

Journal of Advances in Medical and Pharmaceutical Sciences

Volume 25, Issue 5, Page 43-64, 2023; Article no.JAMPS.102224 ISSN: 2394-1111

Plasmid-encoded Antibiotic Resistant Bacteria of Surgical Wound Isolates from Three Hospitals in Akoko Land

Glory O. Iroha^a, Timothy O. Adejumo^a, Oludare T. Osuntokun^{a*} and Morenike E. Coker^b

^a Department of Microbiology, Adekunle Ajasin University, Akungba-Akoko, Ondo State, Nigeria. ^b Department of Pharmaceutical Microbiology, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria.

Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration among all authors. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Article Information

DOI: 10.9734/JAMPS/2023/v25i5620

Open Peer Review History:

This journal follows the Advanced Open Peer Review policy. Identity of the Reviewers, Editor(s) and additional Reviewers, peer review comments, different versions of the manuscript, comments of the editors, etc are available here: https://www.sdiarticle5.com/review-history/102224

Original Research Article

Received: 02/05/2023 Accepted: 04/07/2023 Published: 21/07/2023

ABSTRACT

Introduction: The study evaluates a rapid and dependable method of identifying plasmid-encoded antibiotic resistant bacteria isolated from surgical wound samples of twenty-nine patients from three General hospitals in Akoko South West (Iwaro Oka), Akoko North East (Ikare), and Akoko North West (Irun),Ondo State, Nigeria, using standard microbiological techniques.

Materials and Methods: Antibiotic sensitivity test (AST) was carried out, plasmid-encoded antibiotic resistant bacteria were determined and plasmids were cured.

Results: Seven bacteria were isolated, two (2) were Gram-positive: *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Streptococcus viridians*, and five (5) Gram-negative *Enterobacter agglomerans*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Pseudomonas fluorescens*, *Morganella morganii biogrp 1* and *Serratia liquefaciens*. The total bacterial counts ranged from 4.3×10^4 to 9.9×10^4 cfu/ml. The highest colony count (9.9 x 10^4 cfu/ml) was obtained from General Hospital, Iwaro-Oka, while the least (4.3×10^4 cfu/ml) was obtained from Irun General Hospital. The AST result showed that most isolates were sensitive to some of the antibiotics within the range of 7 mm to 25 mm zones of inhibition, while only strains of

^{*}Corresponding author: E-mail: oludare.osuntokun@aaua.edu.ng, osuntokun4m@gmail.com, osuntokun4m@yahoo.com;

Pseudomonas.fluorescens were resistant to ciprofloxacin, pefloxacin, streptomycin, chloramphenicol, amoxicillin, gentamicin, augmentin, sparfloxacin, tarivid, and septrin. Four out of the five resistant *Pseudomonas. fluorescens* strains had plasmid bands ranging from 2.27 kbp to 23.13 kbp molecular weight with thick bands.

Discussion: the plasmid-encoded antibiotic resistance bacteria were sensitive to the same antibiotics which were initially resistant. It was recommended that increased attention be paid to stricter infection control practices across the three local government areas.

Conclusion: Health authorities should include profile epidemiology in infection control policies to detect the resistance level of isolates and adopt effective methods of administration of antibiotics before widespread infection.

Keywords: Surgical wounds; resistance; plasmid-mediated; curing; multidrug.

1. INTRODUCTION

Wound is defined as damage to the integrity of tissues includina skin. biological mucus membranes, and organ tissues. Wound can also be defined as any breach in the skin surface: trauma, accident, surgical operation, or burns, which provides an open door for bacterial infection following the loss of skin integrity. It thus produces а moist, warm and nutritive environment that is conducive to colonization and proliferation of opportunistic and pathogenic microorganisms [1,2,3]. The common bacterial pathogens that are associated with wounds infections include both Gram-positive and negative bacteria such as Staphylococcus aureus, Escherichia coli, Streptococcus pyogens, aeruginosa, Pseudomonas Proteus spp, Streptococcus sppand Enterococcus spp [4,5].

Surgical wound infections are caused by microbial contamination of site or wound infection from the surgical site within the convalescent period [6]. All surgical wounds are contaminated by microbes, but in most cases, infection does not develop because innate host defenses are quite efficient in the elimination of contaminants. A complex interplay between host, microbial, and surgical factors ultimately determines the prevention or establishment of a wound infection, which subsequently results to prolong recovery, delayed discharge and increases the cost of treatment for both the patients and health service [7]. This is a serious problem globally and particularly in Africa and other developing countries where inadequate resources and skilled personnel among others are contributing to the acquisition and spread of infections [8].

Surgical wound infection (SWI) just as other healthcare-associated infections (HCAIs) is a major safety concern in hospitals. It tremendously impacts negatively on the patient's well-being as well as the health-care personnel and financial resources for managing the condition. Despite the numerous preventive measures recommended for its reduction, SWIs continue to occur among surgical patients with substantial increase in the cost of healthcare, prolonged hospitalisation and jeopardised health outcomes [9]. Prevention is indicative of the need to reduce the incidence and severity of surgical wound infections in order to prevent the spread of wound infections to other patients, staff, visitors and the environment [10]. Antibiotics help both in the prevention and treatment of surgical wound infections such as prophylaxis. They are preferably narrow-spectrum antimicrobials used to reduce the emergence of resistance and for covering the most likely wound contaminants microorganisms [11].

Plasmid-encoded antibiotic resistance encompasses most classes of antibiotics currently in clinical use therapy including cephalosporins. fluoroquinolones. and aminoglycosides. Vancomvcin resistance in Enterococci (VRE) is due to the presence of gene Tn1546 cluster residing in vanA transposon, which is carried on plasmids. Vancomycin resistant S. aureus (VRSA) resulted because of transfer of plasmids from VRE to MRSA. Tetracycline resistance in Stapylococcus aureus, erythromycin resistance in Enterococcus fecalis, multidrug resistance in S. aureus are also plasmid-mediated. Resistance to penicillins and cephalosprorins several members in of enterobacteriaceae is by plasmid mediated extended-spectrum beta-lactamases (ESBL) and AmpC beta-lactamases. Plasmid-encoded Klebsiella pneumoniae carbapenemases (KPCs) found are now been in range а of Enterobacteriaceae, including Escherichia coli, Enterobacter spp, Citrobacter spp, Salmonella spp, Serratia marcescens, Proteus mirabilis, and Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Beta-lactamase penicillin Haemophilus resistance to in influenzae, Neisseria gonorrhoeae, metallo-betalactamase (MBL) production in *Acinetobacter* spp and *Pseudomonas* spp, and tetracycline resistance in gonococci are other examples of plasmid-mediated antibiotic resistance [12,13].

According to Dohem [14], surgical wound infection (SWI) among many others is said to be an important cause of postoperative mortality. despite the use of prophylactics, antibiotics and other preventive measures due to the antibiotic resistance developed and its increasing alarming rate. Such has been reported by Al-Qurayshi et al. [15] that in readmission of a significant mortality risk and high burden on the health system. Skin-derived microorganisms such as Staphylococcus aureus and coagulase negative Staphylococcus are mostly implicated in SWI, and the antimicrobial resistance among these and other clinically important pathogens is an increasing problem [14]. Thus, the emergence of antimicrobial resistance in the hospital pattern has also presented a challenge in providing good quality patient care as these microorganisms continue to exhibit high resistance to single and multi-antimicrobia [16].

The objective of this work is to study the plasmidencoded antibiotic resistance of bacterial isolates from surgical wound from three hospitals in Akoko land, Ondo state, Nigeria, with the hope that the alarming trend of resistance microorganisms will be stopped, and the everincreasing number of infections caused by multiple drug resistant organisms will be dealt with.'

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Sample Collection

A total of twenty-nine wound swabs were aseptically collected from General hospitals located in three local government areas: Akoko South-west, Akoko North-east and Akoko Northwest in Ondo State, Nigeria, using the standard microbiological technique [17]. Sterile cotton wool swabs were used to collect samples from surgical wound patients with evidence of infection. The sample bottles were then transported to the Microbiology laboratory of Adekunle Ajasin University, Akungba Akoko, Ondo State.

