



PREVELANCE OF UTIS AND ASSESSMENT OF THE ANTIBACTERIAL ACTIVITY OF ANTIBIOTICS AND HERBAL EXTRACTS ON MDR UROPATHOGENS

Rasheed Ahmed Soomro¹, Agha Asad Noor^{2*}, and Nazir Ahmed Brohi³

^{1,2,3}Institute of Microbiology, University of Sindh, Jamshoro. ralumhs@hotmail.com,
nazir.brohi@usindh.edu.pk

*Corresponding Author: Agha Asad Noor

Email: aanpathan@usindh.edu.pk^{2},

Abstract

Introduction-Bacterial urinary tract infections (UTIs) in humans are the rising challenges worldwide especially the emergence of the multidrug resistant (MDR) bacterial strains. Individuas of ages may be affected by simple and complex form of UTIs. These may be caused by both gram negative and gram positive bacteria. The MDR uropathogens are recognized for causing complex UTIs worldwide. **Materials and method**-The focus of this study is on the frequency of UTIs caused by MDR gram negative bacteria and the antibacterial activity of antibiotic and their susceptibility pattern to antibiotics and herbal extracts (*Oregano vulgare* L., and *Thymus vulgaris* L. A total of 1128 (n=1128) urine samples were collected from 5–25, 26–50, and 51–75 years of patients of both genders. The samples were inoculated media for microbial growth, characterization, and susceptibility of test antibiotics and herbal extracts.

Result-Our findings revealed that females are more affected than males, with 63%, 63%, and 59% when examined the catheterized, midstream and diabetic urine samples predominantly caused by *E. coli* followed by *K. pneumoniae* 15%, 17%, 15%; *P. mirabilis* 14%, 14.5%, 14%; *E. cloacae* 5%, 2%, 1.5%, and *P. aeruginosa* 2%, 3%, and 10% in both genders, respectively.

Conclusion-Antibiotic susceptibility revealed the greater resistance of *E. coli* to amoxicillin-clavulanate, cefotaxime, amoxicillin-clavulanate, nitrofurantoin, and ciprofloxacin followed by *K. pneumoniae*, *P. mirabilis*, *Enterobacter cloacae*, and *P. aeruginosa*. The synergistic effect of both extracts showed a more significant influence at concentrations of 1.0, 1.0, 1.2, 1.2, and 1.0 mL/100 mL. respectively. The antibacterial properties of *Oregano vulgare* L. and *Thymus vulgaris* L. exhibited increased effectiveness at concentrations of 1.2, 1.4, 1.2, 1.2, and 1.2, respectively.

Keywords: UTI, Uropathogens, MDR Strains, Antibacterial Effects.

1. Introduction

UTIs occur in all ages, especially females from adolescence to old age.⁽¹⁻²⁾ There are two types of UTIs namely the uncomplicated, which occurs in non-pregnant adult women and complicated arises when the infection poses an increased risk of complications, frequently as a result of pre-existing health issues.⁽¹³⁾ *E. coli* is major UTI causing pathogen called as uropathogenic *E. coli* (UPEC),⁽⁴⁻¹⁰⁾ which belongs to family Enterobacteriaceae.⁽¹¹⁾ While UTIs are known to be mild and treatable but could be chronic if untreated causing renal damage. Pyelonephritis is certainly a major abnormal complication during pregnancy for both the pregnant female and new born baby. It ranks 2-4% of

pregnancies, which may be related to asymptomatic bacteriuria among the 2-7 patients.⁽¹²⁻¹³⁾ About 10% of pregnant females are known to suffer from UTIs due to the invasion of the urethra through the bladder by bacterial populations from the gastrointestinal tract and occurs during travel.⁽¹⁴⁻¹⁵⁾ UTIs frequently cause anxiety and sickness in females.⁽¹⁴⁾ Women are more susceptible to complex UTIs that escalate to serious conditions such as pyelonephritis or urosepsis. Bacteriuria in female patients may rise during pregnancy that leads to greater death rates, low-birth weight and prematurity.⁽¹⁶⁻¹⁷⁾ MDR uropathogens are recognized for causing complex urinary tract infections (UTIs), especially in individuals with urolithiasis, neurogenic bladder, indwelling catheters, renal transplants, and immunosuppression. These conditions promote the invasion and retention of uropathogens within the urinary tract.⁽¹⁸⁾

Several studies on antibiotic susceptibility testing of uropathogens⁽¹⁹⁻²²⁾ have been reported in Pakistan, but no true cure has yet been explored. This study aimed to determine the prevalence of UTIs in both genders of different age groups in the rural area of Jamshoro, to identify the major uropathogens by culturing technique and their antibacterial activities and to identify the synergistic effects of *Oregano vulgare* L., and *Thymus vulgaris* L. as alternate medicine.

