

REVIEW ARTICLE

Antibiotic-resistant diarrheagenic Escherichia coli isolated from patients under 5 years of age in Al-Diwaniyah city

Azhar A. Sekhi¹ and Manal M. Kadhim¹

1 Microbiology Department, College of Medicine, University of Al-Qadisiyah, diwaniya, Iraq.

*Corresponding author: E-mail: azhar.ali@qu.edu.iq

Abstract:

Background: Escherichia coli, a common bacterium, is becoming increasingly resistant to antibiotics, making diarrhea treatment difficult. The situation is especially concerning for multidrug-resistant (MDR) and extended-spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL)producing strains. These "superbugs" can resist multiple antibiotics and spread among bacteria. Traditional treatments like ampicillin and tetracycline are becoming less effective. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) recommends fluoroquinolones, macrolides, and rifaximin for some cases, but these have limitations.

Aim of the study: The present study explores the antimicrobial resistance of diarrheagenic E. coli pathotypes to determine the antibiotic resistance pattern.

Methodology: Twelve isolates of diarrheagenic E. coli isolated from children under five years old with diarrhea in Al-Diwaniyah city, Iraq, all isolates examined antibiotic susceptibility with Kirby's Bauer method after isolation and identification by conventional and molecular methods.

Results Isolates were resistant to multiple antibiotics, including penicillins (amoxicillin, ampicillin), cephalosporins (ceftazidime, ceftriaxone, cefotaxime, cefepime), and 1 type of aminoglycoside (amikacin). Isolates were sensitive to colistin, nitrofurantoin, and azithromycin. Fluoroquinolones (Ciprofloxacin, Ofloxacin, Levofloxacin), Carbapenems (Imipenem, Meropenem), and Nalidixic acid.

Keywords: diarrheagenic E. coli, multidrug-resistant (MDR), antibiotic resistance

Introduction

he global incidence of antimicrobial resistance in E. coli over the years is alarming and underlines the need for proper interventions to prevent transmission [1]. Moreover, the emergence of multidrug-resistant (MDR) and extended-spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL)-producing diarrheagenic E. coli (DEC) strains has become a serious threat to public health, as the existing antibiotics are increasingly ineffective [2]. MDR and ESBL-producing DEC strains are superbugs that have the ability to resist at least two different classes of antibiotics and to hydrolyze the third-generation cephalosporins such as cefotaxime, ceftazidime, ceftriaxone, cefuroxime, and cefepime or monobactams such as aztreonam [3]. The most common beta-lactamase (bla) genes reported in the ESBL-producing DEC isolates include blaTEM, blaSHV, and blaCTX-M, with the highest frequency of ESBL producers found in the EAEC pathotype able among bacterial species via mobile genetic elements (e.g., plasmids, integrons, insertion sequences, and transposons) has macrolides such as azithromycin, and rifaximin (or other rifa-

made disease management for MDR and ESBL-producing DEC more challenging [6]. In the absence of new quality-assured antimicrobials, these groups of strains may cause untreatable infections and death. Hence, at present, updates on the antimicrobial resistance in DEC are essential for effective treatment to reduce the morbidity and mortality rates associated with diarrhea [7][1].

However, the global emergence of drug-resistant strains, limiting the choice of effective antimicrobial drugs for diarrhea treatment, has become the main challenge in the treatment of DEC infections. For instance, in recent years, ETEC has been reported to be becoming resistant to many first-line drugs, such as ampicillin, nalidixic acid, tetracycline, sulfonamides, and azithromycin [8][9].

Concerning the antimicrobial drugs for the treatment of DEC, the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) [4][5]. The fact that these resistance genes are easily transfer- Yellow Book 2020 recommends that antibiotics used to treat non-STEC DEC include fluoroguinolones such as ciprofloxacin,



mycin derivatives, such as rifampicin), although they are not recommended for the treatment of STEC due to the possible risk of hemolytic uremic syndrome [10]. [11]. Resistance was common among DEC isolates, particularly against the penicillin class of antibiotics. While the prevalence of resistant DEC was high against the penicillin antibiotics, combinations with other antimicrobial agents somehow increased the susceptibility of DEC to amoxicillin and ampicillin. For instance, the combination of amoxicillin with clavulanic acid rendered DEC more susceptible to the antibiotic [12]. Similarly, the combination of ampicillin with sulbactam, on the other hand, decreased the resistance of DEC [13].

