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Antimicrobial Susceptibility Patterns in Clinical Isolates: A Retrospective Laboratory Study

[1]Fawaz Atqan Almutairi, [2]Faisal Saleh Alghamdi, [3]Osama Munif Almutairi, [4]Nader Faihan Alotaibi, [5]Ahmad Faisal Al-Mutairi, [6]Emtenan Hassan Linjawi

[1]Specialization: Phlebotomy Technician PSMMC Region, Riyadh KSA
[2,3,5,6]Laboratory Technician PSMMC Region, Riyadh KSA
[4]Medical laboratory specialist PSMMC Region, Riyadh KSA

ABSTRACT

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is a significant global health threat that complicates the treatment of infectious diseases and poses a challenge to public health systems. The rising prevalence of resistant pathogens in clinical isolates has led to increased morbidity, mortality, and healthcare costs. This review examines antimicrobial susceptibility patterns in clinical isolates, focusing on the mechanisms behind resistance, such as genetic mutations, beta-lactamase production, efflux pumps, and horizontal gene transfer. We explore the impact of AMR on clinical practice, particularly the emergence of multidrug-resistant (MDR) bacteria like *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, and *Escherichia coli*, which complicates treatment and limits therapeutic options. The review also highlights the importance of antimicrobial susceptibility testing (AST) for guiding effective treatment and discusses the role of surveillance programs in tracking resistance trends. Additionally, antimicrobial stewardship programs (ASPs) and infection prevention measures are emphasized as essential strategies for mitigating AMR. Finally, we address the urgent need for the development of new antibiotics and alternative therapies, including bacteriophage therapy and antimicrobial peptides, to combat resistant infections. The review underscores the importance of coordinated global efforts to combat AMR and ensures the continued effectiveness of antimicrobial agents in treating infectious diseases.

Keywords: Antimicrobial Resistance (AMR), Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing (AST), Multidrug-Resistant Bacteria, Antimicrobial Stewardship Programs, Horizontal Gene Transfer.

INTRODUCTION

It is no exaggeration to state that antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is one of the most serious challenges to global health in the 21st century. It undermines the ability of health care providers to manage patients who contract serious infections, because dead-end infections caused by resistant pathogens prolong illness, prolong hospital stays, increase health care costs, and lead to avoidable deaths [1]. The problem is exacerbated by the over-prescribing of anti-infective agents, which in turn leads to ever more rapid resistance. Because of the simple fact that relentless pathogens are evolving to survive antibiotic assaults, the need to develop rapid methods to determine the mechanisms of antimicrobial resistance among even the most effective and virulent pathogens is urgent. To fight AMR it is essential to understand the various ways in which pathogens are resistant to effective anti-infective agents [2].

The term antimicrobial susceptibility refers to the capacity of certain classes of medicines called antimicrobials to kill, or inhibit the growth of, microorganisms, including bacteria, fungi, and viruses. These classes of medicines include the antibiotics, antifungals, and antivirals [3]. Laboratory tests are usually done to determine the susceptibility of the microbe by evaluating the microbe's response to different classes of antimicrobial agents. Antimicrobial resistance is the term that describes the opposite of susceptibility, where the microbe develops certain mechanisms that allow them to survive the killing, or the growth inhibition, of the antimicrobial agents. This means that the medicines that used to be effective, are no longer effective [4]. There are many ways by which micro organisms develop resistance. Some of them evade the antimicrobial agents through genetic code alterations (mutations). Other microorganisms acquire resistance by horizontal gene transfer. There are also microorganisms that evade antimicrobials by synthesizing the enzymes that break down and modify the antimicrobial agents. This is particularly the case with multi-drug resistant (MDR) pathogens which are resistant to entire classes of antimicrobial agents [5].

The treatments for some medical insfections have become complicated due to pathogenic microbes developing higher levels of resistanc to common antibiotic treatments. There are really common bacterial pathogens in the medical field such as Staphylococcus aureus, Escherichia coli, Klebsiella pneumoniae, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, and Acinetobacter baumannii, who are resistant to widespread and standard antibiotics [6]. E. coli, for instance, is even resistant to multiple antibiotics, including some Fluoroquinoles and 3rd generation cephalosporins. S. Aureus also has a type of resistant bacteria called Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA), which also has a great amount of resistance to Methicillin. Because of the increasing amount of no available treatement options, we see increasing amount of morbidity and mortality. In addition, standard antibiotics resistance is not only exclusive to nosocomial infections, but rather community-acquired infections also present resistance to common antibiotics. All of this makes treatment more complicated for patients, whether they have the infections are they outpatients or inpatients [7].