2.2 Preparation and Inoculation of Samples

The pour plate method of Collins and Lyne [18] was used. The pour plate method was used for

culturing. The swab stick used in collecting the wound sample was aseptically transferred carefully into each of the test tubes containing 9.0 ml of cooled sterilized water, each wound sample in different test tubes was mixed thoroughly to ensure dislodgement and even distribution of microorganisms into the suspended sterile water. A ten-fold serial dilution of each 1.0 ml homogenate was prepared. Exactly 1.0 ml of dilution factor 10⁻⁴ and 10⁻⁶ were inoculated into the sterile Petri dishes for culturing. Incubation was carried out at 37°C for 24 hours for bacterial growth. Colonies were counted in order to obtain the total viable count; discrete colonies were purified by sub-culturing and growth was observed under the microscope and then characterized.

2.3 Enumeration of Microbial Colonies

The samples were diluted and several dilutions were plated to ensure that it yielded CFU/ml (colony-forming units per milliliter) in an excellent range. Colony counting was carried out visually by counting the number of visible colonies on the plates to obtain the total viable count. The calculation of colony forming unit (CFU) per ml for the bacteria was based on the formula:

 $CFU/ML = \frac{\text{Number of colonies } \times \text{ dilution factor}}{\text{ml of sample suspension}}$

2.4 Isolation and Characterization of Pure Isolates

Prepared nutrient agar plates.

The plates were then incubated at 37°C for 24 hours. Distinct colonies were picked into nutrient agar slant and stored in the refrigerator for further use [19]. After 24 hours of incubation, the bacterial colonies that developed on nutrient agar plates and Mannitol salt agar plates were subcultured by streaking each colony on the surface of freshly

2.5 Colonial Morphology

The shape, size, pigmentation, elevation and marginal characteristics and Gram staining of the bacterial species were examined on the agar plates after appropriate incubation periods [20].

2.6 Biochemical Tests

This test is done to differentiate the sporeformers from the non-spore-formers. On a clean grease-free slide, a smear of the isolate was made. It was later stained with 5% malachite green for ten minutes. The stain was washed off with distilled water, 0.5% aqueous safranin was used to counter stain for 15 minutes. This was washed off with distilled water and allowed to dry. Spore stained green while the body of the bacterial stained red when viewed under the microscope, The biochemical reagents used included Beta Galactosidase, Arginine Dihydrolase, Lysine Decarboxylase, Omithine Decarboxylase, Citrate Desimmons, Hydrogen Sulphide, Urease, Tryptophane De Amminase, Indole, Voges Proskauer, Oxidase and Nitrogen Dioxide [21].

2.7 Microbact (24E) Kit Identification

The Microbat (24E) used consists of a microplate format of twenty-four substrates in a combination of both 12A and 12B strips. Preparation of 18 to 24 hours old culture of the organism to be identified, oxidase test was performed which must be negative or positive for 24E kit. The selected isolate colony was emulsified in saline, test strips were placed in a holding tray and the back seal was peeled and addition of four drops of bacterial suspension to each well, the addition of two drops of mineral oil to the wells, the seal was replaced and incubated at 37°C for 18 to 24 hours, the tray was removed from the incubator and appropriate reagents were added. The result was then recorded and interpreted using the MicrobactTM identification software package [22]. A parity check was performed by inoculating a purity plate with one drop of bacteria suspension and incubating at 37°C for 24 hours. Well, 13 were read at 24 to 48 hours for Enterobacteriaceae and at 48 hours for miscellaneous Gram-negative bacilli (MGNB). Well, 24 was interpreted differently at 24 and 48 hours. A nitrate reduction test was done on well 7 after reading the O-nitrophenyl-beta-D-galactose ranoside (ONPG) reaction. Performance was monitored by testing appropriate control strains (Oxoid Limited).

2.8 Antibiotics Susceptibility Testing

The antibiotics used and their corresponding concentrations are as follows: ciprofloxacin-30µg, amoxicillin-5µg, septrin-30µg, rocephin-30µg, gentamicin-30µg, zinnzce-30µg, strepto mycin-30µg, erythromycine-5µg, ampiclox-30µg, cephalexin-10µg and pefloxacin-10µg for Grampositive organism and ciprofloxacin-30µg, septrin -30µg, amoxicillin-5µg, augmentin-10µg, strepto mycin-30µg, chloraphenicol-30µg, gent amicin-30µg tarivid-10µg, pefloxacin-10µg, sparylo xacin-5µg, cephalexin-10µg were used on Gramnegative organisms.The plate diffusion technique of Williamson *et al.* (2017) was used. Overnight cultures of the organisms were swabbed on sterile Muller Hilton solidified Agar plates using sterile swab sticks. The multiple antibiotic discs were placed on the agar surface and pressed using sterile forceps to ensure complete contact with the agar. All the plates were incubated at 37° C for 24 hours. The zones of inhibition were measured at the point at which an obvious demarcation between growth and no growth could be seen using a meter rule. The zones of inhibition were measured and interpreted according to CLSI standards [23,24].

2.9 Plasmid Extraction and Profiling

The previously selected five Pseudomonas fluorescens isolates recovered from surgical wounds that showed resistance to multidrug (pefloxacin. streptomycin, tarivid. septrin. sparfloxacin, chloramphenicol, amoxicillin. ciprofloxacin) were used. The method of Mbim et al. [25] and Munita and Arias (2016) were used, and the cultures were inoculated on TBS and incubated at 37°C for 24 hrs. Half of one milliliter (0.5ml) of the culture were transferred into a microfuge tube and the same volume of phenol: chloroform: isoamyl-alcohol (25:24:1) was added. The phenol was saturated with Tris EDTA buffer (10Mm Tris, 1 mM EDTA with final pH 7.5) before mixing with chloroform and isoamyl alcohol. The microfuge tube containing mixtures was vortexed speed and tubes were centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 5 minutes, then upper aqueous phase (0.45ml) leaving the interphase intact was collected in another microfuge tube containing 0.5ml isopropanol. The microfuge tubes were mixed well and centrifuged immediately at 12,000 rpm for five minutes. The supernatant was discarded, 70% ethanol (0.5ml) was added to the side of the tube carefully and centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for 10 minutes. The supernatant was discarded and the pellet air dried. Then 25µl of deionized water was added to the dried pellet and stored at -20°C till further use. The resultant plasmid of multidrug-resistant Pseudomonas fluorescens was separated using ael electrophoresis Agarose gel (0.8%) containing 1X TBE buffer. 90V for 1hr. The resulting bands were visualized under the UV trans-illuminator and compared with 100bp and 1kb ladder [25,26,27].

2.10 Plasmid Curing

The methods of Spengler et al. [28] and Mengesha et al. (2019) were used. Ten milliliters

of each of the five selected multidrug-resistant Pseudomonas fluorescens isolates were inoculated into peptone water and incubated for 24 hours then introduced into test tubes containing 50 mg/ml of Ethidium bromide and incubated for 24 hrs at 37°C. Later, one milliliter of the selected culture was exposed to 50 mg/ml of Ethidium bromide for plasmid curing and was inoculated onto nutrient agar plates and then incubated at 37°C for 24 hrs. From the growth observed after 24 hrs. the curing of the plasmid in the isolate was confirmed by testing with the antibiotics they were resistant to same previously, to know if they have been partially or fully cured [27].

3. RESULTS

3.1 Morphological Characteristics of Bacterial Isolates

The colonial and morphological characteristics of Seven [7] isolates: Enterobacter agglomerans, Klebsiella pneumoniae. Pseudomonas fluorescens. Staphylococcus aureus. Morganella morganii biogrp1, Serratia liquefaciens and Streptococcus viridians, Table 1 showed different colours such as slow brownish, slimy white, green-brown, orange, gravish white, white red and grey beaded respectively. Out of the seven isolates, E.agglomerans, Pseudomonas. fluoresce ns. S. aureus, M. morganii bio grp1, S.liquefaciens, and S.viridans had circular shapes, while K. pneumoniae had irregular shape.