Additionally, the use of piperacillin in the treatment of DEC recorded resistance, while the combination of piperacillin with tazobactam reduced the prevalence substantially [14]. It is possible that utilizing more than one β -lactam inhibitor in the treatment of DEC increases the susceptibility of the pathogen significantly. High rates of resistance to amoxicillin, ampicillin, and piperacillin are unfortunate events in the majority of Asian countries and could reflect the excessive and unjustified use of antibiotics in general care [15][1][16].

2. Materials and Methods

Ninety-seven patients under five years of age with diarrhea were examined in several hospitals (Women's and Children's General Hospital and Imam Hussein Hospital for Children) in Al-Diwanyiah city.

Stool samples were collected from patients (0-5 years of age). A fresh stool sample was collected in a sterile container. A stool sample is usually collected with a swab of the rectum or by using a clean diaper or a disposable stool collection cup [17]. All samples are cultured on nutrient agar and incubated for 18-24 hours at 37°C to activate the bacteria, then the bacteria are isolated with conventional and molecular methods.

The disc diffusion method for in vitro antibiotic susceptibility tests was done according to the method described by [18]. The antibiotic disc agents, concentrations, and the interpretation of zones of inhibition for E. coli were performed according to the National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards [19]. The preparation of the test was done by using a Mueller-Hinton agar plate that was inoculated by a 0.5 McFarland tube dilution of bacterial culture, which was spread by a sterile cotton swab. The antibiotic discs included gentamicin (10 μg), amikacin (30 μg), netilmicin (30 μg), imipenem (10 μg), meropenem (10 μg), ceftazidime (30 μg), cefepime (30 μg), ofloxacin (10 μg), levofloxacin (5 μg), piperacillin (100 μg), aztreonam (30 μg), colistin (10 μg), and polymyxin B (300 U). Then the plate was incubated at 37°C for 24 hours. The presence or absence of a zone of inhibition around each of the discs after the period of incubation was explained by antibacterial action, and the diameter of the zone of inhibition produced by each antibiotic was measured to determine patterns of antibiotic susceptibility.

3. Results and Discussion

The present study examined the susceptibility of DEC isolates to antibiotics using disc diffusion method (Table 1). Significantly, the findings revealed that the isolates were resistant to Amoxicillin, Amikacin, Ampicillin, Ceftazidime, Ceftriaxone, Cefotaxime and Cefepime; while intermediate resistance was identified with Gentamicin. However, significant sensitivity was

recorded to Colisitin, Nitofurantion, Azithromycin, Ciprofloxacillin, Ofloxacine, Imipenem, Meropenem, Levofloxacine, and Nalidixic acid. However, the findings of multidrug resistance revealed that there was significant resistance to two types of Penicillin (Amoxicillin and Ampicillin), four types of Cephalosporins (Ceftazidime, Ceftriaxone, Cefotaxine, and Cefepime), and 1 type of Aminoglycosides (Amikacin), However there is marginally relationship between the isolated pathotypes were isolated in this study and the multiple drug resistance at p-value = 0.074, and there is no association between pathotypes, virulence factors and multiple drug resistance at p-value = 1 . (Table 2) (Table 3) (Figure 1).

