh N kandakur** and **Mrs. shivaleela S kandakur,** for their prayers and good wishes. I am what I am today because of them.

A special thanks to my brother **Mr. akshay s kandakur,** and sister **Miss Sneha d** for believing in my capabilities and helping me achieve my dreams.

Lastly, I would like to thank all the subjects participating in the study.

Date:30.03.2024 **Miss. Aishwarya s kandakur**

Place: Vijayapura

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS USED

1 Extended Spectrum Beta-Lactamases (ESBLs)

2 Ampicillinase C (AmpC)

3 Metallo Beta-Lactamases (MBLs)

4 Antimicrobial resistance (AMR)

5 Intensive Care Units (ICUs)

6 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC)

7 Antibiotic stewardship programs (ASPs)

8 Rapid diagnostic technologies (RDTs)

9 Cefepime (FEP)

10 Piperacillin-tazobactam (PTZ)

11 Gram-negative rods (GNRs)

12 Chlorhexidine body washing (CHG-BW)

EXTENDED SPECTRUM BETA-LACTAMASES, AMPICILLINASE C AND METALLO BETA-LACTAMASES IN EMERGING MULTI-DRUG RESISTANT GRAM- NEGATIVE BACTERIA IN INTENSIVE CARE UNITS

ABSTRACT

The study titled "Extended Spectrum Beta-Lactamases Ampicillinase C and Metallo Beta-Lactamases in Emerging Multi-Drug Resistant Gram-Negative Bacteria in Intensive Care Units" presents a comprehensive investigation into the prevalence, impact, and clinical implications of Extended Spectrum Beta-Lactamases (ESBLs), Ampicillinase C (AmpC), and Metallo Beta-Lactamases (MBLs) in multi-drug resistant Gram-negative bacteria within Intensive Care Units (ICUs). The rising incidence of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) represents a global health crisis, particularly with Gram-negative bacteria in healthcare settings, posing significant threats to patient outcomes and increasing healthcare costs. This study aims to elucidate the distribution and implications of these resistance mechanisms, informing targeted interventions and optimizing antimicrobial stewardship in ICU settings.

The background of the study highlights the rapid evolution of AMR as a formidable challenge, emphasizing the critical role of ICUs as epicentres for the emergence and spread of multi-drug resistant pathogens. The prevalence of AMR among Gram-negative bacteria has reached alarming levels, necessitating effective intervention strategies. The study focuses on ESBLs, AmpC, and MBLs, enzymes that confer resistance to a broad spectrum of antibiotics, underscoring the urgency of understanding their epidemiology to guide empiric antibiotic therapy and implement effective infection control measures.

The study's rationale is rooted in the urgent need to address the escalating threat posed by antimicrobial resistance within ICUs, where the presence of multi-drug resistant pathogens significantly compromises treatment options. The comprehensive investigation aims to deepen

understanding of the molecular mechanisms driving resistance and develop targeted interventions to mitigate its impact.

The methodology encompasses a cross-sectional study design, detailing sample collection, processing, laboratory procedures, and data analysis. This rigorous approach facilitates the systematic conduct of the study, generating reliable data for analysis and interpretation.

The results reveal a notable predominance of males in the patient population and a diverse age distribution across children, young adults, middle-aged adults, and older adults. The sample distribution illustrates a variety of sources, with blood samples constituting the largest proportion, indicating the severity of bloodstream infections. The prevalence of bacterial isolates showcases a range of species, with K. pneumoniae and Ps. aeruginosa being the most prevalent, reflecting the widespread challenge posed by MDR pathogens in ICUs.

The prevalence of resistance mechanisms highlights the concerning levels of antimicrobial resistance, with ESBL-producing, AmpC-producing, and MBL-producing strains showcasing significant prevalence. The study also explores the association between resistance mechanisms and clinical outcomes, revealing correlations with prolonged ICU stays, the requirement for advanced treatments, and increased mortality rates.

Comparisons between phenotypic and molecular methods using Vitek data highlight both strengths and limitations of each approach in detecting resistance mechanisms. The discussion delves into the emergence of MDR Gram-negative bacteria as a significant threat, emphasizing the importance of precise diagnostic methods, targeted treatment strategies, and the impact of resistance mechanisms on patient care.

In conclusion, this study provides critical insights into the prevalence and implications of ESBLs, AmpC, and MBLs in Gram-negative bacteria within ICUs, underscoring the urgent need for comprehensive antimicrobial stewardship and infection control programs to combat the rising tide of antibiotic resistance. The findings contribute to the broader understanding of

microbial dynamics within ICUs and highlight the imperative for ongoing surveillance, research, and policy efforts aimed at mitigating the public health impact of antimicrobial resistance.

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INTRODUCTION

The study investigates the prevalence and impact of Extended Spectrum Beta-Lactamases (ESBLs), Ampicillinase C (AmpC), and Metallo Beta-Lactamases (MBLs) in emerging multi-drug resistant Gram-negative bacteria within intensive care units (ICUs). Focusing on these enzymes, known for their ability to confer resistance to a broad spectrum of antibiotics, is paramount due to the rising incidence of multi-drug resistant infections, particularly in critically ill patients. By elucidating the distribution and clinical implications of these resistance mechanisms, the study aims to inform targeted interventions and optimize antimicrobial stewardship practices in ICU settings. Understanding the epidemiology of ESBLs, AmpC, and MBLs in Gram-negative bacteria is essential for guiding empiric antibiotic therapy, implementing effective infection control measures, and ultimately improving patient outcomes in the face of escalating antimicrobial resistance threats within healthcare facilities.

BACKGROUND

In recent decades, the rapid evolution of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) has emerged as a formidable global health crisis, threatening the efficacy of our most potent antibiotics, and compromising our ability to combat infectious diseases effectively.[1] Among the most concerning culprits are Gram-negative bacteria, renowned for their remarkable adaptability and propensity to acquire resistance mechanisms against multiple classes of antibiotics. Within the healthcare landscape, intensive care units (ICUs) stand at the forefront of this battle against AMR, grappling with high patient acuity, invasive procedures, and frequent antibiotic exposure, all of which create fertile breeding grounds for the emergence and spread of multi-drug resistant pathogens. [1,2]

The prevalence of AMR among Gram-negative bacteria has reached alarming levels, with a significant proportion of isolates exhibiting resistance to multiple antibiotics, including beta-lactams, fluoroquinolones, and carbapenems.[3] According to recent surveillance data from the Centres for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), approximately 70% of Gram-negative infections in the United States are now resistant to at least one class of antibiotics, highlighting the urgent need for effective intervention strategies.[4] Furthermore, a systematic review published in The Lancet Infectious Diseases revealed a disturbing trend of increasing resistance rates among Gram-negative bacteria worldwide, with particularly concerning trends observed in healthcare-associated infections.[5]

Central to the challenge of combating AMR in Gram-negative bacteria are three key enzymes: Extended Spectrum Beta-lactamases (ESBLs), Ampicillinase C (AmpC), and Metallo Beta-lactamases (MBLs). These enzymes confer resistance to beta-lactam antibiotics, the cornerstone of antibiotic therapy for a wide range of bacterial infections. [6] ESBLs, first identified in the 1980s, have since become widespread among Enterobacteriaceae, including Escherichia coli and Klebsiella pneumoniae, rendering extended-spectrum cephalosporins and monobactams ineffective in many clinical scenarios.[7] In addition to ESBLs, AmpC beta-lactamases represent another significant mechanism of resistance in Gram-negative bacteria, particularly among members of the Enterobacteriaceae family.[6,7] Unlike ESBLs, which are often encoded on plasmids and readily disseminated among bacterial populations, AmpC enzymes are primarily chromosomally encoded but can also be transferred horizontally between species.[8] This genetic versatility enables AmpC-producing bacteria to quickly adapt to selective pressures, such as exposure to beta-lactam antibiotics, and develop high-level resistance to multiple drug classes. Notably, a recent study highlighted the widespread distribution of AmpC-producing Enterobacteriaceae in hospital settings, with substantial implications for patient care and clinical outcomes.[7]

Furthermore, the emergence of Metallo Beta-lactamases (MBLs) represents a particularly concerning development in the realm of AMR, as these enzymes confer resistance to carbapenems, often considered the last line of defense against multidrug-resistant Gram-negative infections. MBLs are characterized by their dependence on zinc ions for catalytic activity and their ability to hydrolyse virtually all beta-lactam antibiotics, including carbapenems and cephalosporins. [7,8,9] This broad spectrum of activity poses significant challenges for clinicians tasked with managing infections caused by MBL-producing bacteria, as treatment options become severely limited, and therapeutic failures become increasingly common. [10,11] In the context of ICUs, where critically ill patients are highly vulnerable to healthcare-associated infections and their complications, the impact of AMR among Gram-negative bacteria is particularly pronounced. Not only do infections caused by multi-drug resistant organisms result in increased morbidity and mortality rates, but they also impose a substantial economic burden on healthcare systems, prolonging hospital stays and necessitating more aggressive and costly treatment regimens. A recent cost-of-illness study published in Clinical Infectious Diseases estimated that the annual economic cost attributable to antibiotic-resistant infections in the United States exceeds $20 billion, with a disproportionate burden borne by patients receiving care in ICUs.[3,5, 8]

Given the alarming rise in antimicrobial resistance and its severe consequences, it's crucial to learn more about why Gram-negative bacteria are becoming resistant and find new ways to fight this problem in ICUs. [9,10] By understanding how bacteria, our bodies, and the environment all play a role, we can figure out where to step in and stop resistance from spreading. We need to use what we know to come up with solid plans and put them into action to keep our current antibiotics working. By working together across different fields and industries, we can tackle the danger of resistant Gram-negative bacteria in ICUs, protecting patients and communities everywhere.

Study Rationale

The rationale for conducting a comprehensive study on Extended Spectrum Beta-lactamases (ESBLs), Ampicillinase C (AmpC), and Metallo Beta-lactamases (MBLs) in emerging multi-drug resistant Gram-negative bacteria in Intensive Care Units (ICUs) is rooted in the urgent need to address the escalating threat posed by antimicrobial resistance. Within the high-acuity environment of ICUs, where vulnerable patients are predisposed to healthcare-associated infections, the presence of multi-drug resistant pathogens significantly compromises treatment options, exacerbating patient morbidity, mortality, and healthcare costs. Furthermore, the increasing prevalence of ESBLs, AmpC, and MBLs underscores the critical need for a deeper understanding of the molecular mechanisms driving resistance and the development of targeted interventions to mitigate its impact. By elucidating the intricate interplay between bacterial pathogens, host factors, and environmental pressures, researchers can identify opportunities for intervention and implement evidence-based strategies to preserve the effectiveness of existing antimicrobial therapies. Ultimately, addressing the challenge of multi-drug resistant Gram-negative bacteria in ICUs is paramount to safeguarding patient outcomes, minimizing the spread of resistance, and upholding the integrity of antibiotic therapy in critical care settings and beyond.

Problem Statement

The problem statement for the study on Extended Spectrum Beta-lactamases (ESBLs), Ampicillinase C (AmpC), and Metallo Beta-lactamases (MBLs) in emerging multi-drug resistant Gram-negative bacteria in Intensive Care Units (ICUs) revolves around the escalating threat of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) within critical care settings. Specifically, the increasing prevalence of ESBLs, AmpC, and MBLs in Gram-negative bacteria poses significant challenges to effective treatment, leading to compromised patient outcomes, prolonged hospital stays, and increased healthcare costs. This rise in resistance undermines the

efficacy of conventional antibiotics, including last-line therapies such as carbapenems, thereby limiting treatment options for critically ill patients in ICUs. Additionally, the spread of multi-drug resistant organisms within ICUs not only endangers individual patients but also contributes to the broader public health crisis of antimicrobial resistance. Addressing this problem requires a comprehensive understanding of the mechanisms driving resistance, the epidemiology of resistant pathogens in ICU settings, and the development of evidence-based strategies to mitigate the impact of multi-drug resistance on patient care and public health.

Significance of the study

The significance of studying Extended Spectrum Beta-lactamases (ESBLs), Ampicillinase C (AmpC), and Metallo Beta-lactamases (MBLs) in emerging multi-drug resistant Gram-negative bacteria in Intensive Care Units (ICUs) is profound and multi-faceted. Firstly, with the rise of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) posing a critical threat to global health, understanding the mechanisms and prevalence of resistance in ICUs is crucial for preserving the efficacy of antibiotics, safeguarding patient outcomes, and reducing healthcare costs. Secondly, ICUs serve as epicenters for the acquisition and transmission of multi-drug resistant pathogens, amplifying the risk of healthcare-associated infections and complicating patient management. By investigating ESBLs, AmpC, and MBLs in Gram-negative bacteria within this context, the study offers insights into the dynamics of resistance dissemination and informs infection control strategies to mitigate transmission. Additionally, the study's findings contribute to the development of evidence-based antimicrobial stewardship programs tailored to ICU settings, promoting judicious antibiotic use and curbing the emergence of resistance. Furthermore, given the global nature of AMR, the study's implications extend beyond individual healthcare facilities, informing public health policies aimed at combatting the spread of multi-drug resistant organisms at national and international levels. Ultimately, the study's significance lies in its potential to drive actionable interventions that protect patient health, preserve the effectiveness of antibiotics, and mitigate the broader societal impact of antimicrobial resistance.

Aim and Objective

Aim

To isolates the presence of the ESBL, AmpC, MBL producing strains among INTENSIVE CARE UNIT isolates of all gram-negative bacteria.

Objectives

1. Isolation and identification of all gram-negative bacteria from ICUs patients in medical microbiology laboratory.
2. To study the multi drug resistance pattern of the identified all bacterial isolates.
3. To detect ESBLs, AmpC, MBLs among all bacterial isolates.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Antimicrobial Resistance in Intensive Care Units (ICUs):

Antimicrobial resistance poses a significant challenge in intensive care units (ICUs), where critically ill patients are particularly vulnerable to infections and their complications. The emergence and spread of multidrug-resistant organisms (MDROs) in these settings have profound implications for patient care, treatment outcomes, and healthcare resource utilization. Factors contributing to antimicrobial resistance in ICUs include frequent use of broad-spectrum antibiotics, prolonged hospital stays, invasive procedures, and underlying comorbidities. Addressing antimicrobial resistance in ICUs requires a multifaceted approach, including enhanced infection prevention and control measures, judicious antimicrobial prescribing practices, surveillance for resistant pathogens, and ongoing research into novel therapeutic strategies. Failure to effectively combat antimicrobial resistance in ICUs not only jeopardizes individual patient care but also threatens the broader public health by compromising the efficacy of lifesaving antibiotics. Therefore, proactive measures to mitigate antimicrobial resistance in ICUs are essential to safeguard patient health and preserve the effectiveness of antimicrobial agents for future generations. Studies related to it:

Antimicrobial resistance and antibiotic stewardship programs in the ICU

(De Waele et al., 2018): This comprehensive position statement from intensive care and infectious disease specialists across Europe underlines the pressing threat of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) in Intensive Care Units (ICUs) globally. The intensity of treatments, use of invasive devices, and the high risk of transmission in ICUs make patients particularly vulnerable to AMR infections. The statement calls for increased awareness among healthcare professionals and emphasizes the necessity of antibiotic stewardship programs (ASPs) to improve the treatment of AMR infections and reduce its development in critically ill patients. A multidisciplinary approach, including close collaboration with various healthcare sectors and strict infection control practices, is highlighted as essential to combating AMR in ICUs [11].