3.2 Bacterial Count of Surgical Wound Samples

The average total bacteria count in colony forming unit per ml (cfu/ml) of each surgical wound sample showed the range, Irun: from 4.3

x 10^4 to 7.0 x 10^4 cfu/ml. lkare: 4.8 x 10^4 to 7.4 x 10^4 cfu/ml, and Iwaro: 5.6 x 10^4 to 9.9 x 10^4 cfu/ml. The highest bacterial count 9.9 x 10⁴ cfu/ml obtained for surgical samples from Iwaro Oka General hospital while the least count of 4.3 x 10^4 cfu/ml counts was in the surgical samples from Irun General Hospital. The Staphylococcus count for the sample sites ranged from Irun - 1.5x 10^4 to 4.8 x 10^4 cfu/ml, lkare – 2.5 x 10^4 to 6.2 x 10^4 cfu/ml, and Iwaro - 3.1 x 10^4 to 7.2 x 10^4 cfu/ml. The highest count 7.2 x 10^4 cfu/ml was for the surgical samples from Iwaro Oka General hospital, while the least count 1.5 x 10^4 cfu/ml was for the surgical samples from Irun General hospital. The average bacterial count for the samples are: Irun – 5.6×10^4 cfu/ml, Ikare – 5.8×10^4 cfu/ml, Ika 10^4 cfu/ml. and Iwaro - 8.0 x 10^4 cfu/ml. The count was significantly different at 95% confidence limit. The female surgical samples had a higher count than the male which are 21 and 8 respectively.

3.3 Biochemical Characteristics of Wound Isolates Using Microbact Kit

Biochemical characteristics of wound isolates using Microbat Kit confirmed the isolated organisms: Enterobacter agglomerans, Klebsiella pneumoniae, Pseudomonas fluorescens. Staphylococcus aureus, Morganella morganii biogrp1, Serratia liquefaciens and Streptococcus viridans based on the differences in the biochemical activities (Table 2). The result of sugar fermentation on wound isolates using Microbact Kit. to determine the ability of the organisms to ferment sugar (Table 2). Enterobacter agglomerans, Klebsiella pneumoniae, Pseudomonas fluorescens. Staphylococcus aureus, Morganella morganii biogrp1, Serratia liquefaciens, and Streptococcus viridans to ferment sugar glucose.

 Table 1. Colonial and morphological characteristics of bacteria isolated from surgical wound samples

S/N	Colour	Shape	Edge	Elevation	Organism
1	Slow brownish	Circular	Lobate	Convex	Enterobacter agglomerans
2	Slimy white	Irregular	Lobate	Flat	Klebsiella pneumoniae
3	Green to brown	Circular	Entire	Convex	Pseudomonas fluorescens
4	Orange	Circular	Entire	Convex	Staphylococcus aureus
5	Grayish white	Circular	Entire	Convex	Morganella morganii bio grp 1
6	White to red	Circular	Smooth	Raised	Serratia liquefaciens
7	Grey beaded	Circular	Entire	Flat	Streptococcus viridans

ARA

Organism	ONPG	ADH	LDC	ODC	CIT	H₂S	URE	TDA	IND	VP	ОΧ	N0 ₂	GEL	GLU	MAN	INO	SOR	RHA	SAC	MEL	AMY
Enterobacter	-ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	-ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	-ve	-ve	+ve	+ve
agglomerans Klebsiella pneumoniae	-ve	+ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	+ve							
Pseudomonas	-ve	-ve	-ve	+ve	+ve	-ve	+ve	+ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve

Table 2. Biochemical characteristics and Sugar fermentation of wound isolates using microbact kit

Enterobacter	1/0	11/0	11/0	11/0	11/0	1/0	11/0	11/0	11/0	11/0	11/0	11/0	11/0	11/0	11/0	11/0	11/0	1/0	1/0	11/0	11/0	11/0
	-ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	-ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	-ve	-ve	+ve	+ve	+ve
agglomerans																						
Klebsiella	-ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	+ve	+ve
pneumoniae																						
Pseudomonas	-ve	-ve	-ve	+ve	+ve	-ve	+ve	+ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	+ve
fluorescens																						
Staphylococcus	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	-ve	-ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	-ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	-ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve
aureus																						
Morganella	-ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	-ve	-ve	+ve	-ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	-ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve
morganii																						
biogrp 1																						
Serratia	-ve	-ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	-ve	-ve	+ve	-ve	-ve	+ve	+ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	+ve	-ve
liquefaciens																						
Streptococcus	-ve	-ve	+ve	+ve	+ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	+ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve	+ve
viridans																						
KEYS : +ve = suga			-ve =	sugar n	ot ferme	nted																
Names of biochemi	ical reage	ents use	d:																			
ONPG = Beta Gala	actosidas	e AD	H = Arg	inine Di	hydrolas	e L	.DC = L	ysine D	ecarbon	xylase	0	DC = 0	mithine	Decarbo	nxylase							
CIT = Citrate Des	immons	H_2 S	S = Hydr	ogen Si	ulphide	L	IRE = U	Írease,		-	TL	$\mathbf{D}\mathbf{A} = Tr$	yptophar	ne De An	nminase	э,						
IND = Indole		VP	= Voge	s Prosk	auer	C	$\mathbf{X} = Ox$	idase			N	$O_2 = Nit$	trogen D	ioxide								
KEY: +ve = sugar f	ermented	d	-ve = su	igar not i	fermente	d																
Names of biochemi	cal reage	ents use	d:																			

- Gelatin Hydrolyse GLU- Glucose MAN- Mannitol, INO- Inositol GEL

SOR - Sorbitol RHA – Rhaminose SAC – Saccharide MEL - Melibiose, AMY – Amygdalin ARA -Arabinose

3.4 Antibiotic Sensitivity Tests on Surgical wound Isolates (Grampositive Isolates)

The antibiotic sensitivity test on eight Grampositive isolates: three strains of Staphylococcus aureus and five strains of Streptococcus viridans was presented in Table 4. Out of three strains of S.aureus, two strains were susceptible to streptomycin, and resistant to ciprofloxacin, septrin. rocephin. gentamicin. Zinacef. amoxicillin, erythromycin, ampiclox, pefloxacin, and cephalexin respectively while one strain was resistant to all the antibiotics used. Among the five strains of S.viridans, one strain was susceptible to rocephin and cephalexin but resistant to others, while four strains were resistant to all the antibiotics used. Differences in the inhibition zones across the test organisms at P = 0.05.

3.5 Antibiotic Sensitivity Tests on Surgical wound Isolates (Gramnegative Isolates)

A total of fourteen Gram-negative isolates: two strains of Enterobacter agglomerans, one strain of Klebsiella pneumoniae, seven strains of Pseudomonas fluorescens, three strains of Serratia liquefaciens, and one strain of Morganella morganii biogrp 1 were used for antibiotic sensitivity test against eleven ciprofloxacin. antibiotics: septrin. chloramphenicol, amoxicillin, streptomycin, tarivid, sparfloxacin, cephalexin, pefloxacin,

augmentin and gentamicin (Table 5). Out of the two strains of Enterobacter agglomerans. one strain was resistant to tarivid and amoxicillin. and the other strain was resistant to ciprofloxacin and cephalexin, but the two strains were sensitive to other antibiotics. K.pneumoniae was resistant to streptomycin and cephalexin but susceptible to ciprofloxacin, septrin. chloramphenicol, amoxicillin, tarivid, sparfloxacin, pefloxacin, augmentin and gentamicin respectively. Morganella morganii biogrp1 was chloramphenicol. resistant to septrin. sparfloxacin, and amoxicillin but sensitive to ciprofloxacin, tarivid, cephalexin, augmentin, pefloxacin and streptomycin gentamicin, respectively. Three strains of S.liquefaciens were susceptible to all antibiotics. Seven strains of P. luorescens were resistant to all the antibiotics.