Table (1): Results of antibiotic susceptibility to DEC

	,	,						
	Types of antibiotic	Total No. of tested isolate	Standard zone of inhibition		Susceptibility pattern			
Anti-Biotic Group (Family)			Resistant	Sensitive	Resistant	Intermediate	Sensitive	p-value
Penicilin (Amino-penicilin)	Amoxicillin	12	≤15	≥ 20	12 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0.009 S
	Ampicillin	12	≤ 10	≥ 14	12 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0.009 S
Cephalosporins	Ceftazidime	12	≤ 20	≥ 21	12 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0.009 S
	Ceftriaxone	12	≤ 14	≥ 20	11 (91.67%)	1 (8.33%)	0 (0%)	0.0113 S
	Cefotaxime	12	≤ 17	≥ 22	12 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0.009 S
	Cefepime	12	≤ 17	≥ 25	12 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0.009 S
Aminoglycosides	Amikacin	12	≤ 14	≥ 17	10 (83.33%)	2 (16.67%)	0 (0%)	0.0188 S
	Gentamicin	12	≤ 11	≥ 15	0 (0%)	9 (75%)	3 (25%)	0.0361 S
Macrolides	Azithromycin	12	≤ 12	≥ 15	1 (8.33%)	2 (16.67%)	9 (75%)	0.0249 S
Polymyxins	Colistin	12	≤ 10	≥ 11	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	12 (100%)	0.009 S

Azhar A. Sekhi et al. Qad.Med.J. 21(1): 37–41, 2025

Nitrofurans	Nitrofurantoin	12	≤14	≥17	0 (0%)	3 (25%)	9 (75%)	0.0361 S
Monocarboxylic acid (Quinolone)	Nalidixic acid	12	≤13	≥ 19	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	12 (100%)	0.009 S
(\$	Ciprofloxacillin	12	≤ 21	≥ 26	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	12 (100%)	0.009 S
(Fluoroquinolones) Quinolones	Ofloxacine	12	≤ 12	≥ 16	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	12 (100%)	0.009 S
	Levofloxacine	12	≤ 16	≥ 21	0 (0%)	1 (8.33%)	11 (91%)	0.0113 S
	Meropenem	12	≤ 14	≥ 18	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	12 (100%)	0.009 S
Carbapenems	Imipenem	12	≤ 19	≥23	0 (0%)	1 (8.33%)	11(91.67%)	0.0113 S
	p-value				0.0097**	0.0082**	0.0092**	-
	S: Significance * (P<0.05), ** (P<0.01)							

Table (2): Association between isolated Diarrheagenic E. coli pathotypes with Anti-Biotic resistance

Isolate		T T	Multi-
Number	Pathotypes	Class of Antibiotic	Drugs resistance
2	Enterohaemorrhagic	Penicillin, Cephalosporins, Aminoglycosides	+
3	Enterotoxagenic	Penicillin, Cephalosporins	+
4	Enterotoxagenic	Penicillin, Aminoglycosides	+
6	Enterohaemorrhagic	Penicillin, Cephalosporins, Aminoglycosides	+
9	Enterotoxagenic	Penicillin, Cephalosporins, Aminoglycosides	+
10	Enterotoxagenic	Penicillin, Cephalosporins, Aminoglycosides	+
11	Enterotoxagenic	Enterotoxagenic Penicillin, Cephalosporins, Aminoglycosides	
14	Enterotoxagenic \ Enteroaggregative	Penicillin, Cephalosporins, Aminoglycosides, Macrolides	+
16	Enterotoxagenic	Penicillin, Cephalosporins, Aminoglycosides	+
17	Enterotoxagenic	Penicillin, Cephalosporins, Aminoglycosides	+
19	Enterotoxagenic	Penicillin, Cephalosporins, Aminoglycosides	+
20 Enterotoxagenic		Penicillin, Cephalosporins	+

 $^{^{*}}$ There is not a statistically significant association (p > 0.05) between pathotype and antibiotic.

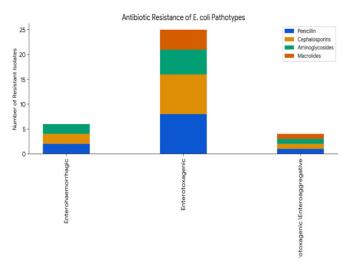


Figure (1) Association between isolated Diarrheagenic E. coli pathotypes with Anti-Biotic resistance

Table (3) Association between virulence factors genes of isolated pathotypes and Anti-Biotic resistance

