

1
2
3 **Prevalence and Antibigram Characteristics of Bacteriuria**
4 **and Cadidiuria among Indigenes of Selected Parts of Akure**
5 **North, Akure**

6 **ABSTRACT**

7 **Aims:** The aim of this study was to evaluate the prevalence and antibiogram characteristics
8 of bacteria and fungi in urine samples of some selected towns in Ondo State.

9 **Study design:** Experimental design.

10 **Study location:** Urine samples were collected from patients visiting University of Medical
11 Science Teaching Hospital Akure and indigenes of Ogbese, Opogun-Ayo and Ita-oniyan
12 community in Ondo North, Nigeria.

13 **Methodology:** Pre-survey of the study participants was carried out using randomly
14 distributed questionnaires. Two hundred and forty-three (243) urine samples were randomly
15 collected from apparently healthy male and female participants cutting across different age
16 groups. Presumptive identification of isolated bacteria and fungi were cultured on general
17 and differential media cysteine lactose electrolyte deficient agar, blood agar, nutrient agar,
18 and Potato dextrose agar, for fungal isolates) were done using standard methods. The
19 clinical and relative typed isolates were collected from Federal Institute of Industrial
20 Research Oshodi (FIIRO) and were subjected to antibiotic sensitivity pattern using array of
21 ten (10) conventional antibiotics according to Clinical Laboratory Standard Instruction.

22 **Results:** *Staphylococcus aureus* was the most frequently occurred (27.2%) bacteria isolated
23 from the urine samples while, *Candida albicans* had the least (5.6%) occurrence. These
24 findings revealed that bacteriuria and candidiuria were prevalent among the indigenes of
25 Ipogun-Ayo, Ondo State, with antibiotic sensitivity to few conventional antibiotics. This is an
26 indication of UTI among the indigenes and urgent need for medical attention.

27 **KEY WORDS:** Urinary Tract Infections, Bacteriuria, Candidiuria, Colony forming unit,
28 Antibiotics.

29 **1. INTRODUCTION**

30 Urinary Tract Infection (UTIs) is categorized as uncomplicated or complicated.
31 Uncomplicated UTIs normally affect persons who are otherwise healthy and have no
32 physical or nervous urinary tract abnormalities [1] while, complicated UTIs is accompanying
33 with factors increasing colonization, catheters and immunocompromised state of an
34 individual [2]. UTIs are commonly encountered in both the community and hospital
35 environment [3]. The infections have been reported among people of different ages, but
36 have been found to be more prominent with women [3, 4]. UTI is found to be predominant in

37 women at age 20, one third of women are known to visit health facilities treating and
38 retreating urinary tract infections. This infection is usually not common in males, but, when
39 present could lead to renal damage and chronic renal failure [5]. Bacteriuria is significant
40 when supposed sterile mid-stream urine exceeds 10^5 cfu/ ml. Many microorganisms are
41 known to cause urinary tract infections, but the most common causative agents are bacteria
42 namely: *Escherichia coli*, *Enterobacter aerogenes*, *Proteus mirabilis*, and *Staphylococcus*
43 spp [6]. Candiuria on like bacteriuria is not usually found in healthy persons. Candiduria is
44 mostly found in immunosuppressed and immunocompromised patients [7]. *Candida albicans*
45 is most frequent fungi causing UTI in patients. [7, 8] defined candiduria to be the presence of
46 candida species when more than 10^4 CFU/mL in urine. Antibiogram susceptibility pattern is
47 limited among people in Ondo state UTI survey particularly in the study area. This study was
48 aimed to determine the bacterial and profile, antibiogram pattern and the infections in the
49 studied area. The increase in the antimicrobial resistance poses a challenge in treating and
50 controlling UTIs [9].

51 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

52 **2.1 Ethics Approval**

53 Permission for the collection of urine samples for this research was obtained from the Ethics
54 Committee Ministry of Health, Akure, Nigeria. This allowed the collection of urine samples.
55 The areas of collection were among patients of University of Medical Sciences Teaching
56 Hospital, Akure and indigenes of Ogbese, Ipogun-Ayo and Ita-oniyan community.

57 **2.2 Collection of Urine Samples**

58 Two hundred and forty-three (243) urine samples were collected with clear instructions to the
59 participants. Clean-catch midstream urine sample was obtained from each participant into
60 sterile universal bottles.