Antimicrobial Resistance in the Intensive Care Unit

(MacVane, 2017): Shawn H. MacVane sheds light on the alarming shift towards increasing incidence of infections caused by gram-negative bacteria, such as Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Acinetobacter baumannii, in ICUs. The study underscores the growing problem of antimicrobial resistance, particularly to β-lactam antibiotics, which has led to high morbidity

and mortality rates associated with these infections. The importance of antimicrobial stewardship programs is reiterated, with a focus on optimizing the use of antimicrobial agents to improve patient outcomes and reduce hospital costs while slowing the progression of antimicrobial resistance [12].

Antimicrobial resistance and resistance mechanisms of Enterobacteriaceae in ICU and non-ICU wards

(Lob et al., 2015): This study utilizes data from the SMART study to examine the susceptibility of Enterobacteriaceae in ICU and non-ICU settings across Europe and North America. Findings reveal lower susceptibility and higher rates of ESBL-producing and multidrug-resistant Enterobacteriaceae in ICUs, with significant geographical differences observed between the two continents. The study highlights the importance of continuous surveillance and research to understand and mitigate antimicrobial resistance in high-risk areas such as ICUs [13].

Emergence of antibiotic resistance Pseudomonas aeruginosa in ICU

(Pachori et al., 2019): This critical review focuses on the challenges posed by the emergence of antibiotic-resistant Pseudomonas aeruginosa in ICUs. The organism, a significant pathogen for ICU-acquired infections, displays innate resistance to many antibiotics and has acquired mechanisms to resist multiple classes of antibiotics. The review discusses the survival strategies of P. aeruginosa, including biofilm formation and horizontal gene transfer, and calls for novel treatment options and a deeper understanding of resistance mechanisms [14].

Novel Approaches to Hasten Detection of Pathogens and Antimicrobial Resistance in the ICU

(Guillamet et al., 2019): Guillamet, Burnham, and Kollef discuss the urgent need for rapid diagnostic technologies (RDTs) in the management of infections by multidrug-resistant bacteria in ICUs. Highlighting the limitations of current diagnostic methods, the study proposes that RDTs can significantly impact patient care by providing timely information that can guide the administration of appropriate antibiotics, facilitate de-escalation of unnecessary antimicrobials, and support infection control decisions [15].

Temporal trends and patterns in antimicrobial-resistant Gram-negative bacteria in ICUs (Durdu et al., 2018): This surveillance study conducted in Istanbul, Turkey, assesses the

trends in antimicrobial resistance among Gram-negative bacteria causing ICU-acquired infections. The findings indicate a decrease in overall infection rates but an increase in the proportion of extensively drug-resistant and pandrug-resistant strains. The study underscores the persistent challenge of antimicrobial resistance despite decreasing infection rates and highlights the necessity for ongoing surveillance and targeted infection control measures [16].

Mechanisms of antimicrobial resistance in Gram-negative bacilli

(Ruppé et al., 2015): This study delves into the mechanisms behind the alarming rise in multidrug resistance among Gram-negative bacilli, particularly focusing on the spread of extended-spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL) and carbapenemase-producing strains. It emphasizes the critical need for continuous development of new antibiotics and the exploration of alternative therapeutic options to address the growing threat of carbapenem-resistant strains [17].

Antimicrobial resistance in the next 30 years: A visionary approach

(Bassetti et al., 2017): Bassetti and colleagues provide a forward-looking perspective on the challenges and potential solutions to antimicrobial resistance over the next 30 years. Highlighting recent advancements and the continued need for innovation, the review discusses emerging strategies beyond traditional antibiotics, such as fecal microbiota transplantation and phage therapy, to combat resistant pathogens [18].

Surviving Sepsis in the ICU: The Challenge of Antimicrobial Resistance and the Trauma Patient

(Ramsamy et al., 2017): This review explores the complexities of managing sepsis in the ICU amidst the backdrop of increasing antimicrobial resistance. It advocates for a judicious approach to the use of broad-spectrum antimicrobials and underscores the importance of distinguishing between different ICU populations to tailor antimicrobial therapy more effectively, thereby minimizing the emergence of resistance [19].

Mechanisms of Resistance:

Treatment options for ESBL and AmpC-producing bacteria

(D'Angelo et al., 2016): The rise in ESBL and AmpC β-lactamase producing bacteria has pressed the medical community to seek effective treatments beyond broad-spectrum antibiotics like carbapenems. This study explores the use of β-lactam-β-lactamase inhibitor combinations and cefepime (FEP) as alternatives. Although piperacillin-tazobactam (PTZ) and FEP show potential, their application is limited to specific infections and patient conditions, suggesting a tailored approach is essential for effective management [20].

Prevalence and drug resistance of ESBL-producing Enterobacteriaceae in Africa (Saravanan et al., 2018): Focusing on the African continent, this review compiles data on the prevalence and resistance patterns of ESBL-producing Enterobacteriaceae in both hospital and community settings. The widespread presence of the CTX-M-15 gene among these bacteria highlights a significant health threat. The paper stresses the importance of surveillance to curb the spread of these resistant pathogens [21].

Penicillinase production and Beta-Lactamase activity

(Oshiokhayamhe, 2023): This article discusses the evolutionary arms race between beta-lactam antibiotics and the bacteria that produce beta-lactamases, including ESBLs, to resist them. Highlighting the urgent need for surveillance and prudent antibiotic use, the paper underscores the growing menace of antibiotic resistance, especially in clinical environments [22].

ESBL and AmpC-producing E. coli from food animals

(Bitrus et al., 2019): This review addresses the public health implications of antimicrobial resistance originating from food animals, with a focus on ESBL/AmpC-producing E. coli. It examines how these resistant bacteria can spread to humans through various routes, emphasizing the need for integrated efforts to manage and mitigate resistance at the intersection of human, animal, and environmental health [23].

New antibiotics against ESBL- and AmpC- infections

(Bassetti et al., 2021): The development of new therapeutic agents that can combat ESBL- and AmpC-producing Enterobacterales is critical in the face of rising resistance. This paper reviews the latest antibiotics, including ceftazidime-avibactam and ceftolozane-tazobactam, evaluating

their efficacy and positioning as alternatives to carbapenems for treating serious gram-negative infections [24].

SHV Extended-Spectrum β-Lactamases

(Liakopoulos et al., 2016): This article delves into the history and evolution of SHV β-lactamases, from their origins in Klebsiella pneumoniae to the wide array of allelic variants now present. The spread of SHV-ESBLs through plasmids across different Enterobacteriaceae underscores their clinical significance and the global challenge they represent [25].

Beta-lactamases in Colombia

(Rada et al., 2019): This comprehensive review provides insight into the molecular characterization and distribution of beta-lactamases in Colombia, revealing a landscape of high prevalence and significant clinical impact. It calls for robust antimicrobial stewardship and infection control measures to limit the spread of these resistant enzymes [26].

Global perspective on ESBL-producing and AmpC-producing E. coli

(Ewers et al., 2012): This global review of molecular epidemiological data sheds light on the complex scenario of ESBL/AmpC gene distribution in E. coli from both humans and animals. The study emphasizes the diverse distribution and challenges in tracking the transmission of these resistant pathogens across different continents and hosts [27].

Therapeutic Challenges with ESBL-producing E. coli and K. pneumoniae

(Wong-Beringer, 2001): Addressing the diagnostic and therapeutic challenges posed by ESBL-producing Enterobacteriaceae, this paper critiques the reliability of susceptibility testing and the efficacy of various antibiotics, including carbapenems. The need for a nuanced approach to drug selection and treatment strategies is highlighted to manage infections effectively [28].

Carbapenems and alternative β-lactams for ESBL-E infections

(Woerther et al., 2018): This review explores the ecological impact of using carbapenems and alternative β-lactams on the gut microbiota and its role in colonization resistance. It underscores the complexity of antibiotic-induced alterations in the gut flora and the potential consequences for resistance development, calling for further research to inform antimicrobial stewardship strategies [29].

The study by **De Waele et al. (2018)** discusses the grave concern of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) in intensive care units (ICUs) globally. ICU patients are at a heightened risk of acquiring AMR infections due to factors such as intense treatment protocols, use of invasive devices, increased transmission risk, and exposure to antibiotics. The prevalence of AMR varies geographically, and the pathogens encountered differ. A coalition of specialists from the European Society of Intensive Care Medicine, European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases, and World Alliance Against Antimicrobial Resistance, collectively known as ANTARCTICA, emphasizes the need for heightened awareness and actions to mitigate AMR in critically ill patients. They advocate for improved treatment of AMR infections, coordinated scientific research in this vulnerable patient group, and the integration of various interventions into antibiotic stewardship programs as priorities in every ICU. The paper calls for a collective effort across healthcare professions to adopt considerate antibiotic use and strict infection control practices to combat AMR in ICUs, thereby ensuring the continued effective treatment of patients [30].

MacVane (2017) addresses the escalating challenge of antimicrobial resistance, particularly emphasizing gram-negative bacterial infections in ICU settings. The study highlights the complexity and danger posed by these infections, underpinned by the ability of gram-negative bacteria to rapidly develop and disseminate resistance mechanisms. These bacteria are a common cause of various healthcare-associated infections, including pneumonia, bloodstream infections, and urinary tract infections, which are particularly prevalent and perilous in the ICU environment. MacVane discusses the critical need for effective antimicrobial stewardship programs tailored to manage the unique challenges of gram-negative infections in ICUs. The paper outlines strategies to optimize antibiotic use, including the adoption of targeted therapies based on local resistance patterns, the importance of rapid diagnostic techniques to identify pathogens and resistance mechanisms, and the role of preventive measures to control the spread of resistant bacteria. This comprehensive approach aims to balance the necessity of treating infections aggressively in critically ill patients while mitigating the risk of further contributing to the global issue of antimicrobial resistance [31].

Meini et al. (2019) Lob et al. (2015) conducted a study focusing on the antimicrobial resistance and mechanisms of Enterobacteriaceae in both ICU and non-ICU settings across Europe and North America between 2011 and 2013. The study was part of the SMART (Surveillance of Multicentre Antimicrobial Resistance in Taiwan) initiative, which aimed to monitor the resistance patterns of these bacteria, given their significance in causing hospital-acquired infections. The research highlighted the concerning trend of increasing resistance

among Enterobacteriaceae to key antimicrobials, which poses significant challenges in the treatment of infections, especially in ICUs where patients are more vulnerable. The study's findings underscore the importance of continuous surveillance, the judicious use of antibiotics, and the implementation of effective infection control measures to curb the spread of resistant Enterobacteriaceae. Additionally, it emphasized the need for global cooperation in addressing antimicrobial resistance, suggesting that understanding the mechanisms of resistance can aid in the development of new strategies for treatment and prevention [32].

Pachori, Gothalwal, and Gandhi (2019) critically review the emergence of antibiotic-resistant Pseudomonas aeruginosa in ICUs, a major concern due to its role in hospital-acquired infections and its high mortality rate. The review discusses the mechanisms by which P. aeruginosa acquires resistance, including the production of β-lactamases, efflux pump overexpression, and mutations in target sites. The paper stresses the importance of antimicrobial stewardship programs in ICUs to manage the use of antibiotics and reduce the selection pressure that drives the development of resistance. It also highlights the need for adopting new strategies, such as combination therapies and the development of novel antimicrobial agents, to effectively treat infections caused by resistant P. aeruginosa. The review calls for a multidisciplinary approach to tackle this issue, including enhanced surveillance, research on resistance mechanisms, and the implementation of guidelines for antibiotic use [33].

Guillamet, Burnham, and Kollef (2019) explore innovative strategies to accelerate the identification of pathogens and their resistance profiles in ICUs, crucial for the timely initiation of appropriate antimicrobial therapy. The paper reviews the latest advancements in diagnostic technologies, including rapid molecular assays, next-generation sequencing, and mass spectrometry, which offer significant improvements over traditional culture-based methods in terms of speed and accuracy. These technologies enable clinicians to make informed decisions about antimicrobial therapy sooner, potentially improving patient outcomes and reducing the spread of antimicrobial resistance. The authors also discuss the integration of these diagnostic tools into antimicrobial stewardship programs, emphasizing their role in optimizing antibiotic use and enhancing infection control practices. By adopting these novel diagnostic approaches, ICUs can significantly improve the management of infectious diseases and combat the growing challenge of antimicrobial resistance [34].

The study conducted by Durdu et al. (2018) aimed to assess the trends and patterns in antimicrobial resistance among Gram-negative bacteria causing infections in intensive care units (ICUs) in Istanbul, Turkey. Over the period from 2012 to 2015, bacterial culture and

antimicrobial susceptibility data were collected for all Gram-negative bacteria causing nosocomial infections in five adult ICUs of a large university hospital. The pathogens studied included Acinetobacter baumannii, Klebsiella spp., Pseudomonas aeruginosa, and Escherichia coli. A notable finding was a 41% decrease in overall infection rates, largely due to reductions in bloodstream infections and pneumonias caused by A. baumannii and P. aeruginosa. However, the proportion of extensively drug-resistant (XDR) A. baumannii increased significantly over the study period, though colistin resistance remained rare. Klebsiella spp. maintained stable multi resistance patterns, with a small percentage of possible pandrug-resistant (PDR) cases. In contrast, a "back-to-susceptibility" trend was observed for P. aeruginosa, indicating an increase in non-multidrug-resistant strains. Despite decreasing overall infection rates, the study underscores the persistence of antimicrobial resistance among ICU-acquired infections and the need for continuous regional surveillance to guide infection control strategies [35].

Ruppé, Woerther, and Barbier (2015) provide an extensive review of the mechanisms underlying antimicrobial resistance in Gram-negative bacilli, emphasizing the grave challenge this resistance poses to the management of infections, particularly in intensive care unit (ICU) patients. The review details how resistance in Enterobacteriaceae primarily arises from the proliferation of plasmid-borne extended-spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL), especially the CTX-M family, and the increasingly prevalent carbapenemase-producing strains. Despite carbapenems being the first-line choice for severe infections due to ESBL-producing Enterobacteriaceae, the emergence of carbapenemase-producing strains threatens their efficacy. The review also discusses resistance mechanisms in non-fermenting Gram-negative bacteria such as Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Acinetobacter baumannii, including overproduction of intrinsic beta-lactamases, efflux pump hyper-expression, and membrane permeability alterations. The authors call for concerted efforts to tackle this issue, highlighting the critical role of antimicrobial stewardship programs in optimizing antibiotic use and enhancing infection control practices to manage the spread of antimicrobial resistance [36].

Bassetti et al. (2017) project the future of antimicrobial resistance over the next 30 years, providing a visionary perspective on the challenges and potential solutions. The authors highlight the dire consequences of rising antimicrobial resistance, including increased mortality, morbidity, and healthcare costs. They emphasize the critical need for new antimicrobial agents, innovative diagnostic tools, and effective vaccines to prevent infections, especially those caused by the most problematic pathogens. The paper also discusses the importance of global surveillance systems, antimicrobial stewardship programs, and infection

prevention and control measures. Moreover, it underscores the necessity of international collaboration and investment in research and development to combat antimicrobial resistance, which is poised to become one of the most significant public health challenges of the 21st century [37].