3.6 Antibiotic Sensitivity Test of Five Multidrug Resistant Pseudomonas Fluorescens Cured Plasmids

Multidrug resistance was common for Gramnegative isolates. Out of the fourteen isolates used for Gram-negative Antibiotic Sensitivity Test, seven strains of *Pseudomonas fluorescens* were found susceptible to augmentin and gentamicin, but resistant to pefloxacin, tarivid, streptomycin, chloramphenicol, septrin, sparfloxacin, amoxicillin, ciprofloxacin, and cephalexin used for the test. Out of seven strains of *Pseudomonas fluorescens*, five strains were analyzed (Table 6),

S/N	Number	Organism	
1	47734160	Enterobacter agglomerans	
2	147774560	Enterobacter agglomerans	
3	547126664	Enterobacter agglomerans	
4	45276164	Enterobacter agglomerans	
5	144752300	Morganella morganiibiogrp1	
6	46630144	Proridencia stuartti	
7	540146522	Pseudomonas fluorescens	
8	452072600	Pseudomonas fluorescens	
9	541432000	Pseudomonas fluorescens	
10	47274556	Serratia liquefaciens	

Table 3. Probable identity of the isolated bacteria using microbact identification kit

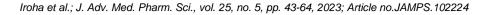
ORGANISM	СРХ	ZIN	STR	ERY	PEF	AMX	SXT	ROC	APX	GEN	CNX
Staphylococcus	11.0±1.0 ^b	13.6±0.3 ^e	0.0	13.0±0.5 [°]	13.0±0.0 ^e	13.0±0.5 ^b	10.0±1.0 ^a	20.0±0.5 [†]	13.0±0.1 [†]	20.0±0.1 [†]	20.0±1.0 ^g
aureus											
Staphylococcus	10.0±0.1 ^a	12.0±0.3 ^c	0.0	14.0±0.8 ^d	12.0±0.6 ^b	11.0±0.2 ^a	13.0±0.3 ^d	16.0±0.1 [°]	11.0±0.5 [°]	10.0±0.2 ^b	15.0±0.4 ^e
aureus											
Staphylococcus	11.0±0.4 ^b	8.0±0.1 ^a	7.0±0.0 ^b	12.0±0.5 ^b	11.0±0.2 ^a	13.0±0.3 ^b	12.0±0.3 ^c	17.0±0.2 ^d	11.0±0.1 ^d	15.0±0.7 ^e	14.0±0.0 ^d
aureus											
Streptococcus	13.0±0.3 ^d	9.0±0.0 ^b	13.0±0.2 ^e	12.0±0.0 ^b	25.0±0.5 ^h	21.0±0.4 ^f	14.0±0.5 ^e	13.0±0.5 ^b	13.0±0.5 ^f	11.0±0.0 ^c	12.0±0.3 ^c
varidians											
Streptococcus	11.0±0.3 [♭]	13.0±0.3 ^c	10.0±0.6 ^c	14.0±0.5 ^d	17.0±0.5 [†]	18.0±0.0 ^d	13.0±0.0 ^d	13.0±0.2 [♭]	10.0±0.3 ^a	20.0±0.4 ^g	14.0±0.4 ^d
varidians											
Streptococcus	13.0±0.3 ^d	12.0±0.0 ^c	13.0±0.5 ^e	11.0±0.6 ^a	16.0±0.5 ^e	14.0±0.4 ^c	11.0±0.2 [♭]	0.0	11.0±0.1 ^e	12.0±0.1 ^d	0.0
varidians											
Streptococcus	11.0±0.2 ^b	14.0±0.3 ^c	10.0±0.0 ^c	17.0±0.3 [†]	21.0±0.0 ^g	19.0±0.0 ^e	13.0±0.6 ^d	23.0±0.1 ^g	24.0±0.2 ^g	25.0±0.4 ^h	18.0±0.0 [†]
varidians											
Streptococcus	12.0±0.0 ^c	13.0±0.2 ^d	12.0±0.3 ^d	15.0±0.3 ^d	14.0±0.2 ^c	14.0±0.2 ^c	12.0±0.0 ^c	18.0±0.0 ^e	10.0±0.4 ^b	8.0±00 ^a	11.0±0.7 ^b
varidians											

Table 4. Antibiotic sensitivity test of the Gram positive surgical wound isolates

Keys: - Different alphabets on the same column indicate significant difference of the zones of inhibition at P > or = 0.05.

Names of antibiotics used:

CPX	=Ciprofloxacin -30µg	AMX	= Amoxicillin -5µg	GEN	= Gentamicin -30µg	APX = Ampiclox -30µ	SXT =Septrin -30µg
STR	= Streptomycin -30µg	ZIN	<i>=</i> Zinacef -30μg	PEF	=Pefloxacin -10µg		
ROC	=Rocephin -30µg	ERY	= Erythromycin -5µg	CNX	= Cephalexin -10µg		



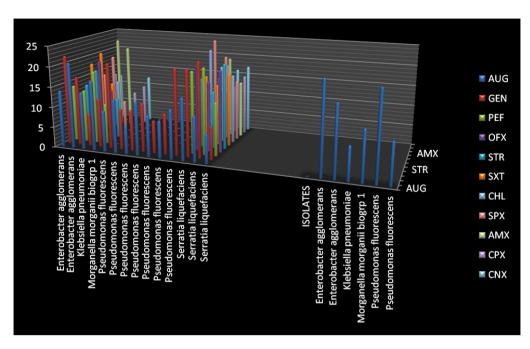


Fig. 1. Antibiotic sensitivity test of Gram negative surgical wound isolates

Keys: - Names of antibiotics used:												
CPX	=	Ciprofloxacin -30µg	AMX	=	Amoxicillin -5µg							
SXT	=	Septrin -30µg	STR	=	Streptomycin -30µg							
AUG	=	Augmentin -10µg	CHL	=	Chloramphenicol -30µg							
GEN	=	Gentamicin -30µg	OFX	=	Tarivid -10µg							
PEF	=	Pefloxacin -10µg	SPX	=	Sparyloxacin -5µg							
CNX	=	Cephalexin -10µg										

Figs 2-12: Denotes Frequency Distribution of Augmentin (AUG) against Surgical Wound Isolate from Three General Hospital in Akoko land.

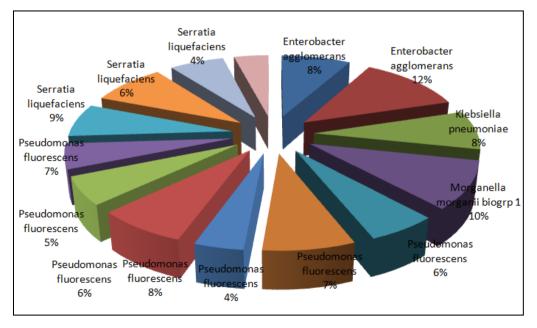
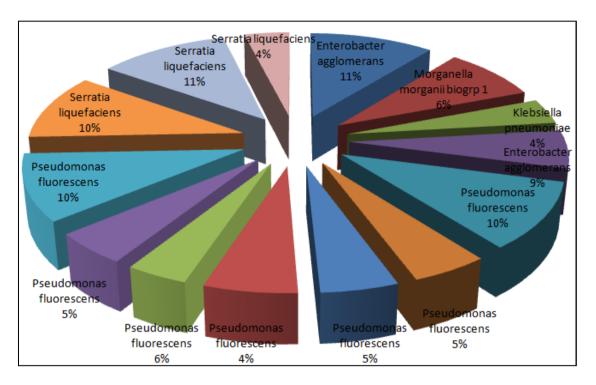


Fig. 2. Frequency distribution of augmentin (AUG) against surgical wound isolate from Three General Hospital in Akoko land



Iroha et al.; J. Adv. Med. Pharm. Sci., vol. 25, no. 5, pp. 43-64, 2023; Article no.JAMPS.102224

Fig. 3. Frequency Distribution of Gentamicin (GEN) against Surgical Wound Isolate from Three General Hospital in Akoko land

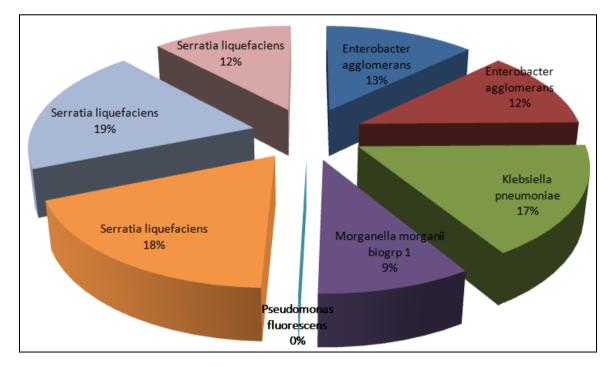


Fig. 4. Frequency distribution of Pefloxacin (PEF) against Surgical Wound Isolate from Three General Hospital in Akoko land