A primary cause of AMR is the misuse of antibiotics in both human health care systems and in farming. Antibiotics in health care are often prescribed with no legitimate medical reason, and some patients don't even complete the full cycle of antibiotics prescribed [8]. The prescribing of antibiotics to treat viral illnesses is also a problem, as antibiotics are worthless in that case. In farming, the overuse of antibiotics in farms, especially in livestock, exacerbates the problem of antibiotic resistance in animal infections that can be passed to humans through consumption. In addition, resistant pathogens that can cause disease in humans are also created, and such pathogens can spread rapidly in the community. The misuse of antibiotics can also be attributed to a lack of understanding about the possible consequences of antibiotic misuse by both health care providers and patients [9].

The tracking of antimicrobial resistance patterns helps inform treatment decisions. More closely tracking resistance allows clinicians to tailor and target antimicrobial therapy to the pathogen that the patient's infection is resistant to. Furthermore, this more closely tracking resistance also informs public health antimicrobial resistance and the need to target particular populations more efficiently and effectively. Monitoring patterns of resistance within the healthcare system helps to determine the volume and frequency of antibiotic prescriptions to alleviate resistance-promoting selective pressure [10].

The intricate diversity and complexity present in the mechanisms of resistance shown by microbes is particularly noteworthy. The most common mechanisms include the alterations of genes or mutations where the target sites of the antimicrobial agents are modified and the agents become ineffective. A good example of this is resistance to some beta-lactam antibiotics due to bacterial mutations of the cell wall synthesis enzymes [11]. Those antibiotics include the penicillins and the cephalosporins. In contrast, some microbes acquire the ability to produce, via enzymatic means, the destruction or alteration of the antimicrobial agents. {Escherichia coli} and {Klebsiella pneumoniae} produce one of these enzymes, known as beta-lactamase, which inactivates antibiotics by hydrolyzing the beta-lactam ring. Additionally, some bacteria produce ESBLs (extended-spectrum beta-lactamases), which are even more resistant to a wider variety of beta-lactam antibiotics, particularly the third generation cephalosporins [12].

An example of increased resistance is the use of efflux pumps. These pumps actively take out antimicrobial agents that pass into bacterial cells. Since the active concentration of the drug is reduced, the drug becomes ineffective. A lot of Gram negative bacteria, and especially Pseudomonas aeruginosa (a Gram negative bacterium), is known to possess resistance-affecting efflux pumps and multi-drug resistance. Also, besides efflux pumps, some bacteria change the permeability of their cell membranes in such a way that antibiotics cannot enter the bacterial cell. This is frequently observed in Gram negative bacteria because their outer membranes are complicated, which in addition to other roles, provides a structural barrier against the antibiotics [13].

Another example would be the horizontal gene transfer which enables the greater proliferation of genes that code for resistance. Conjugation, transformation, and transduction are used to describe the mechanisms through which resistance genes are transferred among bacteria, producing a broad spectrum of the bacterial population of resistant strains and, ultimately, a rapid transfer of resistant variants from one species of bacteria to another; this is often called cross species transfer [14].

As an example, consider the horizontal gene transfer of resistance to the important Gram-positive infective antibiotic vancomycin, from the bacterium Enterococcus faecium to another bacterium, which thereby disseminates resistance to vancomycin [15].

Injurious infections have the tendency to become more and more resistant to antimicrobials, and we must do what we can to ensure we do not lose any more options to treat infections. One of these options is to develop antimicrobial stewardship programs. These programs are designed to alleviate the risk of superinfection, which is resistant to antimicrobials, and works best when paired with proactive infection control and focused tailored antimicrobial therapy. These programs can teach antibiotic prescribers to limit prescriptions to situations when it is absolutely necessary, select the appropriate antimicrobial to treat the targeted infection, and at the same time, encourage the principle of antimicrobial stewardship by advocating that the full prescribed duration of antibiotics must be adhered to [16].

Furthermore, resistant infections spread even while infection control measures are being implemented. Effective hand hygiene and disinfection of medical instruments, as well as the separation of patients infected with resistant organisms is crucial to the control of resistant organisms in and among healthcare workers where effective control and the practice of rigorous infection control are in place first [17].