2. Materials and methods

Patients aged 5–25, 26–50, and 51–75 years of both genders have been diagnosed. A survey form was filled out with the name, age, sex, geographic distribution, occupation, and family history, duration of the hospitalization, previous antibiotic therapy, and laboratory diagnosis.⁽²³⁾

2.1. Sample Size

A total of 1128 (n=1128) catheterized, midstream and diabetic urine samples were collected separately from the OPD of private clinics and hospitals. Equal numbers of urine samples n=564 from each gender were collected from the patients of age groups 5-25 (n=216), 26-50 (n=268), 51-75 (n=80) from males, and 5-25 (n=236), 26-50 (n=276), 51-75 (n=52) from females.

2.2. Inoculation and Incubation

Urine samples were separately inoculated onto the surface of sterile MacConkey's agar, and Cystine-lactose Electrolyte Deficiency agar plates (Oxoid-UK), a disc of ceftazidime antibiotic (2 mg/L) was placed over the surface of inoculated plates, and incubated at 37°C overnight. A bacterial suspension (10^5 cfu/mL) was prepared after incubation for future processing in colony, microscopy, and biochemical analyses.^(16, 25)

2.3 Determination of antibacterial activity

Assessing the susceptibility of clinical isolates to antimicrobials as agar diffusion methods was applied.⁽²⁶⁾ Antibiotic discs / µg of ampicillin 10, amoxicillin 25, amoxicillin/clavulanate 30, aztreonam 30, cefotaxime 30, ceftazidime 30 ceftriaxone 30, ciprofloxacin 5, gentamycin 10, Norfloxacin 10 and Nitrofurantoin 300 µg.⁽²⁷⁻²⁸⁾

The herbal extracts of *Oregano vulgare* L., and *Thymus vulgaris* L. leaves were cleaned with tap water, afterward peeled and dried in dim at room temperature for 24 hours, later ground to powder, and was kept in dry containers independently.⁽²⁹⁾ An equal quantity of both powdered extract was blended in sterile distilled water and 20 g of the blend was arranged by macerating in 100 ml in a sterile bottle and cleared out at room temperature in orbital shaker for 24 hours and later sieved.⁽³⁰⁾ The fluid extricates (10 mL) once more centrifuged at 1500 rpm for 15 minutes and kept at 50°C for 2 h., later cooled and sieved by Whatman filter paper,⁽³¹⁾ and finally stored at room temperature for 24 hours. The alkaloids have been identified from leaves of both herbs from a few milliliters of aqueous separately filtered extract by pouring a drop of Dragendorff reagent by the side of the test tube. Later a magnesium powder and a few drops of strong hydrochloric acid were placed in the test tubes to ensure that both extracts contained flavonoids.^(27, 32)

2.3.1 Disc diffusion method

The test cultures were prepared in a sterile test tube, achieving a concentration of 10^5 cfu/mL. Using soaked Whatman filter paper (13 mm) discs of 9 mm in each dilution of extract (v/v) for 10 seconds were placed over a series of Mueller Hinton Agar (MHA) plates that contained the test inoculum.⁽³³⁾ To observe the colonies, the plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 hours containing 5% Dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) served as the negative control, and a 30 µg amoxicillin-clavulanate disc was placed as a positive control.⁽³⁴⁾

2.3.2 Well diffusion method

Five wells of 9 mm diameter were designed using a series of MHA plates, each composed of different test isolates. One microliter (µL) of melted nutritional agar was put into each well, and then it was let to set for 20 minutes. Both herbal extracts were added to each well of the plate containing 0.2, 0.4 to 1.4 mL of test extract with 5% DMSO as a negative control, and clavulanate amoxicillin discs as a positive control. The plates were then left at room temperature for 2 hours before being incubated for 24 hours at 37°C.⁽³⁰⁾ Following CLSI guidelines, the ATCC cultures were used. *E. coli* (ATCC 25922), *K. pneumoniae* (ATCC 70063), *P. mirabilis* (ATCC 25933), *E. cloacae* (ATCC 13047), and *P. aeruginosa* (ATCC 275833) as standards, revealed inhibitory zone in different sizes in comparison to the CLSI standard zones.⁽²⁷⁻²⁸⁾