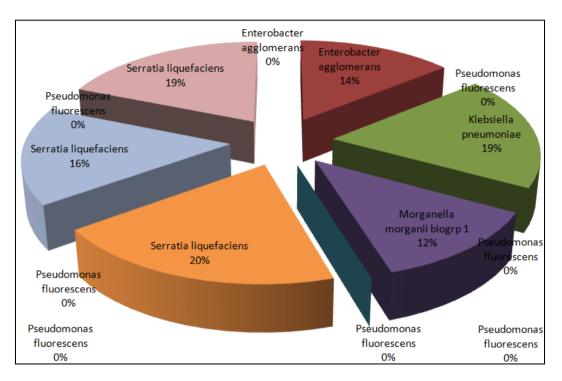


Fig. 5. Frequency distribution of Tarivid (OFX) against Surgical Wound Isolate from Three General Hospital in Akoko land

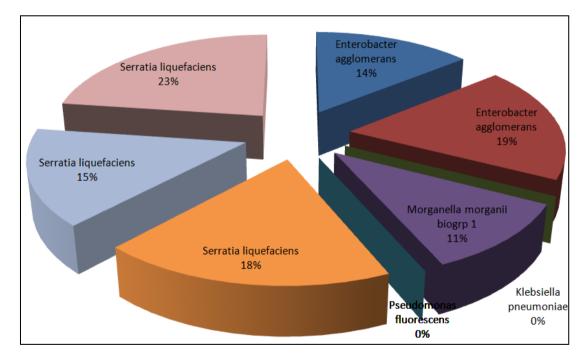
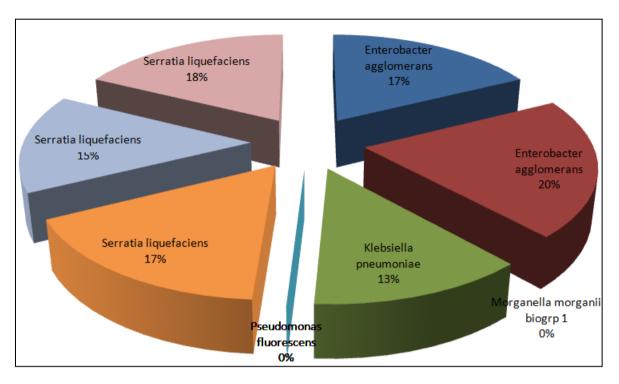


Fig. 6. Frequency distribution of Streptomycin (STR) against Surgical Wound Isolate from Three General Hospital in Akoko land



Iroha et al.; J. Adv. Med. Pharm. Sci., vol. 25, no. 5, pp. 43-64, 2023; Article no.JAMPS.102224

Fig. 7. Frequency distribution of Septrin (SXT) against Surgical Wound Isolate from Three General Hospital in Akoko land

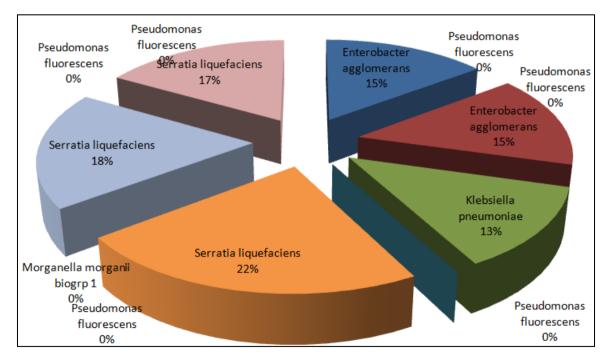


Fig. 8. Frequency distribution of Chloramphenicol (CHL) against Surgical Wound Isolate from Three General Hospital in Akoko land

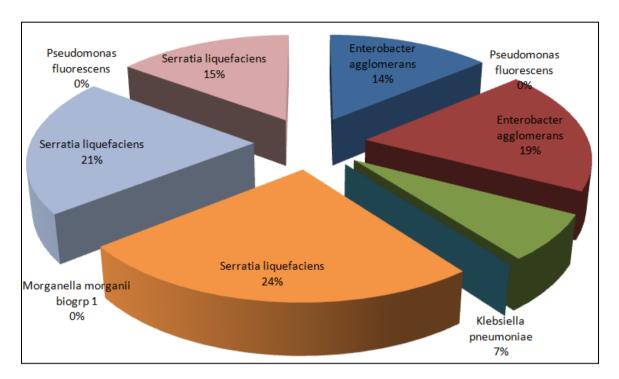


Fig. 9. Frequency Distribution of Sparyloxacin (SPX) against Surgical Wound Isolate from Three General Hospital in Akoko land

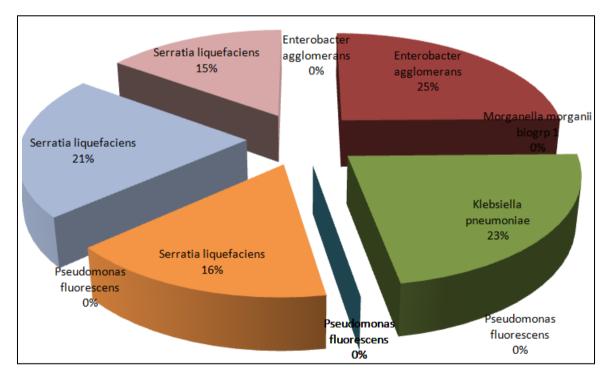


Fig. 10. Frequency distribution of Amoxicillin (AMX) against Surgical Wound Isolate from Three General Hospital in Akoko land

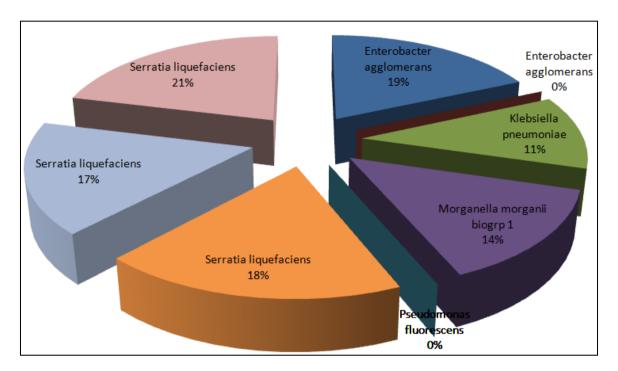


Fig. 11. Frequency distribution of Ciprofloxacin (CPX) against Surgical Wound Isolate from Three General Hospital in Akoko land

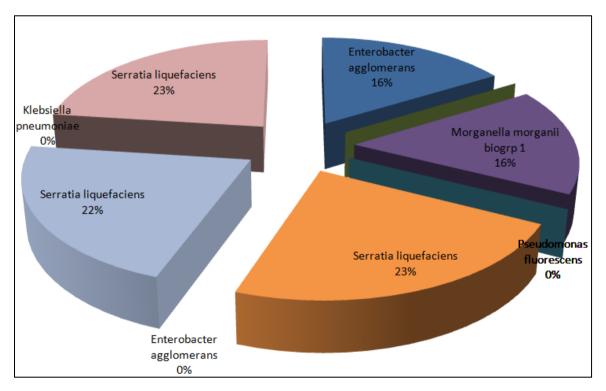


Fig. 12. Frequency distribution of Cephalexin (CNX) against Surgical Wound Isolate from Three General Hospital in Akoko land

 Table 5. Antibiotic sensitivity test of five multidrug resistant Pseudomonas fluorescens whose plasmids have been cured with 50mg/ml Ethidium bromide isolates (mm)

ISOLATES	AUG	GEN	PEF	OFX	STR	SXT	CHL	SPX	AMX	СРХ	CNX
Pseudomonas fluorescens	17.4±0.5 ^a	14.0±1.0 ^a	15.0±8.2 ^b	18.0±0.4 ^b	23.0±0.2 ^b	21.0±1.0 ^a	26.0±0.3 ^d	27.0±0.0 ^a	32.0±0.7 ^a	27.0v0.4 ^c	17.0±0.5 ^a
Pseudomonas fluorescens	21.0±0.7 ^c	16.0±0.3 ^b	17.0±0.4 ^c	16.0±0.5 ^ª	21.0±0.5 ^a	23.0±0.4 ^b	24.0±0.1 ^b	32.0±0.6 ^c	34.0±0.3 ^b	24.1±0.2 ^b	28.0±±0.0 ^e
Pseudomonas fluorescens	27.0±0.6 ^e	18.0±0.0 ^c	15.0±0.2 ^a	26.0±0.0 ^e	25.0±0.4 ^c	23.1±0.2 ^b	25.0±0.0 ^c	31.0±0.7 ^c	32.0±0.1 ^a	29.0±0.1 ^d	19.0±0.5 ^b
Pseudomonas fluorescens	19.0±0.2 ^b	31.0±0.6 ^e	17.0±0.5 ^d	24.0 ± 0.0^{d}	27.0±0.3 ^e	26.0±0.1 ^c	25.0±0.0 ^c	34.0±0.1 ^d	31.0±0.1 ^a	23.0±0.2 ^a	27.0±0.1 ^d
Pseudomonas fluorescens	25.0±0.5 ^d	27.0±0.3 ^d	17.0±0.5 ^e	23.0±0.6 ^c	26.0 ± 0.0^{d}	23.0±0.6 ^b	21.0±0.6 ^a	29.0±0.0 ^b	36.0±0.5 ^c	30.0±0.5 ^e	26.0±0.1 ^c

Keys: - Different alphabets on the same column indicates significant difference at P = 0.05.