The worldwide spread of AMR requires a worldwide coordinated response. The WHO and CDC have recommended promoting the rational use of antibiotics, creating new antibiotics and alternatives, and tracking the trends of AMR. While the development of new antibiotics was once considered a hopeful prospect, it has been stagnating because of the high costs, complexities, and risks of the R and D of new antibiotics and new versions of these drugs designed to avoid resistance. This has resulted in a search for different methods of eliminating resistant pathogens, such as bacteriophage therapy, antimicrobial peptides, and vaccines [18].

Finally, remaining patterns of susceptibility to the clinical antimicrobials available is important of clinical microbiology and antimicrobial clinical microbiology and antimicrobial resistance. Clinically microbiology and antimicrobial resistance, antimicrobial stewardship, and infection control are the most important to begin to gain control the threats the antimicrobial resistance possess. Due to the patterns of resistance, the threats of antimicrobial resistance are increasing and becoming difficult to control [19]. Due to the ever-changing patterns of resistance, the threats of antimicrobial resistance are increasing. Patterns of antimicrobial resistance are the greatest threats to infection control and antimicrobial stewardship. To some degree, the other aforementioned are becoming incorporated which will enable the threats of antimicrobial resistance to be less severe. To some degree, the other aforementioned are becoming incorporated which will enable the threats of antimicrobial resistance to be less severe. The threats of antimicrobial resistance are immediate and if not resolved will become very severe and deadly. Once we enter the post-antibiotic age, we will witness untreatable infections and the loss of millions of lives.

REVIEW

One of the most important issues in the field of global health is Antimicrobial resistance (AMR). This issue spans a broad range of infectious disease forming pathogens. Antimicrobial resistance of infectious disease forming pathogens increases the global burden of healthcare systems. The resistant strains of pathogens increase the difficulties in infection control and management. Healthcare institutions normally perform antimicrobial resistance tests on samples of different infection locations. Antimicrobial resistance tests perform a two-fold function: determine treatment strategies and control surveillance of resistance patterns. These two functions are critically important. The aim of this work is to study and analyze resistance and susceptibility patterns in clinical samples of pathogens, and to study the available Regional Surveillance data on bacterial pathogens [20].

Mechanisms of Antimicrobial Resistance

The way antimicrobial resistance develops has a lot of different parts. One of them is genetic mutations, which can change the way a pathogen is targeted by the antimicrobial, making the drug pointless. An example of this is the resistance to macrolides, which can result from mutations of the ribosomal proteins of the bacteria. Furthermore, the way some bacterial pathogens produce beta-lactamases is a primary method of resistance. These are enzymes that break down beta-lactam antibiotics and therefore make them useless, as is the case with penicillin and cephalosporins [21].

The active expulsion of antibiotics from bacterial cells is another of the major mechanisms of antimicrobial resistance. There are some bacteria that have these efflux pumps that promote the antimicrobial resistance mechanisms by moving the antimicrobial from the cell before the cell can be destroyed. Also, horizontal gene transfer is a very important mechanism of spreading resistance. These resistance genes move from one organism to another by way of conjugation and through the processes of transformation and transduction [22].

Table 1: Summarizes the major mechanisms of resistance across various bacterial pathogens

Mechanism of Resistance	**Pathogens Involved**	**Antimicrobials Affected**	**Description**
Genetic Mutations	*Staphylococcus aureus, E. coli*	Macrolides, Quinolones, Beta-lactams	Mutations alter antimicrobial target sites such as ribosomal proteins or enzymes
Beta-lactamase Production	*E. coli, Klebsiella pneumoniae*	Penicillins, Cephalosporins, Carbapenems	Enzymes degrade the beta-lactam ring of antibiotics
Efflux Pumps	*Pseudomonas aeruginosa, A. baumannii*	Tetracyclines, Fluoroquinolones, Macrolides	Pumps expel antimicrobial agents from the bacterial cell
Horizontal Gene Transfer	*Enterococcus faecium, Salmonella*	Multiple classes (e.g., Beta-lactams, Aminoglycosides)	Acquisition of resistance genes from other bacteria or environmental sources

Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing Methods

Antimicrobial susceptibility testing (AST) is a regular part of clinical practice in order to do patient care to test and define options for patient care. AST is necessary in order to ensure the right antibiotics are prescribed to the patient. The most AST methods are:

• Disk Diffusion (Kirby-Bauer) Method: Paper disks are infused with antibiotics and then put on agar plates which have been inoculated with a specific microorganism. The presence of an inhibition zone shows the susceptibility of the microorganism to the antibiotic [23].