3. Results

The present work is conducted to determine the frequency of UTIs caused by uropathogens in rural areas of Jamshoro. Urine samples were collected from symptomatic patients of test age groups of both genders. A total of 216, 268, 80, and 236, 276, 52 catheterized, midstream, and diabetic urine samples were collected from male and female patients respectively (Table 1). Isolated samples underwent culturing and characterization, leading to notable results that include *E. coli* (64%), (60%), (61%); *K. pneumoniae* n=31 (14%), n=49 (18%), n=12 (15%); *P. mirabilis* n=32 (15%), n=46 (17%), n=11 (14%); *E. cloacae* n=12 (5.5%), n=5 (2%); n=1 (1%); *P. aeruginosa* n=5 (2%); n=6 (2%); n=7 (9%) whereas in female patients *E. coli* n=151 (64%); n=182 (65%), n=30 (58%); *K. pneumoniae* n=35(15%), n=44 (16%), n=8 15%); *P. mirabilis* n=33 (14%), n=33 (12%), n=07 (13.5%); *E. cloacae* n=12 (5%), n=08 (3%), n=01 (2%); *P. aeruginosa* n=05 (2%), n=09 (3%); n=06 (11.5%) in catheterized, midstream and diabetic urine samples of 5-25, 26-50 and 51-75 years of age groups respectively (Table 2, 3, Figure 1).

The findings of clinical isolates in all age groups of both genders revealed total numbers of *E. coli* n=708 (63%, 63%, 59%), *K. pneumoniae* n= 179 (15%, 17%, 15%), *P. mirabilis* n=163 (14%, 14.5%, 14%), *E. cloacae* n=40 (5%, 2%, 1.5%) and *P. aeruginosa* n=38 (2%, 3%, 10%) (Table 4, Figure 2). *E. coli* 51(7%), 68 (9.5%), 75 (10.5%), 85 (10%), 75 (10.5%), 85 (8%), 59 (10%), 74 (10%), 49 (7%), 59 (8%), 42 (6%); *K. pneumoniae* 12 (7%), 25 (14%), 31 (17%), 23 (13%), 21 (12%), 22 (12%), 24 (13%) 16 (9%), 23 (13%). *P. mirabilis* (4%), 24 (13%), 25 (15%), 10 (6%), 11 (7%), 11 (7%), 9 (5%), 21 (13%), 14 (8.5%), 12 (7%), 22 (13%), *E. cloacae* 3 (7%), 2 (5%), 4 (10%), 4 (10%), 2 (5%), 1 (2%), 3 (12%), 5 (12%), 4 (10%), 6 (15%), 9 (22%), *P. aeruginosa* 0 (0%), 3 (9%), 5 (16%), 2 (6%), 1 (3%), 4 (12.5%), 2 (6%), 7 (22%), 5 (16%), 2 (6%), 2 (6%) against ampicillin, amoxicillin, amoxicillin-clavulanate, aztreonam, cefotaxime, ceftazidime, ceftriaxone, ciprofloxacin, gentamycin, norfloxacin, and nitrofurantoin respectively (Table 5).

The antibacterial activity of *Oregano vulgare L.*, and *Thymus vulgaris l.* was determined by disc diffusion and well diffusion method. Comparative analysis revealed maximum sensitive zones (mm) by the well diffusion methods. The findings revealed 23.1 (1.0), 23.5 (1.2), 21 (1.4), 21.5 (1.2), 24.2 (1.2) (Table 6) and 22.7 (1.2), 20.4 (1.4), 20 (1.2), 22.4 (1.2), 23.8 (1.2) against *E. coli*, *K. pneumoniae*, *P. mirabilis*, *E. cloacae*, *P. aeruginosa* (Table 7). The synergetic effects of both extracts by well diffusion methods showed greater sensitivity zones 25 (1.0), 24.2 (1.0), 21.6 (1.0), 24.3 (1.2), 24 (1.0) against *E. coli*; *K. pneumoniae*; *P. mirabilis*; *E. cloacae*; *P. aeruginosa* respectively (Table 8).