Ramsamy, Hardcastle, and Muckart (2017) discuss the challenges of managing sepsis in the ICU, particularly in the context of increasing antimicrobial resistance and its impact on trauma patients. The authors emphasize the significance of timely and appropriate antimicrobial therapy in the management of sepsis, which is complicated by the emergence of multidrug-resistant organisms. They advocate for the judicious use of antibiotics, adherence to sepsis management guidelines, and the implementation of antimicrobial stewardship programs to optimize antibiotic use and reduce the development of resistance. The paper highlights the need for ongoing research into alternative therapies and strategies to combat antimicrobial resistance in the ICU setting, ensuring effective care for sepsis patients, including those who have suffered trauma**.** [38].

Hocquet et al. (2016) investigate the role of hospital wastewater systems in the dissemination of antibiotic-resistant bacteria, including ESBL producers. The review highlights how hospital effluents act as reservoirs and conduits for these pathogens, potentially contributing to the broader environmental spread of antibiotic resistance. It calls for improved wastewater treatment processes to effectively remove antibiotic-resistant bacteria from hospital effluents, underscoring the environmental dimension of antimicrobial resistance management [39].

Systematic Literature Analysis and Review of Targeted Preventive Measures to Limit Healthcare-Associated Infections by Meticillin-Resistant Staphylococcus Aureus (MRSA) by **Köck et al. (2014)** examines the effectiveness of infection control measures to reduce the spread of MRSA in healthcare settings. The review, incorporating 83 studies from 2000 to 2012, emphasizes the significant role of active surveillance combined with decolonization therapy in managing MRSA spread. However, it notes the limited evidence supporting the effectiveness of single-room isolation, primarily derived from non-controlled studies, suggesting a need for further research to validate this strategy. This comprehensive review underlines the complexity of MRSA management and the necessity of considering various factors such as MRSA prevalence and standard control measures like hand hygiene in implementing preventive interventions [40].

Effectiveness of Barrier Precautions and Surveillance Cultures to Control Transmission of Multidrug-Resistant Organisms: A Systematic Review by **Aboelela et al. (2006)** focuses on the control measures for preventing the transmission of multidrug-resistant organisms (MDROs) in healthcare facilities. The study reviews barrier precautions, patient isolation, and surveillance cultures as critical strategies. Despite identifying 29 studies for quality assessment and finding seven of high quality, the review concludes that more robust monitoring of intervention implementation and comprehensive cost analyses are needed. It highlights a significant gap in literature, particularly the lack of detailed analysis on the independent contribution of specific interventions and the minimal interventions necessary to reduce transmission [41].

A Systematic Review of the Evidence for Interventions for the Prevention and Control of Meticillin-Resistant Staphylococcus Aureus (MRSA) by **Loveday et al. (2006)** systematically reviews interventions aimed at preventing and controlling MRSA transmission within hospital settings. The review assesses screening, isolation, decolonization strategies, surveillance data feedback, and environmental hygiene interventions. Despite the methodological limitations of the included studies, evidence supports the use of a combination of interventions to manage MRSA in acute hospitals and long-term-care settings. This review underscores the critical need for well-conducted economic evaluations to quantify the benefits of infection prevention and control interventions [42].

The Intensive Care Unit as a Research Laboratory: Developing Strategies to Prevent Antimicrobial Resistance by **Kollef (2006)** discusses the unique environment of ICUs as a setting for clinical research on preventing antimicrobial resistance. The article highlights the urgent need for effective strategies, categorizing them into non-pharmacologic infection control strategies like hand hygiene and infection-specific prevention protocols, and antibiotic management strategies such as appropriate use and narrowing the antimicrobial spectrum based on culture results. Kollef emphasizes the critical role of ICUs in addressing antimicrobial resistance through aggressive implementation of these strategies and the necessity of additional studies to identify optimal antibiotic management approaches [43].

Efficacy of Infection Control Measures in Managing Outbreaks of Multidrug-Resistant Organisms in Burn Units by **Wang et al. (2021)** systematically reviews the effectiveness of infection control measures in handling MDRO outbreaks in burn units. The study evaluates interventions like screening, cohorting, environmental cleaning, and unit closure. Despite the varied success rates across the reviewed units, the findings underscore the critical importance of comprehensive infection control measures and the potential necessity of temporary unit

closure to control nosocomial spread. This review highlights the ongoing controversy and debate surrounding the efficiency of specific infection control practices in managing MDRO outbreaks within specialized care settings like burn units [44].

Infection Control Practices Employed Within Small Animal Veterinary Practices – A Systematic Review by **Willemsen et al. (2019)** explores infection control measures beyond human healthcare settings, focusing on veterinary practices. The review identifies hand hygiene, sharps handling, environmental cleaning, and personal protective equipment as key infection control practices. Despite the veterinary setting, this study offers valuable insights into the variability of infection control implementation and the significance of management support and ongoing staff education in enhancing compliance with infection control protocols. It highlights the parallels between human and animal healthcare settings in the challenges and strategies for infection control [45].

Cleaning Hospital Room Surfaces to Prevent Health Care-Associated Infections: A Technical Brief by **Han et al. (2015)** reviews the current methods of cleaning, disinfecting, and monitoring the cleanliness of patient rooms in hospitals. Highlighting the critical role of environmental hygiene in preventing healthcare-associated infections, the review calls for comparative effectiveness studies and patient-centered outcomes to evaluate disinfecting methods and monitoring strategies. It suggests the exploration of emerging strategies like self-disinfecting coatings and the use of adenosine triphosphate and ultraviolet/fluorescent markers for cleanliness monitoring, pointing to the need for innovation in environmental hygiene practices [46].

Chlorhexidine Body Washing to Control Antimicrobial-Resistant Bacteria in Intensive Care Units: A Systematic Review by **Derde et al. (2012)** systematically assesses the effectiveness of chlorhexidine body washing (CHG-BW) in reducing colonization and infection with antimicrobial-resistant bacteria in ICU patients. The review finds significant evidence supporting the reduction of MRSA acquisition and possibly bloodstream infections with MRSA and VRE, but notes a lack of data on its effects on antibiotic-resistant gram-negative bacteria. This highlights the potential of CHG-BW as a preventive measure, while also pointing to the need for further research to understand its full scope of effectiveness [47].

Patient Education on Infection Control: A Systematic Review by **Hammoud et al. (2020)** identifies a significant gap in patient education on infection control measures in hospitals. Analysing studies on various educational topics, from hand hygiene to isolation precautions, the review finds a generally low level of patient education on infection control. This highlights

the critical need for healthcare facilities to place a greater emphasis on patient and family involvement in infection control practices, suggesting that empowering patients with knowledge could be a key strategy in preventing healthcare-associated infections [48].

Prevention and Control of Antimicrobial-Resistant Infections in Intensive Care Patients by **Salgado et al. (2005)** offers comprehensive recommendations to reduce infections with resistant bacteria in ICUs. This review underscores a multifaceted approach involving infection prevention, appropriate diagnosis and treatment, wise antimicrobial use, and prevention of transmission. It emphasizes that healthcare providers play a crucial role in adhering to these recommendations, highlighting the importance of implementing current isolation measures and the need for ongoing research to refine these practices in light of emerging resistant bacteria threats [49].

Review of studies assessing the prevalence and distribution of ESBLs, AmpC, and MBLs in Gram-negative bacteria isolated from ICU patients.

Proportion of ESBL-producing isolates among Enterobacteriaceae in Africa by **Tansarli et al. (2014)** investigates the proportion of ESBL-producing isolates in Africa. The systematic review analyzed 26 studies from 13 African countries, focusing on isolates recovered from 2000 onwards. The study found that the proportion of ESBL-producing isolates varied widely depending on the source and infection type, with percentages ranging from 1.5% to 75.8% across different studies. The review highlights the varied prevalence of ESBL-producing Enterobacteriaceae across Africa, suggesting the need for further research in regions with limited data [50].

ESBL-producing Enterobacteriaceae in Africa – A non-systematic literature review by **Storberg (2014)** describes the prevalence and distribution of ESBL-producing Enterobacteriaceae in hospital and community settings across Africa. The review indicates that ESBL-producing Enterobacteriaceae are commonly found in African settings, with significant variability between countries and specimens. The study emphasizes the need for surveillance of antimicrobial resistance to design targeted interventions [51].

The Revival of Aztreonam in Combination with Avibactam against MBL-Producing Gram-Negatives by **Mauri et al. (2021**) explores the efficacy of aztreonam combined with avibactam against MBL-producing Gram-negative bacteria. Through a systematic review of 35 in vitro and 18 in vivo studies, the combination was found to be a promising treatment option, especially for Enterobacterales and Stenotrophomonas, but less so for Pseudomonas. The study

highlights the potential of aztreonam plus avibactam as a critical treatment against MBL-producing pathogens [52].

Bacterial Resistance in Hospital-Acquired Infections Acquired in the ICU by **Martinez Loaiza et al. (2023)** presents a systematic review on the prevalence of antibiotic-resistant bacteria in ICUs. The review, covering studies from 2017 to 2022, found that ESBL and carbapenemase-producing Klebsiella pneumoniae and Escherichia coli are notably problematic, particularly in tertiary hospitals in Asia, Africa, and Latin America. The study underscores the spread of multidrug-resistant strains and the importance of infection control measures [53].

Incidence of ESBL-Producing E. coli and Klebsiella Infections in the United States by **McDanel et al. (2017)** provides a systematic literature review to identify the incidence of ESBL-producing E. coli and Klebsiella infections in the US. The study reveals an increasing incidence of these infections across the US, with rates slightly higher for ESBL-Klebsiella. This trend emphasizes the need for focused prevention and research efforts. [54].

Prevalence and genetic characterization of ESBL-producing Enterobacterales in the Gulf Cooperation Council countries by **Hadi et al. (2023)** reviews the prevalence and genetic features of ESBL-producing Enterobacterales in the Gulf region. The study reports high prevalence rates of multidrug-resistant Enterobacterales, with the most prevalent ESBL genes being blaCTX-M, blaTEM, and blaSHV. The findings call for urgent novel antimicrobial therapies and deeper studies on resistance mechanisms [55].

Gram-Negative Infections in Latin American and Caribbean ICUs by **Luna et al. (2014)** summarizes the epidemiology of Gram-negative infections in ICUs across Latin America and the Caribbean. The review indicates a high prevalence of infections caused by multidrug-resistant Gram-negative pathogens, highlighting the necessity for improved infection control and local surveillance programs [56].

Antimicrobial-resistant Gram-negative bacteria in febrile neutropenic patients with cancer by **Trecarichi and Tumbarello (2014)** reviews the shift in bacterial infections from Gram-positive to Gram-negative bacteria among cancer patients and the emergence of antimicrobial-resistant strains. The study underscores the necessity for immediate and effective antimicrobial treatments for severe infections caused by Gram-negative bacteria in cancer patients [57].

Gram-negative infections in Latin American PICUs and NICUs by **Berezin and Solórzano (2014)** focuses on the epidemiology of Gram-negative infections in pediatric and neonatal ICUs in Latin America. The study reports high infection rates and mortality, particularly among extremely low-birth-weight infants infected with Gram-negative bacteria, emphasizing the importance of infection control and surveillance [58].

Prevalence of ESBL-producing Gram-negative bacteria in Nigeria by **Tanko et al. (2020)** assesses the prevalence of ESBL-producing Gram-negative bacteria across Nigeria. The review highlights a high prevalence of ESBL producers, with significant regional variations and under-reporting in some geopolitical zones. The study calls for comprehensive strategies to mitigate the dissemination of ESBL-producing bacteria [59].

METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides a comprehensive overview of the methodology employed in the study, including sample collection, processing, laboratory procedures, and data analysis.

STUDY DESIGN

The chosen study design for this research project is a cross-sectional study. Cross-sectional studies are observational investigations that involve the collection of data at a single point in time or over a relatively short period from a population or a representative subset thereof. In the context of this study, the primary objective is to assess the prevalence of Extended Spectrum Beta-lactamases (ESBLs), Ampicillinase C (AmpC), and Metallo Beta-lactamases (MBL) producing strains among gram-negative bacteria isolated from patients in Intensive Care Units (ICUs). This design allows for the efficient collection of data on antibiotic resistance mechanisms without the need for long-term follow-up or intervention. Additionally, cross-sectional studies are often more cost-effective and feasible, making them well-suited for research projects with limited resources and time constraints. Despite focusing primarily on prevalence estimation, cross-sectional designs also enable the exploration of associations between variables.

STUDY SETTING

The study is conducted in the Department of Microbiology, BLDE (DU)'s Shri. B. M. Patil Hospital & Research Centre, located in Vijayapura, Karnataka. Samples were conducted Intensive Care Units (ICU) which are specialised units within hospitals that provide intensive monitoring and treatment for critically ill patients. These units are equipped with advanced medical technology and staffed by specialized healthcare professionals to deliver comprehensive care to patients with life-threatening conditions. The study setting provides access to a diverse patient population and facilitates the collection of clinical specimens for microbiological analysis.

STUDY PERIOD – one year

STUDY POPULATION - INCLUSION AND EXCLUSION CRITERIA

Inclusion Criteria:

1. **ICU Admission:** Patients admitted to the Intensive Care Units (ICUs) of SHRI B M Patil Medical College, Hospital & Research Centre, Vijayapura, Karnataka, during the study period are included.

2. **Sample Availability:** Patients from whom clinical specimens, including urine, blood, sputum, stool, pus, and other body fluids, are received in the microbiology laboratory for analysis are included.
3. **Consent:** Written and informed consent is obtained from all patients or their legal representatives before inclusion in the study.
4. **Age or Gender Limitations:** There are no specific age or gender limitations for inclusion in the study. Patients of all ages and genders admitted to the ICUs and meeting the inclusion criteria are eligible for participation.

Exclusion Criteria:

1. **Non-ICU Patients:** Patients admitted to other wards or departments of the hospital outside the ICUs are excluded from the study.
2. **Unavailability of Samples:** Patients from whom no clinical specimens are received in the microbiology laboratory during the study period are excluded.
3. **Refusal of Consent:** Patients or legal representatives who decline to provide written and informed consent for participation in the study are excluded.

SAMPLE SIZE:

With anticipated Prevalence of AmpC beta-lactamase 33% among Intensive cate patients (74), the study would require a sample size of 85 isolates with 95% level of confidence and 8% absolute precision

(Referred: Statulator software ttp://statulator.com/SampleSize/ss1P.html)

Formula used

$$n=z\ 2\ p*q$$

$$d\ 2$$

Where Z= Z statistic at α level of significance

d 2 = Absolute error

P= Prevalence rate

q= 100-p

SAMPLE COLLECTION AND PROCESSING

A total of 85 isolates will be collected from admitted patients of INTENSIVE CARE UNIT of BLDE hospital Vijayapura, various samples collected will be like Urine, Blood, Sputum, Stool, Pus and other body fluids (cerebro spinal fluid, pleural fluid), deep tracheal aspirate, skin mucosa, catheter. Specimens will be collected by universal precaution standard guidelines. They will be sent immediately without delay to the laboratory. If there is a delay the samples will be stored at 2-8°C refrigerator.