• Broth Microdilution Method: The microorganism is placed in a broth containing serial dilutions of the antibiotic. After incubation, the lowest dilution which prevents visible bacterial growth defines the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC).

• E-test (Gradient Diffusion Method): This method combines aspects of broth dilution and disk diffusion. A plastic strip containing a concentration gradient of an antibiotic is placed on an agar plate. The bacterial growth shows an intersection with the strip, which defines the MIC [24].

Table 2: outlines the advantages and disadvantages of these testing methods.

Method	Advantages	Disadvantages
Disk Diffusion	Simple, low-cost, widely available	Semi-quantitative, not suitable for fastidious organisms
Broth Microdilution	Provides quantitative MIC values	Requires specialized equipment, time-consuming
E-test	Precise MIC determination, easy to interpret	Expensive, requires specific expertise

Regional and Global Surveillance Data

The monitoring of patterns related to antimicrobial susceptibility is vital to gaining insight into the spread of resistant pathogens. Recently, studies have illustrated concerning instances of resistance, particularly in high-risk hospital environments. For example, studies in Europe and the U.S. have reported increases in instances of MRSA (Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus) and E. coli producing ESBL (Extended-Spectrum Beta-Lactamase) [25].

In a recent surveillance study conducted in India, >60% of E. coli isolates demonstrated resistance to the third generation of cephalosporins, and 50% showed resistance to fluoroquinolones (Sharma et al., 2021). In the same context, a study in Pakistan showed that a large portion of bloodstream infections, especially in the neonatal intensive care units, were due to Klebsiella pneumoniae which is multidrug-resistant [26].

Table 3: illustrates antimicrobial resistance patterns in common clinical isolates from various regions.

Region	Pathogen	Resistance Rate (%)	Antimicrobials Affected
North America (USA)	*E. coli*	30-50%	Beta-lactams, Fluoroquinolones
Europe (Germany)	*S. aureus*	50%	Methicillin, Cephalosporins
South Asia (India, Pakistan)	*Klebsiella pneumoniae*	60-80%	Carbapenems, Cephalosporins
Africa (Nigeria)	*Pseudomonas aeruginosa*	40-60%	Tetracyclines, Aminoglycosides

Factors Influencing Antimicrobial Susceptibility

In addition to the primary pathogens, the geographical location of the isolates, and the types and rationale of antibiotics prescribed, there are a myriad of factors to consider analyzing clinical While analyzing clinical isolate susceptibility patterns, there are a myriad of factors to consider beyond the primary pathogens, geographical location of the isolates, and the rationale and type of antibiotics prescribed in that region. Extensive anti-microbial use, whether in human medicine or in agri-food, correlates to greater resistance, especially to antibiotics used to manage infections acquired in the community [27].

Deficient uniform and adequate infection control measures in serious danger areas permit a person harboring the most resistant infections to transmit these infections to others within the community. Studies demonstrate that inadequate or ineffective anti-microbial interventions, absence of adequate anti-microbials, and ineffective infection control are the most important contributors to resistance in a region [28].

Table 4 summarizes factors influencing antimicrobial susceptibility in clinical isolates.

Factor	Impact on Susceptibility
Geographic Region	Resistance rates are higher in regions with excessive antibiotic use in healthcare and agriculture
Infection Control Measures	Poor infection control leads to higher transmission of resistant strains
Selective Pressure from Antibiotic Use	Overuse of antibiotics accelerates the development of resistance
Healthcare Settings	Hospital-acquired infections often have higher resistance rates compared to community-acquired infections

5. The Role of Antimicrobial Stewardship

AMR strategies include ASPs. More specifically, antimicrobial stewardship programs encourage the thoughtful and judicious use of antibiotics to curtail/eliminate their overuse and, provide direction to clinicians regarding the best antimicrobial(s) to use based on the results of susceptibility testing. Evidence of such activity demonstrates the potential of combating antimicrobial resistance, considering the tailoring of prescribing best practices to the actual situation in the field. Of course, other infection control measures need to be put in place [29].

The introduction of such programs in hospitals has been linked to a reduction in antibiotic use, less healthcare-associated infections, and a decline in resistance in several pathogens. Improved patient outcomes and more resistant infections characterize hospitals with effective ASPs [30].

Table 5 highlights the impact of antimicrobial stewardship on resistance rates.