Pathotypes	Virulance Factors Genes	Antibiotc Resistance
Enterohaemorrhagic	Intimin (eae) gene Shiga toxin (stx) gene	Penicillin, Cephalosporins, Aminoglycosides
Enterotoxagenic	Heat stable toxin (est) gene Heat labile toxin (elt) gene	Penicillin, Cephalosporins, Aminoglycosides
Enterotoxagenic \ Enteroaggregative	Heat stable toxin (est) gene Heat labile toxin (elt) gene Adhesin (aggR) gene	Penicillin, Cephalosporins, Aminoglycosides, Macrolides
	Transporter system (CVD432) gene p-value: 0.0002; Odds Ratio: infinity	

The statistic results (Fisher's exact test) suggest a strong association between the presence of all tested genes (CVD432, aggR, elt, est, and eae) and resistance to Penicillin, Cephalosporins, Aminoglycosides, and Macrolides at p-values are less than 0.05

Antibiotics are very useful against pathogenic bacteria and as such the use of these drugs has decreased the rate of death from bacterial infection globally [20]. However, because of the misuse and incorrect prescription of antibiotics, genetic factors and environmental factors, the rate of antibiotic resistance is increasing and so is the threat to health [21].

The treatment of DEC with antibiotics is not routinely recommended; however, understanding the antibiotic susceptibility of these pathogens is important as intestinal E. coli strains may serve as a reservoir of antibiotic resistance genes [22]. In addition, antimicrobial therapy may be indicated in children with diarrhea due to DEC once identified, and in children with persistent diarrhea. DEC may be twice as likely to be resistant to different antibiotic [23], which agrees with observed with the results of other studies as most DEC isolates are resistant to wide range of antibiotics that commonly used for treating diarrhea and other pediatric diseases [24][25][26]. The high resistance levels observed here already described as an emerging problem of DEC isolated from children in other developing countries and for other enteric bacteria worldwide could be therefore the result of its widespread use and development the selective pressure favoring resistant isolates due to treatment with this antibiotics [27][28].

[29] found a high rate of drug resistance in E. coli to the common antimicrobial agents used in the treatment of

diarrhea. All the isolates were resistant to ampicillin, imipenem and cotrimoxazole and were sensitive to amikacin. The prevalence of drug resistance to ampicillin, chloramphenicol, cotrimoxazole, imipenem, nalidixic acid, norfloxacin was "very high" in our study. This may be due to the indiscriminate use of first-line inexpensive antibiotics in our country.

The resistance to ampicillin and imipenem may be due to production of beta-lactamases enzymes, and the most common mechanism for resistance to cotrimoxazole is acquisition of plasmid-encoded, variant diamino-pyrimidine folate reductase enzymes [30]. This may be chromosomal or plasmid mediated. Recently resistances to third-generation cephalosporins have emerged as a major concern, as seen in this study. In India, the emergence of multidrug resistant strains and its variation over the years have been increasing [31]. Appropriate antibiotic therapy for diarrhea reduces mortality and also shortens the duration of symptoms. Increased frequency of drug-resistant E. coli strains is remarkable, since resistance to first-line drugs will require more expensive drugs for effective treatment and may pose a major challenge to the health care system [32].

[33] mentioned that Azithromycin resistant strains were also more frequent in Southeast Asia/India than in Africa and Latin America, with resistance rates of 33.3%, 25%, and 9.1%, respectively, for EAEC and 28.6%, 11.1%, and 0%, respectively, for ETEC. It is important to highlight that 58% of the patients from Southeast Asia/India visited India, and among these, the percentages of resistance to nalidixic acid were 75% and 71.4% for EAEC and ETEC, respectively; ciprofloxacin resistance rates were 62.5% and 43% for EAEC and ETEC, respectively; and rates of resistance to azithromycin were 37.5% and 28.6% for EAEC and ETEC, respectively. However, statistical analysis was not performed due to the low population size obtained when stratifying the strains according to pathotype and geographical origin.

Even though colistin is an old antimicrobial substance, its use in human medicine has augmented the last decade, largely due to the appearance of multidrug resistant Pseudomonas, Klebsiella and Acinetobacter spp. [34][35] . Due to its excellent intrinsic activity against E. coli, the low prevalence of acquired resistance and the poor absorption after oral administration, colistin is a frequently used antimicrobial agent for the prevention and treatment of neonatal or weaning-associated E. coli infections [36]. Even though acquired resistance to colistin in E. coli strains was seen only occasionally in the past, the last few years, this is becoming more common [37][38].