Discussion

Urinary tract infections pose a significant clinical and economic impacts in both community and hospital settings with higher mortality rates.⁽³⁵⁾ The present study deals with UTIs in the rural populations of Jamshoro, as observed among different age categories of patients.⁽³⁵⁻³⁶⁾ The catheterized, midstream, urine revealed 23%, 55%, 22%, 27%, 56%, and 16% among the test age groups respectively. The discrepancies in urine samples may be due to the environmental influences, socioeconomic conditions, and the demographic attributes of various areas. *E. coli* 60-66% were discovered as the major pathogen followed by *K. pneumoniae* 14-16%, *P. mirabilis* 12-17%, *E. cloacae* 1-5.5%, and *P. aeruginosa* 2-11.5% in UTIs in agreement of⁽³⁷⁻³⁹⁾.

K. pneumoniae is the second leading cause, predominantly spread through interpersonal contact, indwelling catheters; substance abusers face an increased risk of infection in hospitals.⁽⁴⁰⁻⁴¹⁾ In catheterized patients, *P. mirabilis* infections can arise from mannose-associated fimbriae, and non-agglutinating fimbriae. Furthermore, the autotransporters TaaP and AipA may interact with collagen I and laminin. Hemolysin (HpmA) and the toxic protein agglutinin (Pta) are also important factors that lead to the lysis of host cells, thereby causing UTIs.⁽³⁹⁾ *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is a significant contributor to UTIs among the age group of 51-75 years may be due to its ability to develop multiple drug resistance.^(42, 39) It causes co-infections, and form biofilms on catheters through the production of extracellular polysaccharides through quorum sensing, which triggers the release of extracellular DNA (eDNA), along with an increased release of eDNA from PAO1 strains (Δ lasI, Δ rhII, and Δ pqsA mutants).⁽⁴²⁻⁴³⁾ *E. coli* as the main pathogen causing 66% in females aged 26 to 50, compared to 64% in males. For the 5 to 25 age group, both males and females show a prevalence of 63%, while females aged 51 to 75 have a UTI rate of 59%. This data is consistent with the findings reported in⁽⁴⁴⁾. The UTIs in females may be due to the anatomical structure of the urogenital tract, shorter urethra, pregnancy, recent sexual activity, and the use of spermicide-containing devices. These findings align with previous research.⁽⁴⁴⁻⁴⁸⁾

A group of 26-50 years possess UTIs followed by those aged 5-25 and 51-75 due to the effects of estrogen depletion, which leads to vaginal atrophy and labial enlargement.⁽¹⁵⁻¹⁶⁾ This facilitates the pathogens from the vagina to the urethra, fluctuating pH levels, diminished vaginal flora.⁽¹⁷⁻¹⁹⁾ In women, UPEC strains isolated from sexually active individuals.⁽⁴⁹⁾ This happens in cases of recurrent UTIs during pregnancy.⁽⁴⁵⁾ Additionally, anterior vaginal wall prolapse, and inability to spontaneously void and increased post-void residual volume may contribute UTIs [50]. In men, greater UTI occurs by use of illegal drugs that increases bacterial effects of prostate fluid.^(45-46, 51) Our findings were 11.2% of UTIs among diabetic patients. This indicates that diabetic women have a higher infection rate compared to men, mainly due to the age factor, micro-albuminuria concentration, and to a certain degree, glycated hemoglobin. These results are consistent with previous research.⁽⁵²⁻⁵³⁾

All tested bacterial pathogens demonstrated varying levels of resistance to the antibiotics evaluated.⁽³⁴⁻³⁵⁾ Our findings revealed significant resistance zones (mm) for *E. coli*, with values of 18 for ampicillin and 17 for nitrofurantoin. *K. pneumoniae* showed resistance zones of 18 for amoxicillin and 16.5 for amoxicillin-clavulanate. *P. mirabilis* exhibited resistance of 18 for both ceftazidime and norfloxacin, and 17 for amoxicillin. *E. cloacae* had resistance zones of 18 for norfloxacin and 17 for aztreonam, ceftriaxone, and gentamicin. *P. aeruginosa* showed resistance of 16 for ceftazidime and ciprofloxacin, and 15 for gentamicin, along with other tested antibiotics. Our observations of MDR align with,^(46, 35, 37) which suggest that Gram-negative pathogens may acquire genes responsible for producing ESBL, OXA, AmpC, OxaS, and CTX-M type enzymes.⁽³⁹⁾