Names of antibiotics used:	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	ő
AUG = Augmentin 30µg	GEN = Gentamicin 30µg	
PEF = Pefloxacin 10µg	OFX = Tarivid 5µg	
STR = Streptomycin 5µg	SXT = Septrin 30µg	
CHL = Chloramphenicol 30µg	$SPX = Sparyloxacin 5\mu g$	
AMX = Amoxicillin 30µg	CPX = Ciprofloxacin 5µg	CNX = Cephalexin 10µg

Table 6. Antibiotic sensitivity test of five multidrug resistant Pseudomonas fluorescens whose plasmids have been cured with 50mg/ml Ethidium bromide isolates (mm)

ISOLATES	AUG	GEN	PEF	OFX	STR	SXT	CHL	SPX	AMX	СРХ	CNX
Pseudomonas	17.4±0.5 ^ª	14.0±1.0 ^a	15.0±8.2 [⊳]	18.0±0.4 ^b	23.0±0.2 ^b	21.0±1.0 ^a	26.0±0.3 ^d	27.0±0.0 ^a	32.0±0.7 ^a	27.0v0.4 ^c	17.0±0.5 ^ª
fluorescens											
Pseudomonas	21.0±0.7 ^c	16.0±0.3⁵	17.0±0.4 ^c	16.0±0.5 ^ª	21.0±0.5 ^a	23.0±0.4 ^b	24.0±0.1 ^b	32.0±0.6 ^c	34.0±0.3 ^b	24.1±0.2 ^b	28.0±±0.0 ^e
fluorescens											
Pseudomonas	27.0±0.6 ^e	18.0±0.0 ^c	15.0±0.2 ^a	26.0±0.0 ^e	25.0±0.4 ^c	23.1±0.2 ^b	25.0±0.0 ^c	31.0±0.7 ^c	32.0±0.1 ^a	29.0±0.1 ^d	19.0±0.5 ^b
fluorescens											
Pseudomonas	19.0±0.2 ^b	31.0±0.6 ^e	17.0±0.5 ^d	24.0±.0.0 ^d	27.0±0.3 ^e	26.0±0.1 [°]	25.0±0.0 ^c	34.0±0.1 ^d	31.0±0.1 ^a	23.0±0.2 ^a	27.0±0.1 ^d
fluorescens											
Pseudomonas	25.0±0.5 ^d	27.0±0.3 ^d	17.0±0.5 ^e	23.0±0.6 ^c	26.0±0.0 ^d	23.0±0.6 ^b	21.0±0.6 ^a	29.0±0.0 ^b	36.0±0.5 [°]	30.0±0.5 ^e	26.0±0.1 ^c
fluorescens											

Names of antibiotics used:

inferent alphabets on the same column indicates significant difference at = 0.05 eys.

AUG	= Augmentin 30µg	GEN	= Gentamicin 30µg	PEF= Pefloxacin 10µg	OFX = Tarivid 5µg
STR	= Streptomycin 5µg	SXT	= Septrin 30µg CHL =	Chloramphenicol 30µg	$SPX = Sparyloxacin 5\mu g$
AMX	= Amoxicillin 30µg	CPX	= Ciprofloxacin 5µg	CNX =Cephalex10µg	

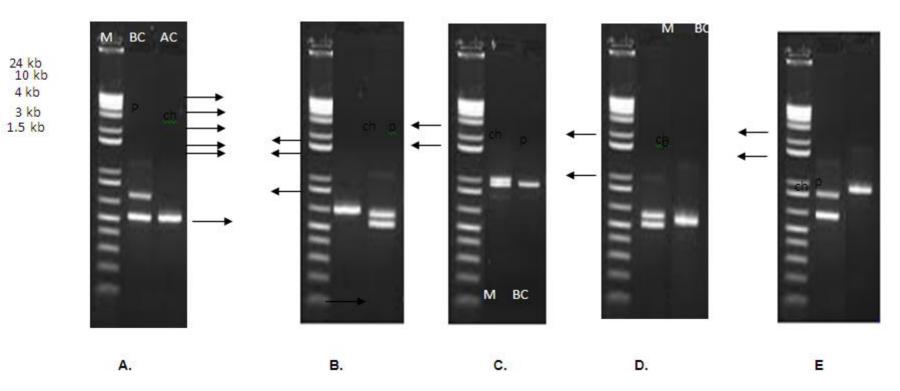


Fig. 13 (A-E). Gel profile of plasmid DNA of Pseudomonas fluorescens isolated from surgical wound sample before and after curing Note: M-molecular marker, ch-chromosomal DNA, p-plasmid DNA, BC-plasmid profile before curing, AC-plasmid profile after curing. The same molecular marker was used throughout the experiment

3.7 Plasmid Profile of *Pseudomonas Fluorescens* Isolated From Wound Samples

The plasmid profiling of *P.fluorescens* showed resistance to cephalexin, pefloxacin, tarivid, streptomycin, septrin. chloramphenicol, sparfloxacin, amoxicillin, and ciprofloxacin. The plasmid-mediated analysis of the five selected multidrug-resistant Pseudomonas fluorescens isolates from the surgical wounds as observed by agarose gel electrophoresis showed plasmid bands in different combinations ranging from 2.27 kbp to 23.13 kbp molecular weight and thick band (Fig. 1) showing the bacterium resistance as plasmid-mediated, and not chromosomally mediated. The molecular markers showed the molecular weight and thickness of each band. The plasmid profile before curing showed two thick bands, while the bands were reduced to a band not as thick as the cured bands.

4. DISCUSSION

One of the most significant problems which are to be raised in connection with Pseudomonas is their antibiotic resistance, particularly in the wound management care unit of hospitals. High consumption of antibiotics has led to an increase in the vulnerability of hospitalized patients to opportunistic infections [29]. As a result of antibiotic resistance especially in the form of multidrug resistance, P. florescens has created a lot of problems. The resistance of this bacterium to various antibiotics as observed in Table 5 increased the significance of controlling this bacterium in hospital surgical wards. From the seven strains of Pseudomonas isolated, all were pefloxacin, resistant towards tarivid, streptomycin, septrin, chloramphenicol, sparfloxacin, amoxicillin and ciprofloxacin.

The information obtained from this study and other research showed that β -Lactam drugs, although are being introduced as one of the anti-Pseudomonas drugs, today have become ineffectual as a result of the organisms developing resistance to the drugs [25]. The rate of Pseudomonas of resistance towards antibiotics is different in various parts of the world due to diverse strains. Plasmids have been extra-chromosomal described as elements capable of independent replications, they are different from chromosomal DNA present in bacteria [25]. As observed by Raghada et al. [30,31], plasmid plays a very significant role in

bacteria species developing multidrug resistance [32].