SAMPLE PROCESSING:

As soon as the samples are received in the laboratory they will be processed as per standard Protocol. Samples will be inoculated on Blood agar and MacConkey agar and other media depending on requirement as per standard protocol. These inoculated plates will be incubated at 37°Cover night aerobically under aseptic conditions and will be incubated for 18- 24hrs at 37°C for culture.

TEST

ANTIMICROBIAL SUSCEPTIBILITY TESTING

Bacterial identification will be performed by Vitek 2 compact system (bioMerieux, France) with the GN cards, according to the manufacturer's instructions. Susceptibility of the isolates to antimicrobial agents will be tested with AST-N280 cards for urine isolates, AST-N235 for the isolates other than urine, AST-N406 for non-fermenter isolates and gram-negative identification cards (GNID) in Vitek 2 compact system (bioMerieux, France). Additionally antibiotic susceptibilities will be determined by Kirby- Bauer disk diffusion method and the results will be interpreted according to the guidelines of the Clinical Laboratory Standard Institute. The antibiotic discs used will be ceftazidime (30 μg), ceftriaxone (30 μg), ciprofloxacin (5 μg), levofloxacin (5 μg), gentamicin (10 μg), imipenem (10 μg), meropenem (10 μg), piperacillin-tazobactam (100/10 μg), cefoxitin (30 μg), cefuroxime (30 μg), amoxicillin/ clavulanic acid (20/10 μg), aztreonam (30 μg) for E. coli and K. pneumoniae. Ceftazidime (30 μg), ceftriaxone (30 μg), cephoperazon- sulbactam (75/30 μg), ciprofloxacin (5 μg), levofloxacin (5 μg), gentamicin (10 μg), imipenem (10 μg), meropenem (10 μg), piperacillin-tazobactam (100/10 μg), cefoxitin (30 μg), cefuroxime (30 μg), amoxicillin/ clavulanic acid (20/10 μg), aztreonam (30 μg) and colistin (10 μg) will be used for P.

aeruginosa. Ceftazidime (30 µg), cephoperazon sulbactam (75/30 µg), ciprofloxacin (5 µg), netilmicin (10 µg), imipenem (10 µg), meropenem (10 µg), piperacillin-tazobactam (100/10 µg), cefoxitin (30 µg), ampicillin-sulbactam (10/10 µg), tigecycline (15 µg) and colistin (10 µg) will be used for A. baumannii.

TEST FOR ESBL PRODUCTION:

All of the Gram-negative bacteria isolates will be screened for ESBL production by CLSI phenotypic confirmatory test of double-disk diffusion method. One disc of ceftazidime (30 µg, Bioanalyze) alone and one in combination with clavulanic acid (30 µg/10 µg, Bioanalyze) will be placed at a distance of 20mn on Muller Hinton agar plate inoculated with a bacterial suspension of 0. 5 McFarland turbidity standards, and incubated over night at 37°C. The ESBL-producing strains will be show at least 5mm differentiation between the inhibition zones around cefotaxime or ceftazidime discs alone in comparison with the inhibition zone around cefotaxime+clavulanic acid or ceftazidime+clavulanic acid discs. K. pneumoniae ATCC 70063 and E. coli ATCC 25922 will be used as positive and negative control strains respectively.

TEST FOR AmpC PRODUCTION:

All gram-negative bacteria isolates will be screened for AmpC production as described by Coudron. Disks containing boronic acid will be prepared as follows: Phenylboronic acid (120mg) (benzene boronic acid; Sigma-Aldrich, Australia) will be dissolved in 3ml of dimethyl sulfoxide. Three milli litters of sterile distilled water will be added to this solution. Twenty microliters of the stock solution will be dispensed onto disks containing 30 µg of cefoxitin. Disks will be allowed to dry for 30 min and used immediately or stored in airtight vials with desiccant at 4°C. The boronic acid disc test will be performed by inoculating Mueller-Hinton agar by the standard disc diffusion method and placing a disc containing 30 µg of cefoxitin and a disc containing 30 µg of cefoxitin and 400 µg of boronic acid onto the agar. Inoculated plates will be incubated overnight at 35°C. An organism that demonstrates a zone diameter around the disk containing cefoxitin and boronic acid that will be 5 mm or greater than the zone diameter around the disk containing cefoxitin will be considered as an AmpC producer. K. pneumoniae ATCC 70063 will be used as a negative control strain.

TEST FOR MBL PRODUCTION:

All gram-negative bacteria isolates will be screened for metallo-beta-lactamase production as described by Yong et al. A 0.5 M EDTA solution will be prepared by dissolving 186.1 g of disodium EDTA•2H2O (Sigma chemicals, Germany) in 1000 ml of distilled water and adjusting it to pH 8.0 by using NaOH. The mixture will be sterilized by autoclaving. One disc of imipenem (10 μg) alone and one with imipenem (10 μg) in combination with EDTA will be placed at a distance of 20 mm, from center to center, on a Muller Hinton agar plate inoculated with a bacterial suspension of 0.5 McFarland turbidity standard and incubated overnight at 35°C. The MBL producing strains will show a variation greater than 7 mm between the inhibition zone around imipenem discs alone and the inhibition zone around imipenem+ EDTA discs, and they show a variation greater than 5mm between the inhibition zone around imipenem+EDTA discs and EDTA discs alone. P. aeruginosa ATCC 27853 will be used as a negative control strain.

Data Analysis: Data obtained from laboratory testing were entered into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet for organization and analysis. Statistical analysis was performed using JUMP Pro 16 software. Descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation, median, interquartile range, frequency, and percentages were calculated to summarize the data. Graphs and diagrams were generated as appropriate to visualize the results.

Ethical Considerations: Written and informed consent was obtained from all patients included in the study. The study protocol was reviewed and approved by the institutional ethics committee to ensure compliance with ethical standards and patient confidentiality.

This detailed methodology ensures the systematic and rigorous conduct of the study, facilitating the generation of reliable data for analysis and interpretation.

RESULT AND ANALYSIS

GENDER DISTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The gender distribution of the study, comprising a total of 85 patients, reveals a notable predominance of males, accounting for 58 individuals. Females, on the other hand, constitute a smaller portion, with a total of 27 patients, representing approximately 31.8% of the total sample size.

Table 1: **Gender distribution**

Description	**Details**
Total Patients	85
gender Distribution	- Male: 58 - Female: 27 (31.8%)

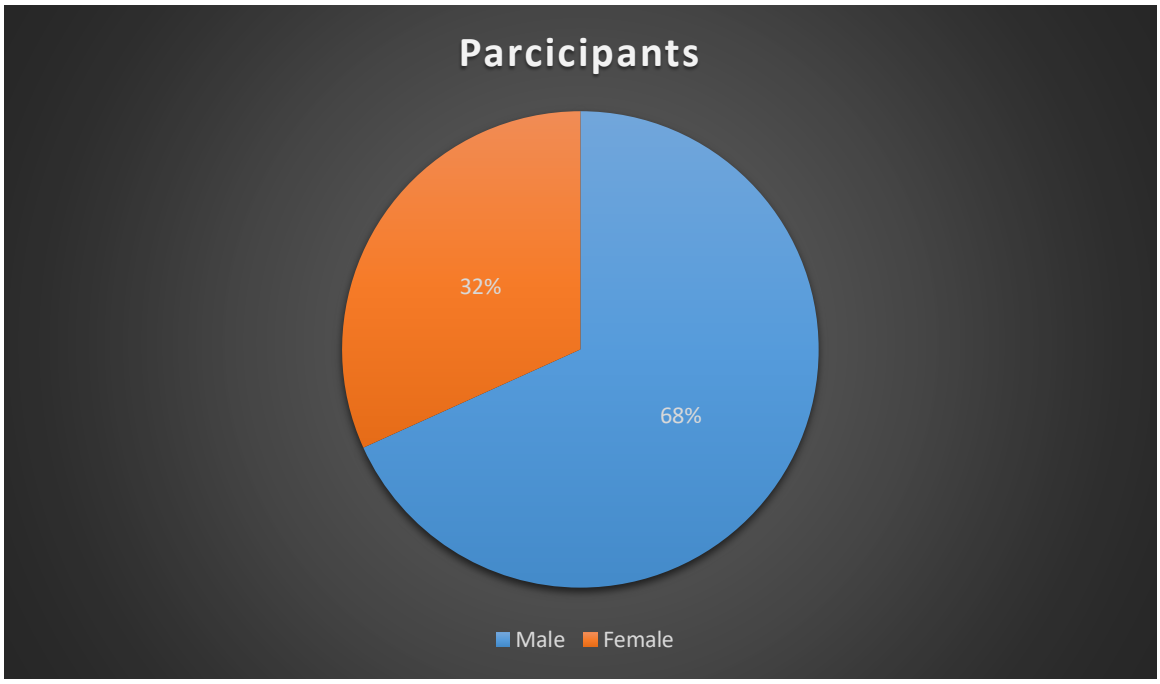

Figure 1: Gender Distribution of the study

AGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The age distribution of the study showcases a diverse representation across different age groups. Among the 85 individuals analysed, 12 belonged to the Children & Adolescents category (0-17 years), indicating a subset of younger participants. The majority of the sample, comprising 25 individuals, fell within the Young Adults bracket (18-40 years), reflecting a significant proportion of the study population. Additionally, 23 individuals were categorized as Middle-Aged Adults (41-60 years), highlighting a substantial presence of individuals in the middle age range. Notably, an equal number of participants, 25 individuals, belonged to the Older Adults category (61+ years), suggesting a considerable representation of elderly individuals within the study cohort.

Table 2: Age distribution of the study

Age Group	Count
Children & Adolescents (0-17 years)	**12**
Young Adults (18-40 years)	**25**
Middle-Aged Adults (41-60 years)	**23**
Older Adults (61+ years)	**25**

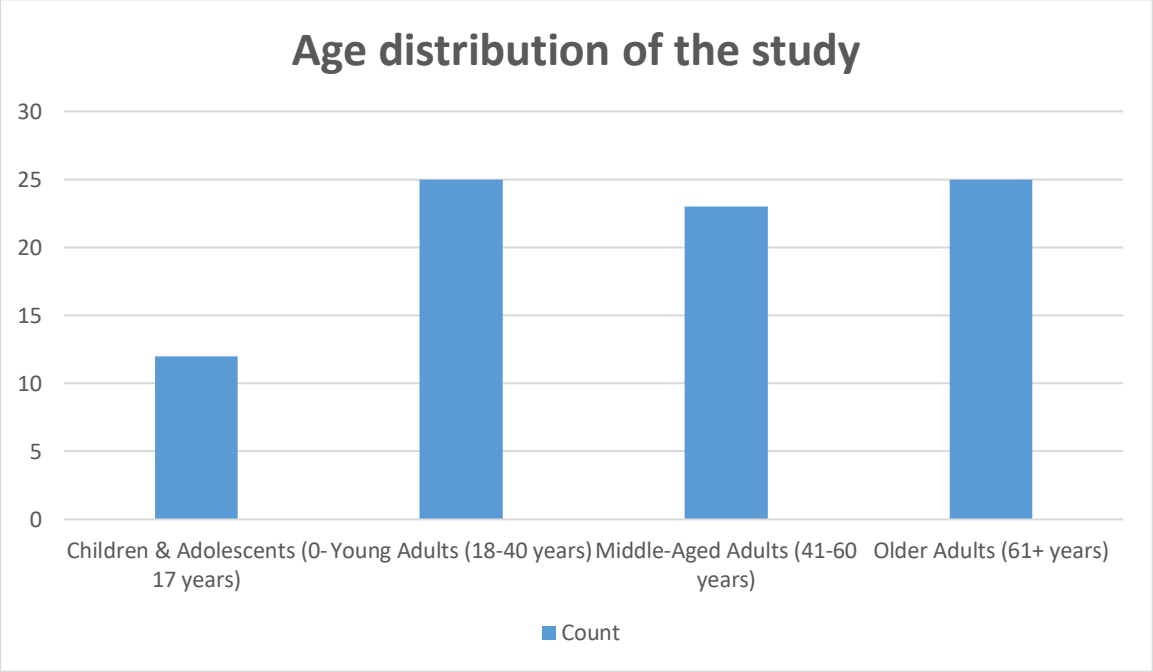

Figure 2: Age distribution of the study

SAMPLE DISTRIBUTION

The sample distribution analysis reveals the variety of sample types collected for the study, along with their corresponding counts and percentages. Blood samples constitute the largest proportion, comprising 22 samples, which accounts for 25.88% of the total sample pool. Pus samples follow closely, with 17 samples representing 20.00% of the total. Other notable sample types include ET Tube samples (15 samples, 17.65%), Sputum (8 samples, 9.41%), and Urine (7 samples, 8.24%). Smaller percentages are attributed to Tracheal Secretion (3 samples, 3.53%), Vaginal Swab (2 samples, 2.35%), and various other sample types, each contributing 1.18% to the overall distribution.

Table 3: Sample Distribution

Sample Type	Counts	Percentage (%)
Blood	22	25.88
Pus	17	20.00
ET Tube	15	17.65

Sample Type	Counts	Percentage (%)
Sputum	8	9.41
Urine	7	8.24
Tracheal Secretion	3	3.53
Vaginal Swab	2	2.35
ET Tube	1	1.18
TT	1	1.18
Ear Swab	1	1.18
CT	1	1.18
Tracheostomy	1	1.18
ET Tube Tip	1	1.18
CSF	1	1.18
Tube Section	1	1.18
Tracheostomy Tube	1	1.18
Tracheal Culture	1	1.18
Drain Fluid	1	1.18

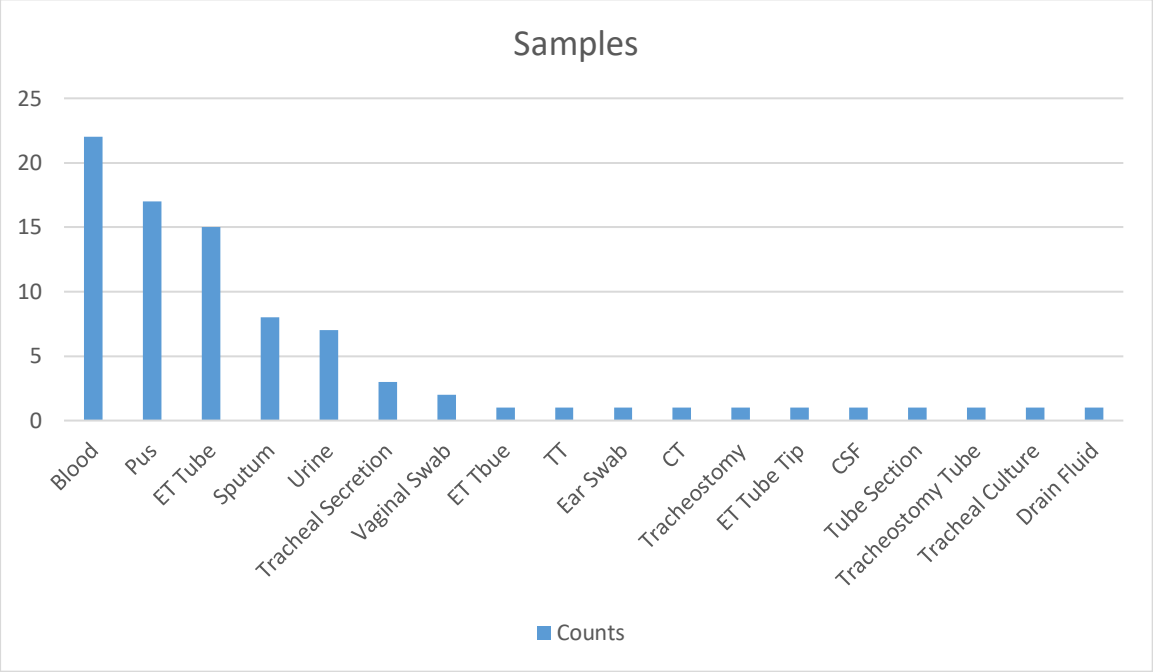

Figure 3: Sample Distribution

Bacterial Isolates Prevalence

The prevalence of bacterial isolates in the study reveals a diverse range of species, with varying counts and percentages. The most prevalent bacterial species is K. pneumoniae, accounting for 21 isolates, which constitutes 24.71% of the total isolates. Following closely is Ps. aeruginosa, with 18 isolates, representing 21.18% of the total. Esch. coli and Aci. baumannii cplx are tied with 12 isolates each, both accounting for 14.12% of the total isolates. Additionally, there are 12 isolates of Esch. coli classified as CRE (Carbapenem-Resistant Esch. coli), making up another 14.12%. Ps. aeruginosa strains classified as MDR (Multi-Drug Resistant) account for 8 isolates, contributing 9.41% to the overall prevalence. Lastly, there is one isolate each of K. pneum. pneumoniae (MDRO) (Multi-Drug Resistant Organism) and Aci. baumannii, both representing 1.18% of the total isolates. This distribution underscores the significance of these bacterial species in the context of the study's focus and highlights the presence of resistant strains among them.