4. Conclusions

Diarrheagenic E. coli isolates characterized here were highly resistant to Amoxicillin, Amikacin, Ampicillin, Ceftazidime, Ceftriaxone, Cefotaxime and Cefepime. There is marginally relationship between the isolated pathotypes were isolated in this study and the multiple drug resistance and there is no association between pathotypes, virulence factors and multiple drug resistance.

Acknowledgement

Special thanks to the specialists who contributed in collection of blood samples and providing of the required data

Funding

No external funds were received (private funding).

Refrences

1-Salleh MZ, Nik Zuraina NMN, Hajissa K, Ilias MI, Deris ZZ. Prevalence of Multidrug-Resistant Diarrheagenic Escherichia coli in Asia: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. Antibiotics (Basel). 2022 Sep 29;11(10):1333. doi: 10.3390/antibiotics11101333. PMID: 36289991; PMCID: PMC9598397. 2-Abayneh M, Worku T. Prevalence of multidrug-resistant and extended-spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL)-producing gramnegative bacilli: A meta-analysis report in Ethiopia. Drug Target Insights. 2020 Oct 5;14:16-25. doi: 10.33393/dti.2020.2170. PMID: 33132695; PMCID: PMC7597226.

3-Parvin MS, Talukder S, Ali MY, Chowdhury EH, Rahman MT, Islam MT. Antimicrobial Resistance Pattern of Escherichia coli Isolated from Frozen Chicken Meat in Bangladesh. Pathogens. 2020; 9(6):420. https://doi.org/10.3390/pathogens9060420 4-Pishtiwan AH, Khadija KM. Prevalence of blaTEM, blaSHV, and blaCTX-M Genes among ESBL-Producing Klebsiella pneumoniae and Escherichia coli Isolated from Thalassemia Patients in Erbil, Iraq. Mediterr J Hematol Infect Dis. 2019 Jul 1;11(1):e2019041. doi: 10.4084/MJHID.2019.041. PMID: 31308917; PMCID: PMC6613628.

5-Dirar MH, Bilal NE, Ibrahim ME, Hamid ME. Prevalence of extended-spectrum β -lactamase (ESBL) and molecular detection of blaTEM, blaSHV and blaCTX-M genotypes among Enterobacteriaceae isolates from patients in Khartoum, Sudan. Pan Afr Med J. 2020 Nov 3;37:213. doi: 10.11604/pamj.2020.37.213.24988. PMID: 33520052; PMCID: PMC7821812.

6-Michaelis C, Grohmann E. Horizontal Gene Transfer of Antibiotic Resistance Genes in Biofilms. Antibiotics (Basel). 2023 Feb 4;12(2):328. doi: 10.3390/antibiotics12020328. PMID: 36830238; PMCID: PMC9952180.

7-Ayukekbong, J.A., Ntemgwa, M. & Atabe, A.N. The threat of antimicrobial resistance in developing countries: causes and control strategies. Antimicrob Resist Infect Control 6, 47 (2017). https://doi.org/10.1186/s13756-017-0208-x

8-Kariuki S, Kering K, Wairimu C, Onsare R, Mbae C. Antimicrobial Resistance Rates and Surveillance in Sub-Saharan Africa: Where Are We Now?. Infect Drug Resist. 2022;15:3589-3609

https://doi.org/10.2147/IDR.S342753

9-Pokharel, P.; Dhakal, S.; Dozois, C.M. The Diversity of Escherichia coli Pathotypes and Vaccination Strategies against This Versatile Bacterial Pathogen. Microorganisms 2023, 11, 344. https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms11020344 10- Brunette, Gary W., and Jeffrey B. Nemhauser (eds), 'Travel-Related Infectious Diseases', in Gary W. Brunette, and Jeffrey B. Nemhauser (eds), CDC Yellow Book 2020: Health Information for International Travel (New York, 2019; online edn, Oxford Academic, 1 June 2019), https://doi.org/10.1093/med/9780190928933.003.0004, accessed 5 Oct. 2023. 11-Nemhauser, Jeffrey, 'Travel-Associated Infections & Diseases', in Jeffrey B. Nemhauser (ed.), CDC Yellow Book 2024: Health Information for International Travel (New York, 2023; online edn, Oxford Academic, 23 Mar. 2023), https://doi.org/10.1093/

12-Urban-Chmiel R, Marek A, Stępień-Pyśniak D, Wieczorek K,

oso/9780197570944.003.0005, accessed 5 Oct. 2023.