Plasmid profile analysis reveals the presence, type, size, and number of plasmids in bacterial isolates, which explains to a large extent the drug resistance among the isolates. The agarose gel electrophoresis of plasmid DNA showed that of the five strains of Pseudomonas fluorescens subjected to analysis. All of them [1,2,3,4,5] possessed SHV and CTX-M genes, CTX-M genes are an extended spectrum of ßlactamases (ESBL) with molecular weight ranging between 250bp to 24kb. Plasmid with a size range of 2.9 - 66kb had been reported by Al-Qurayshi et al [15]. Another study conducted in Bangladesh reported plasmid from Escherichia coli isolates, with sizes ranging from 0.5 kb to 40kb [33]. The relatively large plasmid sizes can be directly attributable to multiple genes coding for various resistant phenotypes which may be why the organisms showed resistance to two or more classes of antibiotics [34]. A plasmid analyses study conducted on uropathogenic E. coli isolated from children had plasmid sizes from 1 to 33kb, while some isolates harbor only 1 plasmid of size ranging from 5 to 9kb [34,35].

Similarly, in another study plasmid copy number was observed ranging from 0 to 3kb [36]. The slight variation in results might be due to differences in the origin of the isolated organisms, the geographical distribution of the bacteria, and exposure to different antimicrobials, which explains to a large extent the type of drug resistance among the isolates.

These findings are in agreement with the observations of Oteo et al. [37,38,39]. Getino et al. [40] which revealed that P. fluorescens strains possessed blaCTX-M enzymes which hydrolyze cefotaxime, but are weakly active against ceftazidime. David [41] also stated that Ρ. possess fluorescens species unique characteristics such as the ability to acquire resistance either via mutation or extrachromosomal elements, as well as efflux pump mechanisms; these findings are also consistent with reports of Du et al. [42] and Mbim et al. [25]. It is noted that plasmids encoding SHV and CTX-M enzymes influence the resistance of these species of organisms to antibiotics globally [41]. These combined features enhance the resistance of these organisms to almost all the commonly used antibiotics [43,44]. In this study, probably presumed that the presence of it plasmids encoding SHV and CTX-M enzymes influenced their resistance to pefloxacin, tarivid, streptomycin, septrin, chloramphenicol, sparfloxacin, amoxicillin, and ciprofloxacin. Spengler et al. [28] reported that the curing agent Ethidium bromide acts on the plasmid either through inhibition of plasmid efflux pumps on the plasmid membrane or inhibition of DNA gyrase responsible for plasmid DNA replication.

The susceptibility of the isolates to antimicrobial agents previously resisted confirms the fact that the resistant genes were harboured on the plasmids. This agrees with Raghada et al. [45] that Ethidium bromide that achieved cured cells showed enabling susceptibility to all antibiotics initially resisted, confirming that most of the β -lactamases produced by some of the isolates were plasmid-encoded, and most likely responsible for the resistance of the isolates to antibiotics.

5. CONCLUSION

This study has identified bacteria associated with surgical wounds infections in the study population. The offending organisms include 2 gram positives and 5 gram negatives.SHV plasmid and CTX-enzymes are most likely responsible for the resistance pattern observed .This study has revealed some identified bacteria associated with surgical wound infections in three local government areas: Akoko South-west (Iwaro Oka), Akoko North-east (Ikare), and Akoko North-west (Irun) in Ondo State, Nigeria, Seven bacteria were identified, out of which two were Gram-positive: Staphylococcus aureus and Streptococcus viridans while five were Gramnegative: Enterobacter agglomerans, Klebsiella Pseudomonas pneumoniae. fluorescens. Morganella morganii biogrp 1 and Serratia liquefaciens. Their response to antibiotic sensitivity, SHV plasmid, and CTX-M enzymes probably influenced the resistance. This will help epidemiologists in Ondo State to arrest the spread of resistant isolates.

6. RECOMMENDATIONS

Most of the surgical wound samples analyzed in this study were found to be normal floral or opportunistic pathogens that possess resistance mechanisms due to the high occurrence of resistant *Pseudomonas* spp in hospitals and its environment. Patients and people working in these 3 Local Government areas must pay close attention to their personal hygiene in order to

avoid bacterial infections such as Pseudomonas fluorescens. Furthermore. due to hiah occurrence and frequency of penicillin. cephalexin. vancomycin-resistant and Pseudomonas spp, it is suggested that these antibiotics should not be considered as drugs of choice for treatment of surgical infections. In contrast, ciprofloxacin, gentamicin, and ticarcillin could be used as drugs of choice, as well as piperacillin, ceftriaxone, imipenem, and amikacin as alternatives for the treatment of nosocomial infections due to Pseudomonas spp. in this geographical area. It is unfortunate that there has been no strict application of legal standards relating to the hygienic conditions in our healthcare facilities in Akoko North-west, Akoko Akoko northeast local South-west. and government areas in Ondo State, Nigeria, The microbial contamination may also come from the environment, individuals, healthcare facilities, hospital equipment, or staff. The result suggests that medical practices should ensure the safety of patients now and in the future. The public health implication of the continuous dissemination of multi-resistant bacteria with high-frequency transmissible DNA cannot be overlooked in healthcare facilities. The efforts to develop antimicrobials that can withstand and compete with this trend should continue, and be greatly aided by the rapidly accumulating bank of microbial genome sequences. This will permit the use of bioinformatics and genomic techniques to identify and study new targets. It is hoped that further work will develop alternatives to antibiotics such as bacteriophage derived therapy or chemical agents that can block or reverse resistance pathways. It is also possible that new agents may be found in natural products, an age-old source of antimicrobials.

CONSENT AND ETHICAL APPROVAL

It is not applicable.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors wish to express appreciation to all the technical staff of the laboratory unit of the Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Science, Adekunle Ajasin University, Akungba-Akoko, Ondo State, Nigeria.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCES

- Osuntokun OT, Adesemoye Y. Efficacy of nigerian medicinal plant (Olax Subscorpioidea. Oliv.) root extract against surgical wound isolates. Am J Micro and Bioche. 2019;2(1):001-011.
- 2. Bowler PG, Dureden BI, Amstrong DG. Wound microbiology and associated approaches to wound management. Clinical Microbiology Review. 2001; 14(2):244-269.
- Ohalete CN, Obi RK, Emeakoroha MC. Bacteriology of different wound infection and their antimicrobial susceptibility patterns in Imo state Nigeria. World Journal of Pharmaceutical Science. 2012; 13(3):1155-11172.
- 4. Zhao G, Hochwalt PC, Usui ML. Delayed wound healing in diabetic mice with *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* biofilm challenge a model for the study of chronic wound. Wound Repair and Regeneration. 2010;18(5):467-477.
- Sani RA, Garba SA, Oyewole OA. Antibiotic resistance profile of gram negative bacteria isolated from surgical wounds in Minna, Bida, kontagora and Suleja areas of Niger state. American Journal of Medicine and Medical sciences. 2012;2(1):20-24.
- Horan TC, Gaynes RP, Martone WJ, Jarris WR, Emori TG. Center for disease prevention and control definition of nosocomial surgical site infections: A modification of CDC definitions of surgical wound infection. Infectious Control Hospital Epidemiology. 1992;13:606-608.
- 7. Quinn A, Hill AD, Humphrey H. Evolving issues in prevention of surgical site infections. Surgeon. 2009;7(3):170-172.
- Olowo-okere A, Ibrahim YK, Sun AS, Olayinka BO. Occurrence of surgical site infection at a tertiary health care facility in Abuja, Nigeria; A prospective observational study.Medical science (Based). 2018; 6(3):11:60.
- Goyal R, Pal H, Sandhu S, Kumar A, Kosey S, Hlehra. Surveillance method for surgical site infection. India Journal Pharmaceutical Practical. 2015;8:4-60.
- Berrios-Torres SI, Umscheid CA, Bratzler DW, Leas B, Stone EC, Kelz RR, Reinke CE, SherryMorgan RN, Solomkin JS, Mazuski JE, Dellinger EP, Itani KMF, Berbari EF, Segreti J, Parvizi J, Blanchard J, Allen G, Kluytmans AJW, Donlan R,

Schecter P. Centers for disease control and prevention guideline for the prevention of surgical site infection. JAMA Surgery. 2017;152:784-791.