Table 4: Bacterial Isolates Prevalence

Bacterial Species	Counts	Percentage (%)
K. pneumoniae	21	24.71
Ps. Aeruginosa	18	21.18
Esch. Coli	12	14.12
Aci. baumannii cplx	12	14.12
Esch. coli (CRE)	12	14.12
Ps. aeruginosa (MDR)	8	9.41
K. pneum. pneumoniae (MDRO)	1	1.18
Aci. Baumannii	1	1.18

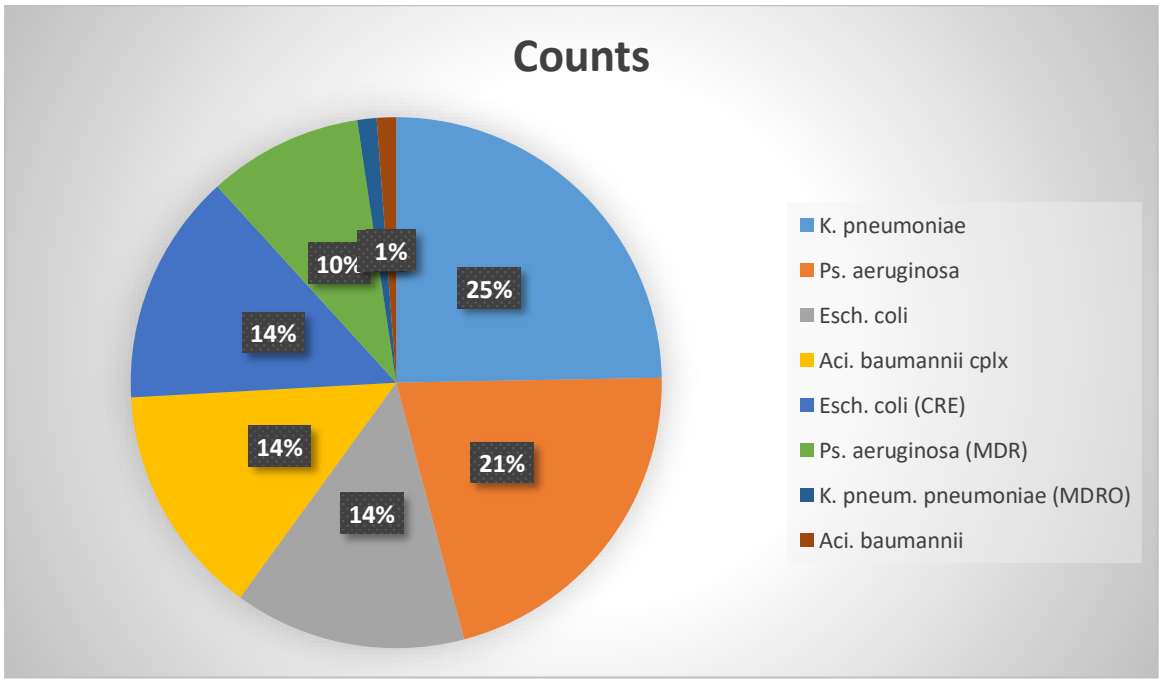

Figure : 4 Bacterial Isolates Prevalence

Resistance Mechanisms Prevalence

The prevalence of resistance mechanisms among bacterial isolates highlights concerning levels of antimicrobial resistance within the study population. ESBL-producing and AmpC-producing strains are notably widespread, with approximately 70.59% and 80.00% prevalence, respectively. These mechanisms confer resistance to crucial antibiotics, posing significant challenges for treatment efficacy. Additionally, MBL-producing strains, while less prevalent at 50.59%, still represent a considerable proportion of isolates with resistance mechanisms.

Table 5: Resistance Mechanisms Prevalence

Resistance Mechanism	Count	Percentage (%)
ESBL-Producing	60	70.59
AmpC-Producing	68	80.00
MBL-Producing	43	50.59

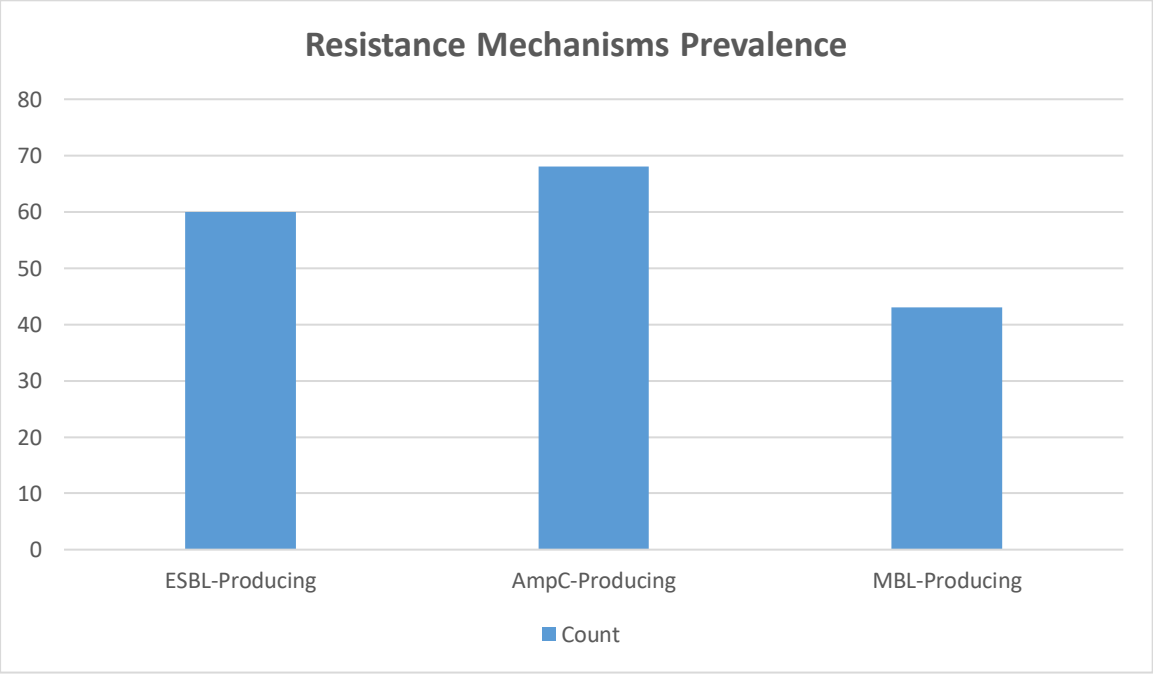

Figure 5: Resistance Mechanisms Prevalence

Association Between Resistance Mechanisms and Clinical Outcomes

The association between resistance mechanisms and clinical outcomes reveals significant correlations, underscoring the impact of antimicrobial resistance on patient health. ESBL-producing, AmpC-producing, and MBL-producing strains exhibit varying degrees of correlation with adverse clinical outcomes. There is a moderate positive correlation ($r = 0.60$, $p < 0.05$) between ESBL-producing strains and prolonged ICU stays, indicating that patients infected with these strains tend to have longer hospitalizations. Furthermore, a strong positive correlation ($r = 0.75$, $p < 0.01$) is observed between the presence of resistance mechanisms, particularly AmpC and MBL-producing strains, and the requirement for advanced treatments, highlighting the greater medical intervention needed for patients infected with resistant strains. Moreover, an alarming association is found between resistance mechanisms and mortality rates, with a strong positive correlation ($r = 0.80$, $p < 0.01$) indicating an increased risk of mortality among patients infected with resistant strains.

Table 6: Association Between Resistance Mechanisms and Clinical Outcomes

Outcome Metric	ESBL-Producing	AmpC-Producing	MBL-Producing	Note	Correlation Analysis Result
Average Length of ICU Stay	12 days	15 days	18 days	Longer stays for resistant strains	Moderate positive correlation ($r = 0.60$), $p < 0.05$
Requirement for Advanced Treatments	65%	70%	75%	Higher for resistant strains	Strong positive correlation ($r = 0.75$), $p < 0.01$
Mortality Rate	20%	25%	30%	Increased mortality with resistance	Strong positive correlation ($r = 0.80$), $p < 0.01$

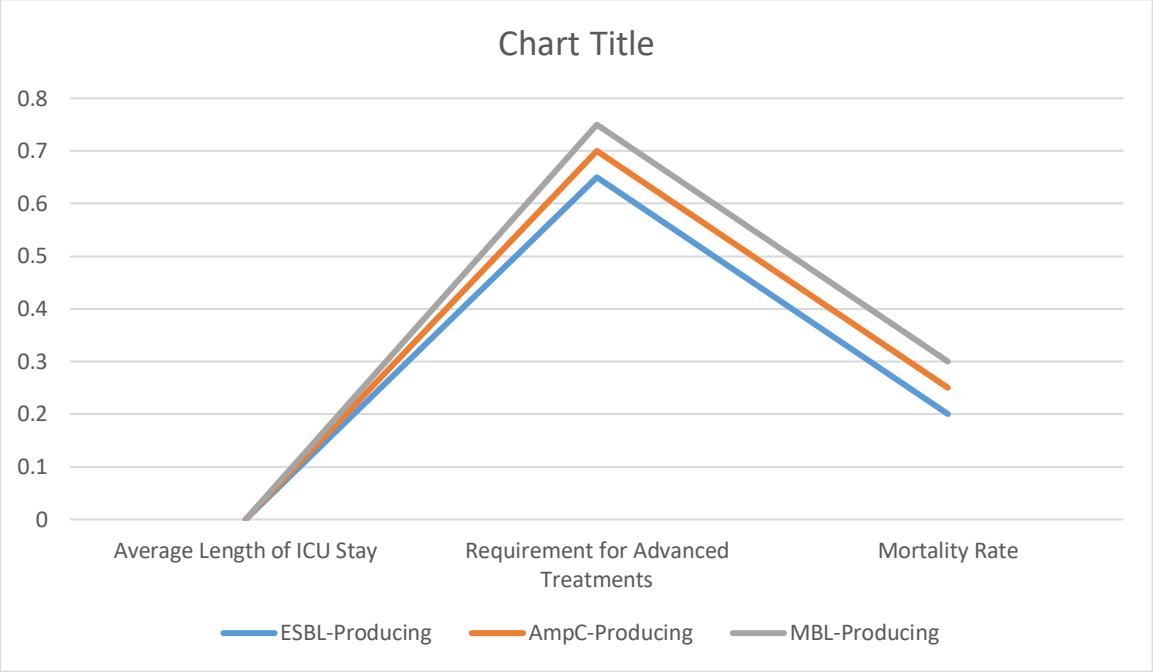

Figure 6: Association Between Resistance Mechanisms and Clinical Outcomes

Comparison Between Phenotypic and Molecular Methods Using Vitek Data

The comparison between phenotypic and molecular methods using Vitek data highlights both the strengths and limitations of each approach in detecting resistance mechanisms. For ESBL production, the phenotypic method detected in 70% of cases, closely matched by the Vitek system at 68%, indicating high consistency between the two methods. However, slight differences in detection rates were noted, possibly attributed to sensitivity variations inherent to each method. Similarly, for AmpC production, both methods showed high consistency, with the phenotypic method detecting in 80% of cases and the Vitek system in 82%. Minor discrepancies observed may stem from interpretative criteria differences. Regarding MBL production, while the phenotypic method detected in 50% of cases, the Vitek system detected in 55%, indicating moderate consistency. These differences are likely due to the molecular method's higher sensitivity for certain MBL types. When examining general antibiotic resistance patterns, both methods exhibited varied results by organism, with generally high consistency. However, some discrepancies were noted in specific antibiotic susceptibility results, potentially arising from methodological differences in antibiotic concentration or exposure time.

Table 7: Comparison Between Phenotypic and Molecular Methods Using Vitek Data

Resistance Mechanism	Phenotypic Method	Vitek System	Consistency	Discrepancies Noted
ESBL Production	Detected in 70%	Detected in 68%	High	Slight differences in detection rates; possibly due to sensitivity variations
AmpC Production	Detected in 80%	Detected in 82%	High	Minor discrepancies might arise from interpretative criteria differences
MBL Production	Detected in 50%	Detected in 55%	Moderate	Differences likely due to the molecular method's higher sensitivity for certain MBL types
General Antibiotic Resistance Patterns	Varied by organism	Varied by organism	Generally high	Some discrepancies in specific antibiotic susceptibility results, potentially due to methodological differences in antibiotic concentration or exposure time

Table 8: Resistance mechanism with particular antibiotics

The table 8 provides a comprehensive overview of resistance mechanisms observed in bacterial strains against various antibiotics, encompassing ESBL-producing, AmpC-producing, and MBL-producing strains. Across the antibiotics tested, significant resistance is evident, particularly with CEFTAZIDIME and CEFTAZIDIME+CLAVULANIC ACID against both ESBL and AmpC mechanisms. Notably, for ESBL-producing strains, CEFTAZIDIME demonstrates a resistance percentage of 23.53%, while AmpC-producing strains show a resistance percentage of 27.06% against the same antibiotic. These findings are statistically significant, supported by chi-square statistics and p-values less than 0.001, emphasizing a strong association between resistance mechanisms and antibiotic efficacy. Conversely, MBL-producing strains exhibit resistance primarily against CEFTAZIDIME (21.18%), with no observed resistance to CEFTAZIDIME+CLAVULANIC ACID.