Azhar A. Sekhi et al. Qad.Med.J. 21(1): 37-41, 2025

Dec M, Nowaczek A, Osek J. Antibiotic Resistance in Bacteria-A Review. Antibiotics (Basel). 2022 Aug 9;11(8):1079. doi: 10.3390/antibiotics11081079. PMID: 36009947; PMCID: PMC9404765. 13-Madadi-Goli N, Moniri R, Bagheri-Josheghani S, Dasteh-Goli N. Sensitivity of levofloxacin in combination with ampicillinsulbactam and tigecycline against multidrug-resistant Acinetobacter baumannii. Iran J Microbiol. 2017 Feb;9(1):19-25. PMID: 28775819; PMCID: PMC5534000.

14-Mekdad SS, AlSayed L. Prospective evaluating the appropriate use of piperacillin /tazobactam in cardiac center of a tertiary care hospital. J Cardiothorac Surg. 2020 May 1;15(1):70. doi: 10.1186/s13019-020-01109-y. PMID: 32357895; PMCID: PMC7193387.

15-Bush K, Bradford PA. β-Lactams and β-Lactamase Inhibitors: An Overview. Cold Spring Harb Perspect Med. 2016 Aug 1;6(8):a025247. doi: 10.1101/cshperspect.a025247. PMID: 27329032; PMCID: PMC4968164.

16-Narendrakumar L, Chakraborty M, Kumari S, Paul D, Das B. β-Lactam potentiators to re-sensitize resistant pathogens: Discovery, development, clinical use and the way forward. Front Microbiol. 2023 Mar 10;13:1092556. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2022.1092556. PMID: 36970185; PMCID: PMC10036598. 17-Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Stool testing for children. CDC.gov. Accessed February 2, 2023.

18-Balouiri M, Sadiki M, Ibnsouda SK. Methods for in vitro evaluating antimicrobial activity: A review. J Pharm Anal. 2016 Apr;6(2):71-79. doi: 10.1016/j.jpha.2015.11.005. Epub 2015 Dec 2. PMID: 29403965; PMCID: PMC5762448.

19- clsi.org/media/w1ancqx1/catalog2022_web.pdf

20- Nayak, S., Rana, M., Mayya, S. S., Gupta, G. P., Wazir, S. S., Parmar, K. S., and Goel, K. (2016). Antibiotics to cure or harm: Concept of antibiotic resistance among health professional students in Nepal. International Journal of Medical Science and Public Health, 5(12), 2512-7.

21- Talebi B. A., A., Rizvanov, A. A., Haertlé, T., and Blatt, N. L. (2019). World Health Organization report: current crisis of antibiotic resistance. BioNanoScience, 9(4), 778-788.

22- Imdad, A., Foster, M. A., Iqbal, J., Fonnesbeck, C., Payne, D. C., Zhang, C., and Gómez-Duarte, O. G. (2018). Diarrheagenic Escherichia coli and acute gastroenteritis in children in Davidson County, Tennessee, United States: a case-control study. The Pediatric infectious disease journal, 37(6), 543-548.

23-Seidman, J. C., Johnson, L. B., Levens, J., Mkocha, H., Munoz, B., Silbergeld, E. K., and Coles, C. L. (2016). Longitudinal comparison of antibiotic resistance in diarrheagenic and non-pathogenic Escherichia coli from young Tanzanian children. Frontiers in Microbiology, 7, 1420.

24-Galindo-Méndez, M. (2020). Antimicrobial resistance in Escherichia coli. E. Coli Infections-Importance of Early Diagnosis and Efficient Treatment, 1-20.