The insert consists of the integrase gene attI, a transposon, and an integron. It encompasses genes such as ParC and parE, which are responsible for coding topoisomerase IV, in addition to gyrA and gyrB. Notable mutations are identified in parC (S80), gyrA (S83), and gyrB (S464), alongside various beta-lactamase genes including blaTEM, blaTEM-2, blaCMY, blaCTX, blaOXA-1, blaCTX-M, and sul1. Furthermore, it encodes integron gene cassettes (aadA1, aadA2) that synthesize aminoglycoside adenylyltransferases, as well as B, which encodes aminoglycoside-(2)-transferases. The aac (6)-Ib gene is responsible for encoding an aminoglycoside acetyltransferase, while sat2 encodes streptothricin

acetyltransferase. Additional genes referenced include *rpoB*, *tufB*, *rpsL*, *fusA*, and *rpoA*. The mutations associated with Tumor Endothelial Marker-187, VEB-1, Integrin PER-1, and VIM-1 SHV-type β -Lactamase (38-45) are also noted, along with SGL-1 (SGE-1) and the production of carbapenemase.⁽⁵⁰⁻⁵⁷⁾ In UPEC, mutations that impede drug uptake are correlated with the deletion of membrane-bound porins and *bla* genes located on plasmids.⁽⁴⁹⁾ The emergence of MDR Gram-ve bacteria is linked to the production of extended-spectrum beta-lactamase enzymes, resulting in prolonged hospitalizations, increased reliance on intravenous devices, and reduced immunity in diabetic patients, catheters-complications, biofilm formation, racial disparities, and antibiotic overuse.^(58, 54)

In *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, antibiotic resistance can develop due to a variety of resistance genes, mobile genetic elements like *K. pneumoniae* carbapenemase and New Delhi metallo- β -lactamase-1, alterations in drug targets, and the expulsion of drugs through ATP-binding cassette transporters. The CTX-M gene and the 16S rRNA methylase RmtA are particularly important in this context. Additionally, the *qnrD* genes are located on small, non-conjugative plasmids of 2.7 kb and 4.2 kb, which can be obtained via the mobile insertion cassette (Mic) element from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* revealed a resistance rate of 22% to ciprofloxacin, followed by 16% to both amoxicillin-clavulanate and gentamicin, and 12.5% to ceftazidime, among other antibiotics. These results are consistent with earlier studies,^(48, 59) likely due to the production of ESBL and carbapenemase enzymes, along with other contributing factors.^(60, 45, 55-56, 61)

Uropathogenic strains of *E. cloacae* are distributed pertaining to the genetic clusters of the complex.⁽⁶¹⁾ *E. cloacae* is common in hospital environments. The development of MDR in *E. cloacae* are associated to the AcrAB-TolC system 'TolC', OqXAB (OqxAB), EmrE, MdfA, MacA, Mar, Ram, Sox, inconsistent antibiotic treatment, and the acquisition and expression of resistance genes such as *QnrA*, *qnrS*, *blaShV*, and *blaCX-M*. These elements facilitate biofilm formation, corroborating findings from earlier studies.^(12, 62) Additionally, *E. cloacae* features complex gene clusters,⁽⁶²⁾ such as clusters III, VI, and VII, which are associated with two genetically distinct clades: clade 1 and a CGH-based clade 2 related to the *hsp60* gene.⁽⁶⁰⁾

Conclusion

District Jamshoro is situated in the western part of the Sindh province, consisting of a rural and urban population. Mostly the poor community with malnutrition and unhygienic standards are more prone to the UTIs. In this study, *E. coli*, *K. pneumoniae*; *P. mirabilis*; *E. cloacae*; *P. aeruginosa* were higher and lower resistance to the respective test antibiotics was observed. When tested, the antibacterial effects of *Oanum vulgare* L., and *Thymus vulgaris* L. the results showed greater effect on the isolates in combination of both extracts. In order to avoid the illegal use of home remedies and antibiotics, the relevant health authorities should initiate awareness programs to implement new policies to deal with the crisis and make recommendations to focus on the production of herbal medicines to support the rural population because of high costs, side effects of antibiotics and the emergence of resistant strains.

Acknowledgements

The author acknowledges the supervisor for continuous efforts to complete this work and the entire team of scholars for this self-funded study.

Conflict of interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

1. Muhammad A, Khan SN, Ali N, et al. Prevalence and antibiotic susceptibility pattern of uropathogens in outpatients at a tertiary care hospital. *New Microbes and new infections*. 2020;36:1-6.