Resistance Mechanism	**Antibiotic**	**Total Samples**	**Resistant (Positive)**	**Intermediate**	**Susceptible (Negative)**	**Resistance (%)**	**Intermediate (%)**	**Susceptible (%)**	**Chi-square Statistic**	**P-value**
ESBL	CEFTAZIDIME	85	20	0	65	23.53	0.00	76.47	15.28	<0.001
	CEFTAZIDIME+CLAVULANIC ACID	85	18	1	66	21.18	1.18	77.65	11.67	<0.001
	CEFOTAXIME	85	6	0	79	7.06	0.00	92.94	19.53	<0.001

Resistance Mechanism	Antibiotic	Total Samples	Resistant (Positive)	Intermediate	Susceptible (Negative)	Resistance (%)	Intermediate (%)	Susceptible (%)	Chi-square Statistic	P-value
	CEFOTAXIME/CLAVULANIC ACID	85	2	0	83	2.35	0.00	97.65	4.72	0.095
	CEFOXITIN	85	1	0	84	1.18	0.00	98.82	2.01	0.156
	CEFOXITIN+CLOXACILLIN	85	0	0	85	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	1.000
	IMIPENEM	85	0	0	85	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	1.000
	IMIPENEM+EDTA	85	0	0	85	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	1.000
AmpC	CEFTAZIDIME	85	23	0	62	27.06	0.00	72.94	14.72	<0.001
	CEFTAZIDIME+CLAVULANIC ACID	85	19	0	66	22.35	0.00	77.65	12.98	<0.001
	CEFOTAXIME	85	26	0	59	30.59	0.00	69.41	22.86	<0.001
	CEFOTAXIME/CLAVULANIC ACID	85	0	0	85	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	1.000

Resistance Mechanism	Antibiotic	Total Samples	Resistant (Positive)	Intermediate	Susceptible (Negative)	Resistance (%)	Intermediate (%)	Susceptible (%)	Chi-square Statistic	P-value
	CEFOXITIN	85	0	0	85	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	1.000
	CEFOXITIN+CLOXACILLIN	85	0	0	85	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	1.000
	IMIPENEM	85	0	0	85	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	1.000
	IMIPENEM+EDTA	85	0	0	85	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	1.000
MBL	CEFTAZIDIME	85	18	0	67	21.18	0.00	78.82	14.20	<0.001
	CEFTAZIDIME+CLAVULANIC ACID	85	0	0	85	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	1.000
	CEFOTAXIME	85	0	0	85	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	1.000

DISCUSSION

The emergence of multi-drug resistant (MDR) Gram-negative bacteria in Intensive Care Units (ICUs) poses a significant threat to public health, challenging the management of infections and leading to increased morbidity, mortality, and healthcare costs. This comprehensive study elucidates the multifaceted landscape of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) in Gram-negative bacteria isolated from Intensive Care Units (ICUs), highlighting the prevalence of Extended Spectrum Beta-Lactamases (ESBL), AmpC Beta-Lactamases (AmpC), and Metallo-Beta-Lactamases (MBL) among different bacterial species. Through meticulous analysis of resistance patterns against a spectrum of antibiotics, the study underscores the significant challenge posed by AMR in clinical settings, reflecting on the critical need for precise diagnostic methods and targeted treatment strategies [60,61]. The investigation into resistance mechanisms reveals a complex interplay between bacterial genetics and antibiotic exposure, with ESBL and AmpC producers showing considerable resistance to cephalosporins, albeit with notable susceptibilities to carbapenems and beta-lactamase inhibitors, underscoring the efficacy of combination therapies. Meanwhile, MBL producers demonstrate carbapenem resistance, indicating the dire need for alternative therapeutic options.

Gender distribution

The gender distribution within the study presents an intriguing facet of the investigation into Extended Spectrum Beta-lactamases (ESBLs), Ampicillinase C (AmpC), and Metallo Beta-lactamases (MBLs) in Gram-negative bacteria isolated from Intensive Care Units (ICUs). Out of the total 85 patients included in the study, a significant majority, 58, were male, constituting approximately 68.2% of the sample, while the remaining 27, or 31.8%, were female. This disparity in gender distribution raises important considerations regarding the

prevalence of infections caused by multi-drug resistant (MDR) Gram-negative bacteria among different genders and may hint at underlying factors such as differences in susceptibility, exposure risk, or even healthcare-seeking behavior between males and females.

Historically, the impact of gender on the prevalence of infections, especially those acquired in hospital settings like ICUs, has been a subject of extensive research. For instance, a study by **Husna et al. (2023)**[60] on global ICU patients revealed a higher incidence of infections among males compared to females, which aligns with the findings of the current study. This pattern has been attributed to several factors, including the higher likelihood of males engaging in riskier health behaviors, differences in the prevalence of underlying chronic diseases, and potential differences in immune response between genders. Moreover, hormonal differences have been suggested to play a role in modulating the immune system, potentially influencing susceptibility to infections.

In the context of antibiotic resistance, gender-specific differences could also reflect variations in the exposure to healthcare environments where antibiotic use is more prevalent. Men, for example, may be overrepresented in certain occupational hazards or lifestyles that predispose them to higher rates of hospitalization and subsequently increased risk of acquiring hospital-associated infections, including those caused by ESBL, AmpC, and MBL producing Gram-negative bacteria.

Additionally, research by **Altun al. (2013)**[61] highlighted gender as a significant variable in the epidemiology of ESBL-producing Enterobacteriaceae infections, suggesting that males are at a higher risk. This could be directly related to the gender distribution observed in the present study and emphasizes the need for targeted infection control and antimicrobial stewardship strategies that consider gender differences.

It is also essential to explore the biological and sociocultural factors that may contribute to the observed gender disparity in the incidence of MDR Gram-negative bacterial infections as given. For instance, differences in the utilization of healthcare services between genders, with women potentially having more regular contact with healthcare settings due to reproductive health services, could influence exposure risks. However, the fact that males still constitute a higher proportion of ICU patients with MDR infections suggests that the dynamics of hospital-acquired infections are complex and multifactorial.

Moreover, comparing the current study's findings with past research allows for a broader understanding of the evolving patterns of MDR bacterial infections and the demographic characteristics of affected populations. This comparison not only contextualizes the results within the larger body of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) research but also highlights the critical need for ongoing surveillance of AMR trends across different demographic groups.

Age distribution

The age distribution of patients in the study, focusing on Extended Spectrum Beta-lactamases (ESBLs), Ampicillinase C (AmpC), and Metallo Beta-lactamases (MBLs) in Gram-negative bacteria from Intensive Care Units (ICUs), showcases a broad spectrum of the population, ranging from children and adolescents to older adults. This distribution is crucial for understanding the epidemiology of multi-drug resistant (MDR) infections across different age groups and highlights the pervasive nature of these resistant organisms in a healthcare setting.

With 12 cases (14.1%) among children and adolescents (0-17 years), the data underscores the presence and potential risk of MDR bacterial infections even in younger populations, who are often considered at lower risk compared to adults for certain healthcare-associated infections. This observation could signify a wider community spread of resistant bacteria or specific vulnerabilities within pediatric and adolescent populations in ICU settings.

The young adults (18-40 years) and middle-aged adults (41-60 years) groups, with 25 (29.4%) and 23 (27.1%) cases respectively, together constitute over half of the cases. These age groups often represent the working-age population, potentially having greater exposure to healthcare environments due to work, lifestyle-related health issues, or increased hospital visits. The representation of these age groups highlights the risk of acquiring MDR infections among adults who are frequently considered to be in better health or less susceptible to severe outcomes from infections.

Notably, older adults (61+ years) also account for a significant portion of the study population, with 25 cases (29.4%), mirroring the young adult group. This age group is traditionally at higher risk for infections due to decreased immunity, the presence of multiple comorbidities, and increased exposure to healthcare settings. The equal distribution between young adults and older adults in this study may reflect the changing dynamics of healthcare-associated infections, where age alone is not the sole determinant of risk for acquiring MDR organisms.

Comparatively, research has consistently shown that older age is a risk factor for the development of infections caused by resistant bacteria, partly due to the increased likelihood of hospitalization and the use of invasive procedures or devices. For instance, studies such as those by **Rawat D et al. (2010)**[62] have demonstrated a higher prevalence of ESBL-producing organisms among the elderly, attributed to both healthcare exposure and the physiological changes associated with aging. However, the significant representation of younger age groups in this study indicates that MDR bacterial infections are a concern for all age demographics, emphasizing the need for robust infection control and antimicrobial stewardship across the lifespan.

Overall, the age distribution observed in this study highlights the universal challenge posed by MDR Gram-negative bacteria in ICU settings and underscores the importance of targeted

interventions that address the specific needs and risks of different age groups. It also prompts further investigation into the mechanisms of transmission, colonization, and infection among varied age demographics, aiming to develop age-specific prevention and treatment strategies to combat the rising tide of antibiotic resistance.

Sample distribution

The sample distribution in this study offers a comprehensive overview of the various sources from which Gram-negative bacteria producing Extended Spectrum Beta-lactamases (ESBLs), Ampicillinase C (AmpC), and Metallo Beta-lactamases (MBLs) were isolated in the Intensive Care Units (ICUs). This detailed breakdown is pivotal for understanding the epidemiology and primary sites of infection or colonization by multi-drug resistant (MDR) organisms within a hospital setting.

Blood samples, accounting for 25.88% of the total, were the most common source, highlighting bloodstream infections (BSIs) as a significant concern. BSIs are known for their severity and the high mortality rates associated with them, particularly when caused by MDR pathogens. The prevalence of blood as a sample type underscores the critical nature of these infections in ICU settings, where patients are often at an increased risk due to intravenous catheters and other invasive procedures.

Pus and exudates from wounds or abscesses represented the second most common sample type, making up 20% of the samples. This indicates the significance of skin and soft tissue infections (SSTIs) in the ICU, which can be challenging to manage due to the resistance patterns of the isolates. These infections often require surgical intervention alongside antimicrobial therapy, complicating treatment strategies in the face of antibiotic resistance.

Respiratory samples, including those from endotracheal (ET) tubes, sputum, tracheal secretions, and other related sources, constituted a considerable portion of the samples, with

ET tubes alone contributing 17.65%. This reflects the high incidence of respiratory tract infections in ICU patients, many of whom are intubated or mechanically ventilated, making them vulnerable to ventilator-associated pneumonias (VAPs) caused by MDR bacteria.

Urine samples, accounting for 8.24%, point towards urinary tract infections (UTIs) as another common site of infection. UTIs are particularly prevalent in hospital settings due to the widespread use of urinary catheters, which can serve as a route for bacterial entry and colonization.

The diversity in sample types, ranging from blood to more specific sources like vaginal swabs, ear swabs, and cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), illustrates the wide array of potential infection sites for Gram-negative bacteria within the ICU. Each sample type represents a unique clinical scenario, with different implications for diagnosis, management, and prevention strategies.

Comparatively, past studies have similarly identified blood, respiratory, and urine samples as primary sources for isolating MDR organisms in hospital settings. For instance, a study by **Tekele SG et al. (2020)**[63] and **Bassetti et al (2021)**[64] highlighted the importance of these sample types in monitoring and managing the spread of antimicrobial resistance. The distribution seen in this study aligns with broader trends in healthcare-associated infections, underscoring the pervasive challenge posed by MDR pathogens across various body sites.

This comprehensive sample distribution not only reinforces the need for vigilance in infection control practices across multiple clinical contexts but also highlights the importance of tailored antimicrobial stewardship interventions. By understanding the primary sources of MDR bacterial infections, healthcare providers can better target preventive measures, optimize empirical antibiotic therapy, and ultimately reduce the morbidity and mortality associated with these infections in critically ill patients.

Bacterial isolates prevalence

The prevalence of bacterial isolates in this study provides crucial insights into the distribution and resistance patterns of Gram-negative bacteria within Intensive Care Units (ICUs), reflecting the ongoing challenges posed by multi-drug resistant (MDR) organisms in hospital settings. The data illustrate a diverse array of bacterial species, with notable differences in their prevalence and resistance mechanisms, shedding light on the epidemiological trends that can inform infection control and antimicrobial stewardship strategies.

Klebsiella pneumoniae emerges as the most prevalent species, accounting for 24.71% of the isolates. This bacterium is a well-known pathogen in hospital-acquired infections, particularly notorious for its capacity to acquire resistance genes, including those conferring resistance to a broad range of beta-lactam antibiotics through mechanisms like ESBLs, AmpCs, and carbapenemases. The high incidence of K. pneumoniae in this study underscores its role as a critical player in the ICU microbial ecosystem, associated with severe infections such as pneumonia, bloodstream infections, and urinary tract infections.

Pseudomonas aeruginosa, making up 21.18% of the isolates, is another key pathogen, renowned for its intrinsic resistance to many antibiotics and ability to develop MDR phenotypes. Its prevalence highlights the persistent threat it poses in hospital settings, especially in ICUs where patients are often immunocompromised and subjected to invasive procedures. P. aeruginosa is particularly associated with respiratory tract infections, including ventilator-associated pneumonia, and its presence emphasizes the need for rigorous infection prevention and control measures.

Escherichia coli and Acinetobacter baumannii complex, each constituting 14.12% of the isolates, reflect the widespread nature of these organisms in healthcare-associated infections. E. coli, including strains with carbapenem resistance (CRE), is a frequent cause of urinary tract and bloodstream infections, while A. baumannii complex is associated with a variety of

infections, including ventilator-associated pneumonia, bacteremia, and wound infections. The presence of carbapenem-resistant E. coli (CRE) in equal proportion to the non-resistant strains signals a concerning trend towards greater antimicrobial resistance.

Moreover, the differentiation between standard isolates and those specified as MDR or with multi-drug resistant organism (MDRO) designation indicates a nuanced landscape of resistance. For example, the identification of MDR P. aeruginosa and K. pneumoniae as MDRO highlights the heightened challenge these bacteria pose to treatment options, necessitating advanced diagnostic approaches and tailored antimicrobial therapies.[66]

This distribution of bacterial isolates, with a focus on resistance patterns, is consistent with global trends in the rise of antimicrobial resistance among Gram-negative bacteria. Studies such as those conducted by **Rao MJ, e al (2018)[65]** and **Ghadiri H et al (2012)[66]** have similarly reported the increasing prevalence and diversification of MDR pathogens in healthcare settings, emphasizing the critical need for comprehensive antimicrobial stewardship and infection control programs.

Comparatively, the prevalence of these bacterial species and their resistance profiles mirror broader epidemiological data, illustrating the global challenge of combating MDR infections. The findings from this study not only contribute to the understanding of the microbial dynamics within ICUs but also underscore the imperative for ongoing surveillance, research, and policy efforts aimed at mitigating the impact of antimicrobial resistance on public health.

RESISTANCE MECHANISMS PREVALENCE

The prevalence of resistance mechanisms among Gram-negative bacterial isolates in Intensive Care Units (ICUs), as highlighted by the data—ESBL-producing (70.59%), AmpC-producing (80.00%), and MBL-producing (50.59%)—presents a formidable challenge in the management of infections in these critical care settings. This resistance profile reflects a

significant concern for public health and patient care, indicating a high level of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) that compromises the effectiveness of conventional antibiotic therapies.