Stewardship Intervention	Impact on Resistance	Pathogens Affected
Restricting use of broad-spectrum antibiotics	Reduces the development of resistance, particularly in Gram-negative bacteria	*Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Acinetobacter baumannii*
Education and Training of Healthcare Providers	Increases appropriate prescribing practices, reducing unnecessary antibiotic use	All major pathogens
Surveillance of Resistance Patterns	Guides empirical treatment choices and prevents overuse of ineffective antibiotics	MRSA, ESBL-producing *E. coli*

DISCUSSION

Challenges posed by antimicrobial resistance (AMR) affect the treatment and control of infectious diseases, making clinical decisions even more difficult and endangering the health of the population. World-wide resistant pathogens are growing at a concerning rate and demonstrate the need for better antimicrobial stewardship, surveillance, and innovative therapeutic research. This paper analyzes antimicrobial susceptibility patterns in clinical isolates and describes the complexity of resistance patterns, their consequences in clinical practices, and the impact of surveillance and stewardship programs on AMR [31].

Antimicrobial susceptibility testing (AST) is crucial for assessing bacterial isolates, and for analyzing clinical isolates from multiple infection sites. AST testing determines the clinical isolate's susceptibility/resistance to multiple antibiotics, and the information garnered from susceptibility testing is vital for informing patient treatment strategies. However, the results need to be interpreted in the context of resitance patterns which is crucial for addressing the problem of AMR from the AST results. AST results do provide a limited scope of the ways bacteria interact with antimicrobial agents, and that scope is dynamic and changes with selective pressure. That pressure can be caused by the poor practices of antibiotics prescribing, as well as the infection location, pathogen type, and healthcare environments [32].

After clinical isolation, certain elements enable the persistence of and/or new development of resistance. These include genome changes, some beta-lactamases, and efflux pumps. Pathogenic bacteria can acquire resistance through genetic alterations to ribosomal proteins, which can confer resistance to macrolides and fluoroquinolones, and also to the antibiotic targets and the bacteria themselves. Substrates and enzymes that act on and hydrolyze beta-lactam antibiotics (e.g. penicillin) have increased the resistance of some pathogens such as Escherichia coli, Klebsiella pneumoniae, and Pseudomonas aeruginosa, to beta-lactam antibiotics. Among these, extended-spectrum beta-lactamases (ESBL) are enzymes that increase the clinical complexity of infections by imparting resistance to a wider variety of cephalosporins [33].

An example of acquired resistance is antibiotic efflux pumps. They prevent the critical level of antimicrobial agents from being reached and thus from stopping the reproduction of the bacteria. A classic example of this type of resistance is in the case of the Gram-negative bacterium Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Resistance of Pseudomonas aeruginosa to the action of efflux pumps is an example that synergizes the intrinsic resistance to several classes of antimicrobial agents. In addition, resistance traits especially as a result of horizontal gene transfer (HGT) tend to facilitate the spread of such traits within a bacterial population. HGT can happen through conjugal transfer, natural transformation, and bacteriophage-mediated transduction. This is how pathogenic bacteria quickly acquire new resistance determinants. The newly acquired resistance determinants make the treatment of such bacterial population more complex and the problem very dynamic because, as the population continues to respond to selective pressures, the problem continues to evolve, thus necessitating continuous monitoring [34].

The most alarming issue regarding AMR is the emergence of multi-drug resistant (MDR) bacteria, the pathogens that resist several, if not all, classes of antibiotics. In particular, Methicillin Resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA), Carbapenem Resistant Enterobacteriaceae (CRE) and Vancomycin Resistant Enterococcus (VRE) are prime examples of the most problematic strains of bacteria. These pathogens require the use of last-resort antibiotics, such as carbapenems and colistin. These last resort treatments are not a permanent solution as they also cause some form of resistance, making the issue worse. This is evidenced by the fact that some patients with these infective diseases, there is little that can be done other than to watch and wait. This ultimately prolongs the stay in the health-care institution, increases the costs in the health-care system, and adds to the mortality [35].

The differences in patterns of antimicrobial susceptibility is another factor complicating the fight against AMR. In high-income countries, hospital-acquired infections are particularly antimicrobial resistant because broad-spectrum antibiotics are frequently prescribed in the ICUs. Conversely, low- and middle-income countries tend to have unregulated antibiotic use in the food supply, inadequate infection control, and over-the-counter access to antibiotics. The combination of unrestricted antibiotic use in the healthcare system and in agriculture in low-resource countries accelerates the spread of antimicrobial resistance and complicates containment efforts. The extreme levels of resistance in the E. coli and Klebsiella pneumoniae of India and Pakistan highlight the need for improved infection control and antimicrobial stewardship in these countries [36].