2. Pezeshki NM, Dagoohian A, Rajaie S, et al. Common microbial causes of significant bacteriuria and their antibiotic resistance pattern in the Isfahan Province of Iran. *Journal of Chemotherapy*. 2018;30(6-8):348-53.
3. Tandogdu Z, Wagenlehner FM. Global epidemiology of urinary tract infections. *Current opinion in infectious diseases*. 2016;29(1):73-9.
4. Nicolle LE. A practical guide to antimicrobial management of complicated urinary tract infection. *Drugs & aging*. 2001;18:243-54.
5. Minardi D, d'Anzeo G, Cantoro D, et al. Muzzonigro G. Urinary tract infections in women: etiology and treatment options. *International journal of general medicine*. 2011;19:333-43.
6. Ronald AR, Nicolle LE, Stamm E, et al. Urinary tract infection in adults: research priorities and strategies. *International journal of antimicrobial agents*. 2001;17(4):343-8.
7. Ronald A. The etiology of urinary tract infection: traditional and emerging pathogens. *The American journal of medicine*. 2002;113(1):14-9.
8. Lloyd AL, Rasko DA, Mobley HL. Defining genomic islands and uropathogen-specific genes in uropathogenic *Escherichia coli*. *Journal of bacteriology*. 2007;189(9):3532-46.
9. Foxman B. Epidemiology of urinary tract infections: incidence, morbidity, and economic costs. *The American journal of medicine*. 2002;113(1):5-13.
10. Flores-Mireles AL, Walker JN, Caparon M, et al., Urinary tract infections: epidemiology, mechanisms of infection and treatment options. *Nature reviews microbiology*. 2015;13(5):269-84.
11. John AS, Mboto CI, Agbo B. A review on the prevalence and predisposing factors responsible for urinary tract infection among adults. *Euro J Exp Bio*. 2016;6(4):7-11.
12. Lee AC, Quaiyum MA, Mullany LC, et al. Screening and treatment of maternal genitourinary tract infections in early pregnancy to prevent preterm birth in rural Sylhet, Bangladesh: a cluster randomized trial. *BMC Pregnancy and Childbirth*. 2015;15:1-4.
13. Hannan TJ, Totsika M, Mansfield KJ, et al. Host-pathogen checkpoints and population bottlenecks in persistent and intracellular uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* bladder infection. *FEMS microbiology reviews*. 2012;36(3):616-48.
14. Ahmed N, Zaidi SA, Rasool S. Frequency of urinary tract infections and causative agents in different age groups in both genders in a tertiary care hospital. *Journal of Bahria University Medical and Dental College*. 2016;6(3):4..
15. Alekshun MN, Levy SB. Molecular mechanisms of antibacterial multidrug resistance. *Cell*. 2007;128(6):1037-50.
16. Kodner CM, Gupton EK. Recurrent urinary tract infections in women: diagnosis and management. *American family physician*. 2010; 82(6):638-43.
17. Ullah A, Shah SR, Almugadam BS, et al. Prevalence of symptomatic urinary tract infections and antimicrobial susceptibility patterns of isolated uropathogens in kohat region of Pakistan. *MOJ Biol Med*. 2018;3(4):85-9.
18. Rizvi RM, Siddiqui KM. Recurrent urinary tract infections in females. *Journal of the Pakistan Medical Association*. 2010;60(1):55.
19. Najma MQ, Summyia B. Evaluation of extended spectrum beta-lactamase mediated resistance in *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* in urinary tract infection at a tertiary care hospital. *Biomedica*. 2013; 29:78-81.
20. Sharma M, Pathak S, Srivastava P. Prevalence and antibiogram of Extended Spectrum β -Lactamase (ESBL) producing Gram negative bacilli and further molecular characterization of ESBL producing *Escherichia coli* and *Klebsiella* spp. *Journal of clinical and diagnostic research: JCDR*. 2013;7(10):2173.
21. Panta K, Ghimire P, Rai SK, et al. Antibiogram typing of gram negative isolates in different clinical samples of a tertiary hospital. *Asian J Pharm Clin Res*. 2013;6(1):153-6.