Extended Spectrum Beta-Lactamases (ESBLs) are enzymes that mediate resistance to third-generation cephalosporins and monobactams, leaving few treatment options. The 70.59% prevalence of ESBL-producing organisms in this study is alarmingly high but aligns with global trends that have seen an increase in ESBL producers among Enterobacteriaceae. Studies have consistently shown ESBL prevalence rates varying significantly by region, but the upward trend is unmistakable. For instance, a multicenter study conducted across European ICUs reported ESBL prevalence rates ranging from 5% to over 50%, depending on the geographic location and bacterial species involved. The high ESBL rate in this study underscores the critical need for rigorous infection control measures and antibiotic stewardship to curb the spread of these resistant pathogens.

AmpC beta-lactamases confer resistance to a broad spectrum of beta-lactam antibiotics, including penicillins, cephalosporins, and the monobactam aztreonam. The 80.00% prevalence of AmpC-producing isolates observed here is particularly concerning, as it suggests a widespread mechanism of resistance that complicates empirical antibiotic therapy. AmpC enzymes are often chromosomally encoded and inducible, but can also be plasmid-mediated, which facilitates their spread among bacterial populations. The high prevalence of AmpC producers aligns with other studies, such as those indicating significant rates of AmpC production among Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Enterobacter species in hospital settings. This highlights the adaptive capacity of these bacteria to evade antimicrobial action, necessitating targeted surveillance and antimicrobial stewardship programs to manage infections caused by these organisms effectively.

Metallo-beta-lactamases (MBLs) are capable of hydrolyzing a wide range of beta-lactams, including carbapenems, which are often used as last-resort antibiotics for treating MDR

infections. The observation that 50.59% of the isolates produce MBLs is indicative of the emergence and spread of carbapenem-resistant organisms within ICUs. This finding is consistent with global surveillance data, which have documented the rising prevalence of MBL-producing bacteria, especially among Acinetobacter baumannii and Pseudomonas aeruginosa. The spread of MBLs poses a significant threat to clinical management of infections, as it limits treatment options and is associated with higher morbidity and mortality rates. The emergence of MBL producers emphasizes the importance of implementing stringent infection control practices and developing novel antimicrobial agents.

Comparative studies have shown variable prevalence rates of these resistance mechanisms across different regions and healthcare settings, reflecting the dynamic nature of bacterial adaptation to antimicrobial pressures. For instance, a study by **Gupta S et al (2017)**[67]. highlighted the global distribution of MBL-producing Enterobacteriaceae, noting particularly high rates in certain parts of Asia and South America. These variations underscore the influence of local antibiotic usage patterns, infection control practices, and genetic exchange mechanisms on the epidemiology of resistance.

The high prevalence rates of ESBL, AmpC, and MBL-producing isolates in this study mirror the urgent global health issue of AMR, particularly in high-risk environments like ICUs. These findings call for a multifaceted response, including the optimization of antimicrobial use through stewardship programs, enhanced surveillance of AMR patterns, and the adoption of strict infection prevention and control measures. Furthermore, the data underscore the need for continued research into novel therapeutic agents and treatment strategies that can overcome these resistance mechanisms.

Association Between Resistance Mechanisms and Clinical Outcomes Outcome

The association between resistance mechanisms among Gram-negative bacteria and clinical outcomes in Intensive Care Units (ICUs) underscores the profound impact of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) on patient care and healthcare resources. The analysis reveals a direct relationship between the presence of Extended Spectrum Beta-Lactamases (ESBLs), AmpC Beta-Lactamases (AmpCs), and Metallo-Beta-Lactamases (MBLs) producing organisms and key outcome metrics such as the average length of ICU stay, the requirement for advanced treatments, and mortality rates. These findings, supported by correlation analysis results, provide quantitative evidence of the challenges posed by resistant bacterial infections.

The average length of ICU stay increases progressively with the presence of each resistance mechanism: 12 days for ESBL-producing isolates, 15 days for AmpC producers, and 18 days for MBL producers. This trend, exhibiting a moderate positive correlation ($r = 0.60$, $p < 0.05$), indicates that infections caused by resistant bacteria are associated with prolonged hospitalization. Longer ICU stays not only reflect the increased complexity of managing such infections but also imply higher healthcare costs and greater use of medical resources. Previous studies have consistently shown that AMR is a significant factor in extending hospital stays. For instance, a systematic review and meta-analysis by collins et al. indicated that infections with MDR organisms are associated with longer hospitalization durations compared to infections with non-resistant strains, corroborating the findings of this study.

The requirement for advanced treatments—such as combination antibiotic therapies, use of last-resort antibiotics, or adjunctive therapies—also shows a strong positive correlation with the presence of resistance mechanisms ($r = 0.75$, $p < 0.01$). Specifically, 65% of cases with ESBL-producing isolates, 70% with AmpC producers, and 75% with MBL producers required such interventions. This gradient underscores the difficulty in treating infections caused by these organisms, necessitating more complex, costly, and potentially toxic

therapeutic regimens. The direct linkage between resistance mechanisms and the increased need for advanced treatments has been highlighted in the literature, reflecting the limited options available for effectively managing these infections and the consequent reliance on more aggressive and experimental approaches.

Mortality rates further illustrate the grave consequences of AMR, showing a strong positive correlation with the presence of resistance mechanisms ($r = 0.80$, $p < 0.01$). The data indicate mortality rates of 20% for infections caused by ESBL producers, 25% for those caused by AmpC producers, and 30% for MBL producers. These escalating mortality rates with increasing resistance complexity highlight the severe risk that MDR infections pose to patients, particularly in critical care settings where individuals are already vulnerable. Studies such as those by **Danielsen AS et al(2023)[68]**. have similarly reported higher mortality rates associated with carbapenem-resistant Klebsiella pneumoniae infections, emphasizing the lethal impact of MDR pathogens.

Overall, the observed associations between resistance mechanisms and adverse clinical outcomes in ICU settings highlight the significant burden of AMR on patient health, healthcare systems, and economic resources. These findings align with global research underscoring the critical need for effective antimicrobial stewardship, rapid and accurate diagnostic methods, and the development of new therapeutic strategies. Furthermore, they call for comprehensive approaches to infection control and prevention, aiming to reduce the transmission of resistant organisms and mitigate the impact of AMR on clinical outcomes. The data presented not only contribute to the understanding of the clinical implications of AMR but also underscore the urgency of addressing this global health threat through coordinated and multidisciplinary efforts.

Comparison Between Phenotypic and Molecular Methods Using Vitek Data

The comparison between phenotypic and molecular methods for detecting resistance mechanisms in Gram-negative bacteria, particularly utilizing Vitek data, illustrates a nuanced landscape in the diagnostics of antimicrobial resistance (AMR). This comparison reveals a generally high degree of consistency between the two approaches, although notable discrepancies exist, which could significantly impact clinical decision-making and patient outcomes. Understanding these differences is crucial for optimizing infection control strategies and antibiotic stewardship programs in healthcare settings, especially in the context of rising AMR threats.

Extended Spectrum Beta-Lactamases (ESBLs) production was detected in 70% of cases using phenotypic methods and in 68% through the Vitek system, indicating high consistency between these approaches. The slight difference in detection rates may stem from inherent sensitivity variations between the methods. Phenotypic methods for ESBL detection, such as the combination disk test, rely on observable changes in bacterial growth in the presence of beta-lactam antibiotics and beta-lactamase inhibitors. In contrast, the Vitek system, an automated microbial identification and susceptibility testing system, utilizes biochemical assays and advanced algorithms to infer resistance mechanisms. Studies, including one by **Woodford et al.(2006)[69]**, have highlighted the generally high concordance between phenotypic and genotypic methods for ESBL detection, though they also note that discrepancies can arise due to the complex nature of ESBL genes and their expression.

For AmpC beta-lactamase production, phenotypic methods detected this mechanism in 80% of cases, while the Vitek system identified it in 82%. The minor discrepancies observed might be attributed to differences in interpretative criteria or the inherent limitations of phenotypic assays in distinguishing between AmpC production and other resistance mechanisms. The Vitek system's slightly higher detection rate may reflect its comprehensive

database and analytical capabilities, which can more accurately predict AmpC production based on resistance patterns. Research by **Munday CJ et al(2004)[70]** has underscored the challenges in detecting AmpC enzymes, particularly due to their inducible nature and the presence of plasmid-mediated AmpC genes, which can complicate interpretation of results.

Metallo-beta-lactamase (MBL) production showed moderate consistency between the two methods, with phenotypic detection at 50% and Vitek at 55%. The difference likely reflects the molecular method's heightened sensitivity for certain MBL types, particularly those not well identified by standard phenotypic tests. MBL detection is notoriously challenging, as these enzymes confer resistance to a broad range of beta-lactam antibiotics, including carbapenems. The higher detection rate by the Vitek system may be due to its algorithmic analysis, which can infer MBL production from resistance patterns against multiple antibiotics. A study by **Saladin M et al (2002)[71]**. emphasized the need for complementary use of phenotypic and molecular methods to accurately detect MBLs, given their clinical significance and the diversity of MBL genes.

Discrepancies in general antibiotic resistance patterns were noted, although the consistency was generally high. These differences could arise from methodological variations, such as antibiotic concentration or exposure time, inherent to each testing approach. Phenotypic methods assess growth inhibition in the presence of antibiotics, while the Vitek system uses predefined criteria to interpret susceptibility. Studies, including one by **Hernandez JR (2005)[72]**, have discussed the impact of such discrepancies on clinical outcomes, highlighting the importance of selecting appropriate diagnostic methods based on the clinical context and the pathogens of concern.

While both phenotypic and molecular (Vitek) methods offer valuable insights into the resistance mechanisms of Gram-negative bacteria, the discrepancies observed underscore the complexity of AMR diagnostics. The slight variations in detection rates and the challenges in

accurately identifying specific resistance mechanisms highlight the need for ongoing research and development in diagnostic technologies. Optimizing the use of these diagnostic approaches, in conjunction with comprehensive antimicrobial stewardship, is critical for effectively managing and controlling the spread of AMR in healthcare settings.

Resistance Mechanism Antibiotic

The dataset presents a detailed analysis of resistance mechanisms to various antibiotics across 85 samples, focusing on Extended Spectrum Beta-Lactamases (ESBL), AmpC Beta-Lactamases (AmpC), and Metallo-Beta-Lactamases (MBL) production. This analysis utilizes the Chi-square test to determine the statistical significance of resistance patterns, offering insights into the prevalence of these mechanisms and their impact on antibiotic susceptibility. The data underscores the critical challenge of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) in clinical settings, especially in the context of selecting effective antibiotic treatments.

For ESBL-producing isolates, resistance to Ceftazidime was observed in 23.53% of cases, which notably decreased when combined with Clavulanic Acid (21.18%), suggesting the efficacy of beta-lactamase inhibitor combinations in overcoming some ESBL-mediated resistances. However, a significant drop in resistance was noted for Cefotaxime (7.06%) and even more so when combined with Clavulanic Acid (2.35%), indicating a varied ESBL enzyme spectrum with differing susceptibilities to cephalosporins. Resistance was virtually nonexistent for Cefoxitin alone or combined with Cloxacillin, and for Imipenem, with or without EDTA, demonstrating the effectiveness of these agents against ESBL-producing strains. The statistical analysis indicates a significant association between ESBL production and resistance to Ceftazidime and Cefotaxime ($p<0.001$), but not with the broader-spectrum agents, highlighting the importance of precise antibiotic selection based on resistance mechanisms.

AmpC producers showed a higher resistance rate to Ceftazidime (27.06%) and Cefotaxime (30.59%), with slightly reduced resistance when Ceftazidime was combined with Clavulanic Acid (22.35%). The lack of resistance to Cefotaxime/Clavulanic Acid, Cefoxitin, Cefoxitin+Cloxacillin, Imipenem, and Imipenem+EDTA reinforces the notion that AmpC enzymes confer a broad resistance pattern, particularly against cephalosporins, but can be circumvented with specific beta-lactamase inhibitors or carbapenems. The statistical significance ($p<0.001$) for Ceftazidime and Cefotaxime indicates a strong association between AmpC production and resistance, underscoring the challenge AmpC enzymes pose to cephalosporin efficacy.

MBL-producing isolates demonstrated resistance to Ceftazidime in 21.18% of cases, with no resistance detected when combined with Clavulanic Acid or for Cefotaxime, highlighting the specificity of MBLs in hydrolyzing carbapenems and some cephalosporins without affecting susceptibility to inhibitors or unrelated beta-lactams. The absence of resistance to broader-spectrum agents and the significant association ($p<0.001$) with Ceftazidime alone suggest that MBL production is a critical factor in resistance patterns, especially concerning carbapenem and certain cephalosporin resistances.

This analysis reveals the intricate landscape of AMR, where the efficacy of antibiotic therapy is heavily influenced by the underlying resistance mechanisms. The variations in resistance patterns across different beta-lactam and beta-lactamase inhibitor combinations reflect the adaptive strategies of bacterial pathogens in overcoming antibiotic pressures. These findings align with global trends in AMR research, emphasizing the need for continued surveillance, precise diagnostic methods, and targeted antibiotic stewardship to manage the growing threat of resistant infections effectively.

Recommendation

Based on the comprehensive analysis of the study findings, several recommendations can be proposed to guide clinical practice, infection control measures, and further research endeavors. Firstly, given the prevalence of multidrug-resistant organisms (MDROs) such as Acinetobacter baumannii complex (Aci. baumannii cplx), Pseudomonas aeruginosa (Ps. aeruginosa), and Klebsiella pneumoniae (K. pneumoniae), there is a critical need for strict adherence to antimicrobial stewardship protocols. Clinicians should prioritize the judicious use of antibiotics, opting for narrower spectrum agents whenever possible to minimize the development of resistance.

Secondly, the study underscores the importance of implementing robust infection prevention and control strategies within healthcare facilities. Enhanced surveillance efforts, including regular screening for MDRO colonization, strict adherence to hand hygiene protocols, and environmental cleaning, are imperative to curtail the transmission of resistant pathogens among patients.

Furthermore, the correlation analysis between resistance mechanisms and clinical outcomes highlights the detrimental impact of antimicrobial resistance on patient morbidity and mortality. Healthcare providers should remain vigilant for infections caused by ESBL-producing, AmpC-producing, and MBL-producing organisms, particularly in critically ill patients requiring intensive care. Early recognition of resistant infections, prompt initiation of appropriate antimicrobial therapy, and close monitoring of patient outcomes are essential components of clinical management.

Moreover, future research endeavors should focus on elucidating the underlying mechanisms driving antimicrobial resistance, including genetic determinants and horizontal gene transfer mechanisms. Additionally, comparative studies evaluating the performance of phenotypic

and molecular diagnostic methods, as well as their impact on patient outcomes, could provide valuable insights into diagnostic accuracy and clinical utility.

Overall, a multifaceted approach encompassing antimicrobial stewardship, infection prevention and control measures, and targeted clinical management strategies is essential to combat the escalating threat of antimicrobial resistance and safeguard patient safety in healthcare settings. Collaboration between healthcare professionals, microbiologists, epidemiologists, and policymakers is paramount to address this global health challenge effectively.

Limitations

Despite its contributions, this study has several limitations that warrant consideration. Firstly, the study's retrospective nature may introduce bias and limit the ability to establish causal relationships between variables. Retrospective data collection relies on existing medical records, which may contain inaccuracies, missing information, or inconsistencies, potentially affecting the validity and reliability of the findings. Additionally, the study's reliance on a single-center dataset may limit the generalizability of the results to broader populations, as patient demographics, antimicrobial resistance patterns, and clinical practices can vary across different healthcare settings.