- Bratzler DW, Dellinger ER, Olsen CM, 11. Perl TM, Auwaerter PG, Bolon MC, Fish DN, Napolitano LM. Infectious disease society of American surgical infection society: society for health care Epidemiology of Am, Sawyer RG, Slain D, Steinberg JP and Weinstein RA. Clinical guidelines for antimicrobial practice prophylaxis in surgery. American Journal Health System Pharmacy. 2013;70(3):195-283.
- 12. Ramirez MS, Traglia GM, Lin DL, Tran T, Tolmarsky E. Plasmid- mediated antibiotic resistant and virulence in gram negatives: the *Klebsiella pneumoniae* paradigm. Microbiology Spectrum. 2014;2(5):1-15.
- Liu YY, Wang Y, Walsh TR. Emergence of plasmid-mediated colistin resistance mechanism MCR-1 in animals and human beings in China: A microbiological and molecular biological study. Lancet Infect Dis. 2016;16(2):161-168.
- 14. Dohem PM. Antibiotic resistance in common pathogens reinforces the need to minimise surgical site infections. Journal of Hospital Infections. 2008;70(2):15-20.
- Al-Qurayshi Z, Walsh J, Owen S, Kondil E. Surgical site infection in head and neck surgery: A national perspective. Otolaryngology Head Neck Surgery. 2019; 161(1):52-62.
- 16. Mengesha RE, Kasa BG, Saravanan M, Berhe DF, Gbreyesus W. Aerobic bacteria in post-surgical wound infections and pattern of antimicrobial susceptibility in Ayder teaching and referral hospital Mekelle, Ethiopia. BioMed Central. 2019; 7:575.
- Cheesebrough M. District laboratory practice in tropical countries. Part 2. Cambridge University Press. 2004;357.
- Collins ČH, Lyne PM. Identification and cultural methods in Microbial Methods. Butterworth, London. 8th Edition. 2004; 119–205.
- 19. Fawole MO, Oso BA. Laboratory manual of microbiology: Revised edition spectrum books Ltd. Ibadan. 2001;127.
- 20. Maier L, Pruteanu M, Kuhn M. Extensive impact of nonantibiotic drugs on human gut bacteria. Nature. 2018;555:623-238.
- 21. Naas T, Oueslati S, Bonnin RA. Betalactamase database (BLDB)- structure and

function. J Enzym Inhib Med Ch. 2017; 32(1):917–919 Pp. 32.

- 22. Osuntokun OT. Comparative study of Antibacterial and Phytochemical Properties of Nigerian Medicinal Plants on Salmonella bongori and Salmonella enteritidis Isolated from Poultry Feaces in Owo Local Government, Ondo State, Nigeria. Archives of current research international. 2015;2(1):1-11.
- 23. Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute. 2016. Methods for antimicrobial dilution and disk susceptibility testing of infrequently isolated or fastidious bacteria, 3rd ed CLSI guideline M45 Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute, Wayne, PA.
- 24. Osuntokun OT. Evaluation of Inhibitory Zone Diameter (IZD) of crude Spondias mombin (Linn.) extracts (root, leaf, and stem bark) against thirty infectious clinical and environmental isolates. J BacteriolInfec Dis. 2018;2(1):8-16.
- 25. Mbim NE, Mboto IC, Edet OU. Plasmid profile analysis and curing of multidrug resistant bacteria isolated from two hospital environments In Calabar Metropolis Nigeria. Asian Journal of Medicine and Health. 2016;1(1):1-11.
- 26. Munita JM, Arias CA. Mechanism of antibiotic resistance. *Microbiology spectrum*. 2016;4(**2**) 10:1128.
- 27. Osuntokun OT, Ibukun AF, Yusuf-Babatunde AM, Abiodun S. Pre/Postplasmid profile Analysis, Killing- kinetics and secondary metabolites screening of *Adenopus breviflorus (Benth)* Fruit extract against multiple drug resistant isolates using *Staphylococcus aureus (MDRSA)* as a case study. J Adv Res Biotech. 2019b; 4(1):1-17.
- Spengler G, Molnar A, Schelz Z, Amaral L, Sharples D. Molnar J. Mechanism of plasmid curing in bacteria. Research Gate. 2006;7:3-19.
- 29. David ML. Multiple mechanism of antimicrobial resistance in *Pseudomonasaeruginosa*. Our worst nightmare? Clinical Infectious Diseases. 2002;34:635-640
- Raghada SM, Munera CI, Ayad MAF. Detection of plasmid DNA profile in bacterial and fungal isolates from catheterized patients and its relation with antibiotic susceptibility. Journal of Biotechnology Research Center. 2013; 7:51-60.

- Pattnaik S, Pradhan M, Narayani M. Resistance Pattern acquired by nosocomial pathogens: A plasmid profile study. Journal of Applied Pharmaceutical Science. 2013;3:057-059.
- 32. Van Boeckel TP, Glennon EE, Chen D. Reducing antimicrobial use in food animals. Science . 2017;57:1350-1352.
- 33. Alam MJ, Rahman MT, Siddique MP, Khan MFR, Rahman MB. Antibiogram and Plasmid Profiling of *E.coli* isolate. International Journal Biological Res. 2010;1(3):01-07.
- 34. Farshad S, Ranjbar V, Japoni A, Hosseini M, Anvarinejad M, Mohammadzadegan R. Microbial Susceptibility, virulence Factors, and Plasmid profiles of Uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* strains isolated from children from Jahrom, Iran ArcIran Med. 2012;15(5):312–316.
- 35. Getino M, Sanabria-Rios DJ, Fernandez-Lopez R, Campos-Gomez J, Sanchez-Lopez JM, Fernandez A, et al. Synthetic fatty acids prevent plasmid-mediated horizontal gene transfer. MBio. 2015;6(5).
- 36. Hussein AS, Hirsi HA, Dire AF, Osman MF, Hassan SA. Antimicrobial susceptibility of *Staphyloccus aureus* isolated from patients with skin wound infection in Shafi hospital, Mogadishu, Somalia. American Journal of Research communication. 2018;6(10).
- 37. Oteo J, Navarro C, Cercenado E, Delgado-IribarrenA, Wihelmi I, Orden B, Garcia C, Miguelanez S, Perezvazquez M, Garcia-Cobos S, Aracil B, Bautista V, Campos J. Spread of *Escherichia coli* strains with High–level Cefotaxime and Ceftazidine Resistance between the community, long term care facilities and hospital institutions. Journal of Clinical Microbiology. 2006;44: 2359–2366.
- Picao RC, Poirel L, Gales AC, Nordmann P. Diversity of b-lactamases produced by ceftazidime-Resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* isolates causing blood stream infections in Brazil. Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy. 2009;53:3908-3913.
- 39. Amaya E, Reyes D, Paniagua M, Calderon S, Rashid MU, Colque P, Kuhn I, Mollby R, Weintraub Α, Nord CE. Antibiotic resistance patterns of Escherichia coli from different isolates aquatic environment sources in leon, Nicaragua. Clinical Microbiological Infections. 2012; 18:347-54.

- Getino M, Sanabria-Rios DJ, Fernandez-Lopez R, Javier Campos- Gómez, José M Sánchez-López, Antonio Fernández, Néstor M Carballeira. Synthetic fatty acids prevents plasmid-mediated horizontal gene transfer. MBio. 2015;6:e01032–1015.
- 41. Davin-Regli A, Pagès JM. Crossresistance between biocides and antimicrobials: An emerging question. Rev. Sci. Tech. 2012;31:89–104.
- 42. De Lencastre H, Oliveira D, Tomasz A. Antibiotics resistance *Staphylococcus aureus*: A paradigm of adaptive power. Current Opinion in Microbiology. 2007; 10(5):428-435.
- 43. Maina D, Ravathi G, Kariuki S, Ozwara H. Genotypes and cephalosporin.

susceptibility in extended-spectrum betalactamase producing *Enterobacteriaceae* in the community. Journal of Infections of Developing Countries. 2012;6:470-477.

- 44. Akinyemi et al., Kabiru O Akinyemi, Christopher O Fakorede, Bamidele A Iwalokun and Akeeb O Oyefolu. Activities of Three Nigerian medicinal plants against plasmid-carrying enteric bacterial pathogens. EC Microbiology. 2017: 10-21.
- 45. Williamson DA, Carter GA, Benjamin P. Current and emerging topical antibacterial and antiseptics: Agents, action and resistance. Clinical Microbiology. 2017; 30(3):827-860.

© 2023 Iroha et al.; This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Peer-review history: The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here: https://www.sdiarticle5.com/review-history/102224