61 **2.3 Isolation**

62 The samples were immediately transported to Microbiology Laboratory, Federal University of
63 Technology Akure, using a sample box containing ice packs within 1-2 hours. Four growth
64 media (Potato Dextrose Agar, Nutrient agar, CLED agar and blood agar) were prepared
65 according to manufacturers' manual and sterilized accordingly. Fifteen milliliters of each
66 growth medium was aseptically poured into sterilized petri dishes and allowed to gel. A
67 loopful of collected urine sample was aseptically transferred on the agar plates and spread
68 evenly. The labeled inoculated plates were incubated at $37\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ aerobically for 24 hours and
69 $25\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ colony forming units for 72 hours for bacteria and fungi respectively. Significant
70 growth was taken at 2×10^6 and 2×10^5 spore mL^{-1} [10]. Colonies were observed and counted
71 in cfu/ml using colony counter. Distinct colonies were sub cultured on nutrient agar and pure
72 cultures were stored in sterile slant bottles and kept in $4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for further studies.

73

74 **2.4 Collection of Typed Cultures**

75 Typed cultures relative to bacterial and fungal isolates from urine (*Escherichia coli* ATCC
76 25922 and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* ATCC 10145) were collected from Obafemi Awolowo
77 University Research laboratory while, *Staphylococcus aureus* NCTC 5571, , *Proteus vulgaris*
78 ATCC 29905, *Enterococcus faecalis* ATCC 23241 and *Klebsiella pneumonia* ATCC 13883
79 were collected from Federal Institute of Industrial Research Oshodi (FIIRO), Lagos. All these
80 isolates were subjected to confirmation in the Microbiology laboratory of Federal University
81 of Technology Akure. The isolates were sub-cultured and assayed appropriately for colonial,
82 morphological and biochemical tests.

83 **2.5 Presumptive Identification of Bacterial Isolates from Urine**

84 Colonial, morphological and biochemical characteristics of the isolates were determined
85 accordingly [11]. These colonial features include the opacity, increase and decrease in their
86 colony forming ability on different growth media, colour, shape, edge, elevation and surface.
87 Gram staining reaction was assayed for each bacterial and fungal isolates. The biochemical
88 tests carried out were sugar fermentation test, oxidase, urease, catalase, coagulase, citrate,
89 sulphide, indole and motility tests.

90 **2.5.1 Gram Staining Reactions**

91 Small inoculum of the bacterial and fungal colony was emulsified in sterile distilled water and
92 used to make thin preparation on glass slide. Then slide was kept safe to air-dry. The smear
93 was fixed to preserve microorganisms and to prevent smear from being washed away from
94 slides during staining. The slide was flooded with crystal violet stain for 60 seconds and
95 then quickly washed off under a slow running clean tap water, the water on the slide was
96 removed and smear covered with lugol's iodine for 60 seconds and washed off with clean
97 running tap water. Decolourizer (ethanol) was added for about 20 seconds in other to
98 decolourize purple dye-iodine complexes from the isolates and then washed under slow
99 flowing tap water; secondary stain (safranin) was added for 60 seconds, then was washed
100 off under slow running tap water and left to air dry. The slides were first examined
101 microscopically, with the 40x objective lens to check the staining and to see distribution of
102 material. A drop of oil immersion was placed on the stained smear then examined under with
103 a light microscope using oil immersion objective (x100) lens [12,14].

104 **2.5.2 Fermentation of Sugars**

105 Arabinose, Glucose, Fructose, Galactose, Lactose Sorbitol, Sucrose, Maltose and L-manitol
106 were used for the sugar fermentation test. 1.0 g of each sugar was weighed and dispensed
107 into different conical flasks and labeled appropriately, 2.5 g of peptone water was added up
108 to 100 ml of distilled water and 0.01 g of phenol red was added as the indicator 5 ml of each
109 sugar was dispensed into 20 mls test tubes with Durham's tube introduced in upturned
110 position into each test tube. Each test tube was corked with and labeled appropriately; and
111 sterilized 15 minutes at 121°C. After sterilization the test tubes were allowed to cool.
112 Bacterial isolates were now aseptically inoculated into the sugar solution and incubated at
113 37 °C to 24-72 hours. Changes in the colour from red to yellow specifies production of acid,
114 which implies that there was sugar utilization by the microorganism and appearance of
115 bubbles in the Durham's tube shows gas production but if there is no colour change, acid nor
116 gas is not produced which implies a negative reaction [14].