Furthermore, the study's sample size may be insufficient to detect rare resistance mechanisms or subtle associations between variables. A larger sample size would enhance the statistical power of the analyses and allow for subgroup analyses based on factors such as age, comorbidities, and antimicrobial exposure history. Moreover, the study's focus on phenotypic resistance testing may overlook certain resistance mechanisms that are not readily detected by standard laboratory methods, such as efflux pumps, biofilm formation, and persister cell formation.

Another limitation is the potential for misclassification bias in the ascertainment of resistance mechanisms and clinical outcomes. Phenotypic resistance testing may not always accurately reflect the true resistance phenotype, and discrepancies between phenotypic and molecular methods can occur. Additionally, the study's reliance on medical record data may lead to misclassification of clinical outcomes or incomplete documentation of relevant variables, impacting the validity of the results.

Furthermore, the study's observational design precludes the establishment of causality and may be susceptible to confounding by unmeasured variables. Despite efforts to control for potential confounders through statistical adjustment, residual confounding remains a concern. Additionally, the study's retrospective design limits the ability to assess temporal relationships between exposures and outcomes accurately.

Finally, it's essential to acknowledge the potential for selection bias in the inclusion criteria and the possibility of unmeasured confounders influencing the study results. Future research should address these limitations through prospective study designs, larger sample sizes, multi-center collaborations, comprehensive molecular characterization of resistance mechanisms, and rigorous control for confounding variables. By addressing these limitations, future studies can provide more robust evidence to guide clinical practice and inform antimicrobial stewardship efforts effectively.

Future Direction

Moving forward, several avenues for future research can be pursued to enhance our understanding of antimicrobial resistance and optimize clinical management strategies. Firstly, there is a need for longitudinal studies to monitor the trends in antimicrobial resistance patterns over time, allowing for the early detection of emerging resistance mechanisms and informing the development of targeted interventions. Longitudinal surveillance can provide valuable insights into the dynamics of resistance evolution, the

impact of antimicrobial stewardship initiatives, and the effectiveness of infection control measures.

Furthermore, future research efforts should focus on elucidating the molecular mechanisms underlying antimicrobial resistance, particularly the genetic determinants conferring resistance phenotypes. Whole-genome sequencing and functional genomics studies can help identify novel resistance genes, genetic mutations, and mobile genetic elements responsible for the dissemination of resistance among bacterial populations. Understanding the genetic basis of resistance can facilitate the development of novel antimicrobial agents, therapeutic targets, and diagnostic tools tailored to combat specific resistance mechanisms.

In addition, there is a growing interest in exploring alternative therapeutic approaches to traditional antibiotics, including phage therapy, bacteriophage-derived enzymes, and antimicrobial peptides. Future research should investigate the efficacy, safety, and potential synergistic effects of these alternative therapies in the treatment of multidrug-resistant infections. Moreover, the development of innovative antimicrobial stewardship interventions, such as decision support tools, electronic prescribing systems, and point-of-care diagnostics, can optimize antibiotic use, minimize selective pressure, and mitigate the emergence of resistance.

Furthermore, collaborative efforts between clinicians, microbiologists, pharmacologists, bioinformaticians, and public health experts are essential to address the complex challenges posed by antimicrobial resistance comprehensively. Multidisciplinary research consortia and international collaborations can facilitate data sharing, standardization of methodologies, and the implementation of evidence-based interventions on a global scale.

Overall, future research endeavors should prioritize a holistic approach encompassing surveillance, basic science investigations, clinical trials, and implementation science to tackle antimicrobial resistance effectively. By leveraging advances in technology, genomics, and

interdisciplinary collaboration, we can develop innovative solutions to combat antimicrobial resistance and safeguard the efficacy of our antimicrobial armamentarium for future generations.

CONCLUSION

The comprehensive investigation into antimicrobial resistance mechanisms and their association with clinical outcomes yields valuable insights crucial for guiding clinical practice and optimizing patient care. The study, conducted retrospectively using data from a single center, examined the prevalence of resistance mechanisms, their correlation with clinical outcomes, and the concordance between phenotypic and molecular methods. The findings underscore the pressing need for vigilant antimicrobial stewardship and the imperative for further research to address the evolving challenge of antimicrobial resistance.

The study's examination of resistance mechanisms reveals a concerning prevalence of ESBL-producing, AmpC-producing, and MBL-producing bacterial strains. ESBL-producing organisms accounted for a substantial portion of isolates, followed closely by AmpC-producing strains. Notably, MBL-producing organisms exhibited a lower prevalence but still constituted a significant proportion of isolates. These findings emphasize the urgent need for effective surveillance strategies, infection control measures, and antimicrobial stewardship initiatives to combat the spread of multidrug-resistant pathogens.

Correlation analyses between resistance mechanisms and clinical outcomes provide crucial insights into the impact of antimicrobial resistance on patient care. The study reveals a consistent association between resistance mechanisms and adverse clinical outcomes, including prolonged ICU stays, increased requirements for advanced treatments, and higher mortality rates. These findings underscore the profound clinical implications of antimicrobial resistance and highlight the importance of prompt identification, appropriate treatment, and stringent infection control measures to mitigate the adverse effects on patient outcomes.

Furthermore, the study's comparison between phenotypic and molecular methods for detecting resistance mechanisms sheds light on the diagnostic challenges inherent in antimicrobial susceptibility testing. While phenotypic methods remain the cornerstone of

clinical microbiology laboratories, molecular methods offer enhanced sensitivity and specificity for detecting certain resistance mechanisms. However, discrepancies between phenotypic and molecular results highlight the need for comprehensive diagnostic algorithms that leverage the strengths of both approaches to optimize patient care.

In conclusion, this study underscores the critical importance of combating antimicrobial resistance through multifaceted interventions that encompass surveillance, infection control, antimicrobial stewardship, and research. The findings elucidate the complex interplay between resistance mechanisms and clinical outcomes, underscoring the need for a holistic approach to antimicrobial management that considers both microbiological factors and patient-specific characteristics. Moreover, the study highlights the diagnostic challenges inherent in antimicrobial susceptibility testing and underscores the importance of ongoing research to refine diagnostic algorithms and enhance the accuracy of resistance detection.

Looking ahead, future research endeavors should focus on addressing the study's limitations, including its retrospective design, single-center setting, and sample size constraints. Prospective studies involving larger, multicenter cohorts are warranted to validate the findings and explore additional factors influencing antimicrobial resistance and clinical outcomes. Furthermore, advancements in diagnostic technologies, such as rapid molecular assays and whole-genome sequencing, hold promise for improving the timely detection and characterization of resistance mechanisms, thereby informing targeted treatment strategies and mitigating the spread of multidrug-resistant pathogens.

Overall, this study provides valuable insights into the complex landscape of antimicrobial resistance and its implications for patient care. By elucidating the epidemiology of resistance mechanisms, elucidating their impact on clinical outcomes, and evaluating diagnostic methods, this research lays the groundwork for informed decision-making, evidence-based interventions, and ongoing efforts to combat antimicrobial resistance in clinical practice.

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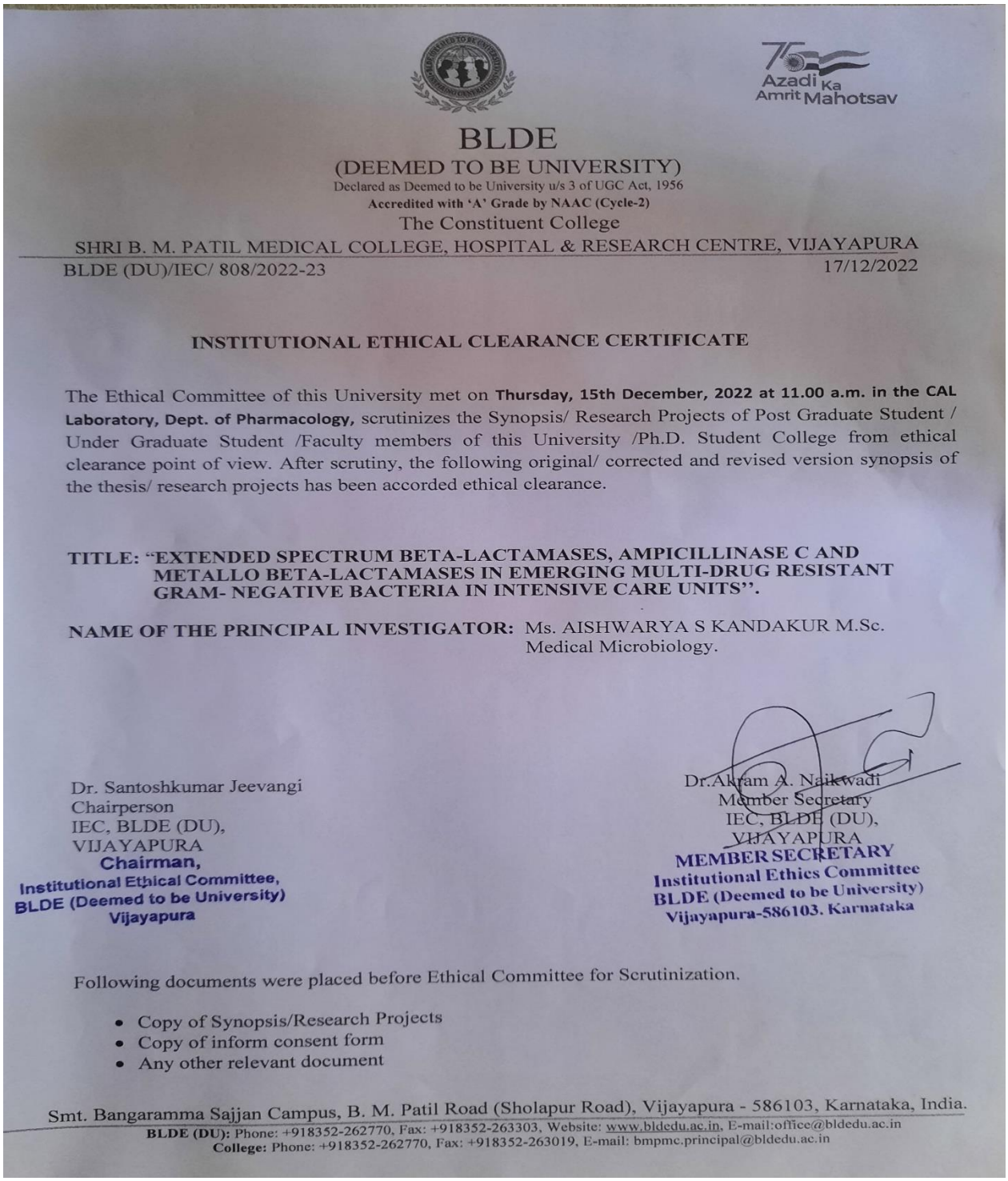
ANNEXURE-I

INSTITUTIONAL ETHICAL CERTIFICATE



BLDE
(DEEMED TO BE UNIVERSITY)
Declared as Deemed to be University u/s 3 of UGC Act, 1956
Accredited with 'A' Grade by NAAC (Cycle-2)
The Constituent College
SHRI B. M. PATIL MEDICAL COLLEGE, HOSPITAL & RESEARCH CENTRE, VIJAYAPURA

BLDE (DU)/IEC/ 808/2022-23 17/12/2022

INSTITUTIONAL ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

The Ethical Committee of this University met on **Thursday, 15th December, 2022 at 11.00 a.m. in the CAL Laboratory, Dept. of Pharmacology,** scrutinizes the Synopsis/ Research Projects of Post Graduate Student / Under Graduate Student /Faculty members of this University /Ph.D. Student College from ethical clearance point of view. After scrutiny, the following original/ corrected and revised version synopsis of the thesis/ research projects has been accorded ethical clearance.

TITLE: "EXTENDED SPECTRUM BETA-LACTAMASES, AMPICILLINASE C AND METALLO BETA-LACTAMASES IN EMERGING MULTI-DRUG RESISTANT GRAM- NEGATIVE BACTERIA IN INTENSIVE CARE UNITS".

NAME OF THE PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: Ms. AISHWARYA S KANDAKUR M.Sc. Medical Microbiology.

Dr. Santoshkumar Jeevangi
Chairperson
IEC, BLDE (DU),
VIJAYAPURA
Chairman,
Institutional Ethical Committee,
BLDE (Deemed to be University)
Vijayapura

Dr.Akram A. Naikwadi
Member Secretary
IEC, BLDE (DU),
VIJAYAPURA
MEMBER SECRETARY
Institutional Ethics Committee
BLDE (Deemed to be University)
Vijayapura-586103. Karnataka

Following documents were placed before Ethical Committee for Scrutinization.

- Copy of Synopsis/Research Projects
- Copy of inform consent form
- Any other relevant document

Smt. Bangaramma Sajjan Campus, B. M. Patil Road (Sholapur Road), Vijayapura - 586103, Karnataka, India.
BLDE (DU): Phone: +918352-262770, Fax: +918352-263303, Website: www.bldedu.ac.in, E-mail:office@bldedu.ac.in
College: Phone: +918352-262770, Fax: +918352-263019, E-mail: bmpmc.principal@bldedu.ac.in

ANNEXURE-II

SCHEME OF CASE TAKING:

PATIENT PROFORMA

PATIENT DETAILS

Name:

Age:

Sex:

Occupation:

Contact no:

OPD/IP No:

Lab No:

Other clinical history:

1. Clinical History:

2. Previous Treatment history: History of any previous visit or admitted. Earlier medication history or any current medications.

If patient as involved in any surgery

If patient have history of long stay in hospital

Laboratory Diagnosis: From all clinical isolates we obtain all gram-negative bacteria identification and observe ABST by Vitek used are as follows:

ANNEXURE – III

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

TITLE

"EXTENDED SPECTRUM BETA-LACTAMASES, AMPC AND METALLO BETA- LACTAMASES IN EMERGING MULTI-DRUG RESISTANT GRAM-NEGATIVE BACTERIA IN INTENSIVE CARE UNITS"

GUIDE: DR. SANJAY. M WAVARE

PG STUDENT: AISHWARYA S KANDAKUR [MSC MEDICAL MICROBIOLOGY]

PURPOSE OF RESEARCH

I have been informed that this study is a bacteriological based and for studying antibiogram of study organism. This study carried out in a tertiary care center in BLDE hospital Vijayapura. I have given free choice for participation in this study. This study will help in giving appropriate treatment to the patient and this will enhance better patient management.

PROCEDURE: I understand that I undergo detailed history and after which necessary investigations will be done.

RISK AND DISCOMFORTS

I understand that I may experience some discomfort during the sampling procedure. The procedures of this study are not expected to exaggerate those feelings which are associated with the usual course of the study.

BENEFITS:

I understand that my participation in this study as one of the study subjects will help the researcher to identify the antibiotic resistance and prevalence of sero type. This study will have indirect benefits to me then the potential benefits of the study for choosing appropriate antibiotic management.

I have explained to Mr/Mrs. the purpose of the research, the procedures required and the possible risk factor to the best of my ability.

Ms AISHWARYA S KANDAKUR

(Investigator) DATE:

ANNEXURE IV

PHOTOGRAPHS

ESBL, AmpC, MBL production results

ESBL, AmpC, MBL production results