25-Puvača, N., and de Llanos Frutos, R. (2021). Antimicrobial resistance in Escherichia coli strains isolated from humans and pet animals. Antibiotics, 10(1), 69.

26-Sora, V. M., Meroni, G., Martino, P. A., Soggiu, A., Bonizzi, L., and Zecconi, A. (2021). Extraintestinal pathogenic Escherichia coli: Virulence factors and antibiotic resistance. Pathogens, 10(11), 1355.

27-Putnam, S. D., Riddle, M. S., Wierzba, T. F., Pittner, B. T., Elyazeed, R. A., El-Gendy, A., and Frenck, R. W. (2014).

Antimicrobial susceptibility trends among Escherichia coli and Shigella spp. isolated from rural Egyptian paediatric populations with diarrhea between 1995 and 2000. Clinical Microbiology and Infection, 10(9), 804-810.

ion with ampicillin- 28-Faure, C. (2023). Role of antidiarrhoeal drugs as adjunctive multidrug-resistant therapies for acute diarrhoea in children. International Journal l. 2017 Feb;9(1):19- of Pediatrics, 2013.

29-Roy, S., Shamsuzzaman, S. M., and Mamun, K. Z. (2013). Antimicrobial resistance pattern of diarrheagenic Escherichia coli isolated from acute diarrhea patients. International Journal of Pharmaceutical Science Invention, 2(6), 43-6.

30-Georges, M. C., Wachsmuth, I. K., Meunier, D. M., Nebout, N., Didier, F., Siopathis, M. R., and Georges, A. J. (2014). Parasitic, bacterial, and viral enteric pathogens associated with diarrhea in the Central African Republic. Journal of clinical microbiology, 19(5), 571-575.

31- Taneja, N., Mohan, B., Khurana, S., and Sharma, M. (2004). Antimicrobial resistance in selected bacterial enteropathogens in north India. Indian Journal of Medical Research, 120, 39-43. 32-Siciliano, V., Nista, E. C., Rosà, T., Brigida, M., and Franceschi, F. (2020). Clinical management of infectious diarrhea. Reviews on Recent Clinical Trials, 15(4), 298-308.

33-Duy, P. T. (2018). The Molecular Epidemiology of Enteric Fever in South and Southeast Asia. Open University (United Kingdom).

34-Gupta, S., Govil, D., Kakar, P. N., Prakash, O., Arora, D., Das, S., and Malhotra, A. (2019). Colistin and polymyxin B: a re-emergence. Indian journal of critical care medicine: peerreviewed, official publication of Indian Society of Critical Care Medicine, 13(2), 49.

35-Boyen, F., Vangroenweghe, F., Butaye, P., De Graef, E., Castryck, F., Heylen, P., and Haesebrouck, F. (2020). Disk prediffusion is a reliable method for testing colistin susceptibility in porcine E. coli strains. Veterinary microbiology, 144(3-4), 359-362.

36- Gresse, R., Garrido, J. J., Jiménez-Marín, A., Denis, S., Van de Wiele, T., Forano, E., and Chaucheyras-Durand, F. (2021). Saccharomyces Cerevisiae Var Boulardii CNCM I–1079 Reduces Expression of Genes Involved in Inflammatory Response in Porcine Cells Challenged by Enterotoxigenic E. Coli and Influences Bacterial Communities in an In Vitro Model of the Weaning Piglet Colon. Antibiotics, 10(9), 1101.

37-Harada, K., Asai, T., Kojima, A., Oda, C., Ishihara, K., and Takahashi, T. (2005). Antimicrobial susceptibility of pathogenic Escherichia coli isolated from sick cattle and pigs in Japan. Journal of Veterinary Medical Science, 67(10), 999-1003.

38-Wang, G. Q., Wu, C. M., Du, X. D., Shen, Z. Q., Song, L. H., Chen, X., and Shen, J. Z. (2008). Characterization of integrons-mediated antimicrobial resistance among Escherichia coli strains isolated from bovine mastitis. Veterinary microbiology, 127(1-2), 73-78.