The management of resistant microorganisms is as important as the management of antimicrobial resistance and its associated clinical challenges. The use of adaptive strategies can further minimize risk of treatment failure. Also, antimicrobial resistance and resistance pattern surveillance at the regional and national levels can scope the threat of antimicrobial resistance, both in the clinic and in the community. Antimicrobial resistance surveillance in the clinic and in the community is important, and is, partially, underdeveloped in many low- and middle-income countries. The absence of, or the presence of poorly functioning laboratory systems, antimicrobial susceptibility testing, and limited resources often mean that resistant microorganisms are overlooked in low-resource settings. This exacerbates the problem of antimicrobial resistance, and the responses to the threat of newly emerging additional resistances [37].

With greater income levels, countries can implement more sophisticated monitoring systems, such as the ones the CDC and WHO are beginning to build for monitoring infection resistances. These systems have been able to detect even greater numbers of Klebsiella pneumoniae and other multidrug resistant pathogens. However, even the most developed countries continue to the type and speed of infection resistance mechanisms to continue to develop more monitoring. In addition, the rapid change of responsive resistanc e-detecting molecular diagnostics as part of AMR surveillance. These tools will aid healthcare professionals in more timely adjustments to targeted therapies [38].

The key goal of Antimicrobial Stewardship Programs (ASP) is to control the spread of Antimicrobial Resistance (AMR) by optimizing the use of antibiotics to not only ensure appropriate selection, but also show the best way to thoughtfully dose and time therapy, thereby assisting in the resolution of the problem at hand, which is particularly relevant in hospitals, where patients frequently receive broad spectrum antibiotics. Reports suggest that hospitals with well-established ASPs have lower rates of resistance and lower rates of infection. Furthermore, ASPs keep to a minimum the overuse of antibiotics, which is also a driver of resistance. The enactment of guidelines concerning appropriate use of antibiotics, along with regular assessments and constructive feedback to prescribers, will improve responsible prescribing and lower the spread of resistant pathogens [39].

Along with antimicrobial stewardship, infection prevention and control help avoid the spread of resistant pathogens. Hand hygiene, sterilization of medical tools, isolation of resistant infection patients, and contact precautions are some key aspects of infection control. These aspects are especially critical in hospitals, where transmission can occur most frequently. The success of infection control practices is highly associated with the quality of the health system and the willingness of the health workers to follow the procedures. Poor infection control can spread resistant pathogens and make it ever increasingly difficult to control outbreaks [40].

The published literature dealing with new antibiotics and new therapies is another important area in addressing AMR. In recent decades, new antimicrobial agents are needed, but development of new antibiotics has drastically decreased. Due to the extensive cost of research and development and the hurdles and hurdles they face, many pharmaceutical companies divert their attention to other types of medicine. Consequently, the development of new antibiotics has been severely curtailed and many antibiotics in common use are growing less effective because of resistance. It is necessary to have focused, public-private partnerships and additional support for antimicrobial research to spur the discovery of new drugs and new therapies. Additionally, other strategies, such as vaccines, antimicrobial peptides and solutions, and bacteriophage therapy, should be examined as ways to address the challenge of resistant infections [41].

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The global rise of antimicrobial resistance necessitates urgent action. Future efforts should focus on the development of new antibiotics and alternative therapies, such as bacteriophage therapy and antimicrobial peptides. Additionally, the use of rapid diagnostic tools will enable faster identification of resistant pathogens, allowing for timely and appropriate treatment. Moreover, global collaborations between governments, healthcare organizations, and pharmaceutical companies will be critical in addressing AMR.

CONCLUSION

To finalize, antimicrobial susceptibility patterns from the clinical isolates, most especially, dictate the direction of treatment and pertinent public health initiatives. Unfortunately, mounting antimicrobial resistance, especially clinically, and in public health, remains a significant world-wide burden. Among many resistance mechanisms, the most common are some combination of genetic mutation, beta-lactamase, efflux pump production, and horizontal gene transfer. Much can, and should be done, to alleviate the ever-expanding threat of antimicrobial resistance. Continuous resistance monitoring, sound antimicrobial stewardship, and clinical infection control policies, coupled with the development of new antibiotics and alternative treatment modalities, will slow the threat. Crossing disciplines, the cooperation of healthcare practitioners, clinical researchers, public health professionals, and the community will be most impactful in lessening the burden of resistance and preserving the antimicrobial treatment against infection.

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