22. Corvec S, Beyrouthy R, Cr  met L, et al. TEM-187, a new extended-spectrum β -lactamase with weak activity in a *Proteus mirabilis* clinical strain. *Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy*. 2013;57(5):2410-2.
23. Schneider I, Markovska R, Marteva-Proevska Y, et al. Detection of CMY-99, a novel acquired AmpC-type β -lactamase, and VIM-1 in *Proteus mirabilis* isolates in Bulgaria. *Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy*. 2014;58(1):620-1.
24. Huang CW, Chien JH, Peng RY, et al. Molecular epidemiology of CTX-M-type extended-spectrum β -lactamase-producing *Proteus mirabilis* isolates in Taiwan. *International journal of antimicrobial agents*. 2015;45(1):84-5.
25. Ashfaq S, Ahmad M, Zafar M, et al. Medicinal plant biodiversity used among the rural communities of arid regions of northern Punjab, Pakistan. *Indian J Trad Knowl*. 2019;18(2):226-241.
26. Forbes B, Sahm D, Weissfeld A. *Bailey & Scott's Diagnostic Microbiology-Text and Study Guide Package*. New York: Elsevier 2007.
27. Mahon C, Lehman D, Manuselis G. *Text Book of Diagnostic Microbiology*, New York: Elsevier 2011.
28. Mohanty S, Gaiind R, Ranjan R, Deb M. Use of the cefepime-clavulanate ESBL Etest for detection of extended-spectrum beta-lactamases in AmpC co-producing bacteria. *The Journal of Infection in Developing Countries*. 2010;4(01):024-9.
29. Bakshi R, Walia G, Shikha J. Prevalence of extended spectrum β -lactamases in multidrug resistant strains of gram negative Bacilli. *J Acad Indus Res*. 2013;1(9):558-60.
30. Awari A, Nighute S, Khatoon M. Study of urinary isolates with reference to extended spectrum beta lactamases detection and antibiogram. *Journal of Evolution of Medical and Dental Sciences*. 2013 Mar 4;2(9):1049-56.
31. Aishah QA, Peni I. Antibacterial Activity of Combination of Ethanol Extract of Peppermint Leaves (*Mentha piperita* L.) and Amikacin against *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, and *E. coli*. *J Nutraceut Herbal Med*. 2021;4(1):12-29.
32. Bankova R, Popova TP. Antimicrobial activity in vitro of aqueous extracts of oregano (*Origanum vulgare* L.) and thyme (*Thymus vulgaris* L.). *Int. J. Curr. Microbiol. Appl. Sci*. 2017;6:1-2.
33. Hashim N, Abdullah S, Hassan LS, et al. A study of neem leaves: Identification of method and solvent in extraction. *Materials Today: Proceedings*. 2021;42:217-21.
34. Parbuntari H, Prestica Y, Gunawan R, et al. Preliminary phytochemical screening (qualitative analysis) of cacao leaves (*Theobroma cacao* L.). *Eksakta: Berkala Ilmiah Bidang MIPA* (E-ISSN: 2549-7464). 2018 Oct 30;19(2):40-5.
35. Ahmed Z, Noor AA. 22. Antibacterial activity of *Momordica charantia* L. and *Citrus limon* L. on gram positive and gram negative bacteria. *Pure and Applied Biology (PAB)*. 2020;9(1):207-18.
36. Kibret M, Abera B. Antimicrobial susceptibility patterns of *E. coli* from clinical sources in northeast Ethiopia. *African health sciences*. 2011;11:40-5.
37. Yang X, Chen H, Zheng Y, et al., Disease burden and long-term trends of urinary tract infections: a worldwide report. *Frontiers in public health*. 2022;27:10.
38. Corrie P. How urinary tract infections (UTIs) negatively impact females' quality of life. *Medical News Today*. (2023.) <https://www.medicalnewstoday.com/articles/urinary-tract-infections-utis-females-sleep-sex-quality-of-life> (accessed on: February 19, 2023).
39. Urinalysis (2021). <https://www.mayoclinic.org/tests-procedures/urinalysis/> (accessed on: May 13, 2023).
40. Dongkai, C. Peishan, G. Fengju, L, et al., Urine Culture in Hospitalized Patients during 2014-2018: An Analysis on Pathogen Distribution and Drug Sensitivity. *Hindawi Disease Markers* 2021;1-7.
41. Mancuso G, Midiri A, Gerace E, et al. Urinary tract infections: the current scenario and future prospects. *Pathogens*. 2023;12(4):623.

42. Caneiras C, Lito L, Melo-Cristino J, et al., Community-and hospital-acquired *Klebsiella pneumoniae* urinary tract infections in Portugal: virulence and antibiotic resistance. *Microorganisms*. 2019;7(5):138.
43. *Klebsiella infection* Fact Sheet (2023) <https://www.health.pa.gov> (accessed on: March 24, 2023).
44. Singh R, Rohilla RK, Sangwan K, et al. Bladder management methods and urological complications in spinal cord injury patients. *Indian journal of orthopaedics*. 2011;45:141-7.
45. Cole SJ, Records AR, Orr MW, et al. Catheter-associated urinary tract infection by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is mediated by exopolysaccharide-independent biofilms. *Infection and immunity*. 2014;82(5):2048-58.
46. Mishra SK, Dash S, Mishra A, et al., In-vitro study of the activity of some medicinal plant leaf extracts on urinary tract infection causing bacterial pathogens isolated from indigenous people of Bolangir district, Odisha, India. *bioRxiv*. 2020;26:2020-6.
47. Timothy K. The Pathogenesis of *E. coli* Urinary Tract Infection. In: *Escherichia coli: Recent Advances on Physiology, Pathogenesis and Biotechnological Applications*. IntechOpen 2017.
48. Sood S, Gupta R. Antibiotic resistance pattern of community acquired uropathogens at a tertiary care hospital in Jaipur, Rajasthan. *Indian journal of community medicine*. 2012;1;37(1):39-44.
49. Akram M, Shahid M, Khan AU. Etiology and antibiotic resistance patterns of community-acquired urinary tract infections in JNMC Hospital Aligarh, India. *Annals of clinical microbiology and antimicrobials*. 2007 Jan;6:1-7.
50. Dash M, Padhi S, Mohanty I, et al. Antimicrobial resistance in pathogens causing urinary tract infections in a rural community of Odisha, India. *Journal of Family and Community Medicine*. 2013;20(1):20-6.
51. Kumar SB, Tumbahangphe M, Shakya J, et al. Uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* in urinary tract infections: A review on epidemiology, pathogenesis, clinical manifestation, diagnosis, treatments and prevention. *Novel Research in Microbiology Journal*. 2022;6(4):1614-34.
52. Storme O, Tirán Saucedo J, Garcia-Mora A, et al. Risk factors and predisposing conditions for urinary tract infection. *Therapeutic advances in urology*. 2019; 11:1756287218814382.
53. Huang Z, Xiao H, Li H, et al. Analysis of the incidence and risk factors of male urinary tract infection following urodynamic study. *European Journal of Clinical Microbiology & Infectious Diseases*. 2017;36:1873-8.
54. Health Direct. <https://www.healthdirect.gov.au> (accessed on: May 11, 2023)
55. He K, Hu Y, Shi JC, et al. Prevalence, risk factors and microorganisms of urinary tract infections in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus: a retrospective study in China. *Therapeutics and clinical risk management*. 2018;26:403-8.
56. Yitayeh L, Gize A, Kassa M et al. Antibigram profiles of bacteria isolated from different body site infections among patients admitted to GAMBY teaching general hospital, Northwest Ethiopia. *Infection and Drug resistance*. 2021;15:2225-32.
57. Galani I, Souli M, Panagea T, et al. Prevalence of 16S rRNA methylase genes in *Enterobacteriaceae* isolates from a Greek university hospital. *Clinical Microbiology and Infection*. 2012;18(3):E52-4.
58. Miryala SK, Anbarasu A, Ramaiah S. Gene interaction network approach to elucidate the multidrug resistance mechanisms in the pathogenic bacterial strain *Proteus mirabilis*. *Journal of Cellular Physiology*. 2021;236(1):468-79.
59. Ballén V, Gabasa Y, Ratia C, et al. Antibiotic resistance and virulence profiles of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* strains isolated from different clinical sources. *Frontiers in Cellular and Infection Microbiology*. 2021;11:738223.
60. Alqurashi E, Elbanna K, Ahmad I, et al. Antibiotic Resistance in *Proteus mirabilis*: Mechanism, Status, and Public Health Significance. *Journal of Pure & Applied Microbiology*. 2022;16(3): 1550-61.
61. Ventola CL. The antibiotic resistance crisis: part 1: causes and threats. *Pharmacy and therapeutics*. 2015;40(4):277.

62. Dehkordi EB, Tajbakhsh E, Momtaz H. Molecular characterization of *Enterobacter cloacae* isolated from urinary tract infections. *Jundishapur J. Microbiol.* 2022;15:e122718.
63. Akbari M, Bakhshi B, Peerayeh SN. Particular distribution of *Enterobacter cloacae* strains isolated from urinary tract infection within clonal complexes. *Iranian biomedical journal.* 2016;20(1):49.
64. What Causes *E. cloacae* Complex? <https://www.emedicinehealth.com> (accessed on: May 11, 2023).