117 **2.5.3 Oxidase Test**

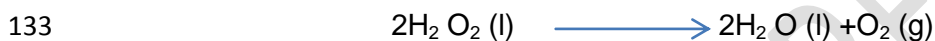
118 A piece of filter paper was soaked with 2-3 drops of oxidase reagent. Using a sterile piece of
119 stick, a colony of the test organism was picked and smeared on the filter paper reactions
120 were observed for 10 seconds. Positive oxidase indicators the prescience of blue – purple
121 colour while a negative reaction shows no colour change within the stipulated time [14].

122 **2.5.4 Urease Test**

123 The test organism was cultured by streaking over a agar surface. A urea free inoculated
124 medium send as the control. Release of ammonia brings about colour change from yellow to
125 pink or red which designated a positive result and no change show a negative result [14].

126 **2.5.5 Catalase Test**

127 This test distinguished enzyme producing baacteria by the breakdown of hydrogen peroxide
128 to oxygen and water. 3% hydrogen peroxide was prepared and a drop was placed on a
129 glass slide. Using a sterile wooden stick, a colony of the test organism of 24 hours old
130 culture was placed in the hydrogen peroxide and mixed together gently. Effervescence
131 caused by the organism by the liberation of oxygen by the organism designates a positive
132 result while, a negative result shows the absence of catalase production [14].



134 **2.5.6 Coagulase Test**

135 A 24hrs old culture was emulsified in normal saline on clear grease free slide containing a
136 drop of distilled water on both end of the slide to make two thick suspensions. Then a
137 loopful of plasma was added to one of the suspensions and mixed gently. The second
138 suspensions contain no plasma. This was used to differentiate any granular appearance of
139 the organism from true coagulase clumping. Clumps or precipitates in 10 seconds indicates
140 a positive result while, no clumping within 10 seconds indicates a negative test [14].

141 **2.5.7 Citrate Test**

142 Simon citrate agar was prepared as slopes of medium in bijou bottles according to the
143 instruction of the manufacturer, poured aseptically and allowed to gel. Overnight both
144 culture of the bacteria was inoculate on the medium and incubated at 37 °C for 3-5days
145 colour change from green to bright blue colour indicates a positive citrate test while, no
146 colour change indicates a negative citrate test of medium [13, 15].

147 **2.5.8 SIM Test (Sulfide, Indole, Motility)**

148 SIM agar was prepared according to the manufactures specification in test tubes and
149 sterilized in the autoclave for 15 minutes at 121°C. After the agar is cooled and became a
150 semi-solid-medium, 24hrs cultures of the tested organisms were inoculated in the SIM
151 medium by the medium by making a stab on the center of the medium to a depth of ½ inch,
152 and then incubated aerobically at 37 °C for 24hours. Then the following results were
153 recorded. A H₂S positive test was denoted by blackening of the medium along the
154 inoculation line. H₂S negative result means there is no blackening. Positive motility test
155 indicate by a diffused zone of growth from inoculation line while, a negative result means
156 otherwise [15]. Indole positive result was affirmed by pink to red colour band at the top of

157 the medium once Kavacs Reagent has been added. A green/yellow colour denotes indole
158 negative result [13].

159 **2.6 Identification of fungal isolates**

160 The fungal colonies were sub-cultured on Potato Dextrose Agar. The isolates were
161 identified based on their morphological and microscopic features. Two drops of
162 cotton-blue-in-lactophenol were placed on clean glass slide and small piece of
163 mycelium free of medium was removed with sterile inoculating needle and transferred
164 on to the stain. The mycelium was teased (picked) out with the needles and covered
165 with clean cover slip carefully avoiding air bubbles and observed under the
166 microscope for vegetative and reproductive structures [16].

167 **2.7 Antibiotic Susceptibility Test**

168 Antibiotic susceptibility patterns of the bacterial isolates were evaluated using disc diffusion
169 assay [17]. Antibiotic disc containing the following antibiotics was used: Gentamicin (10 µg),
170 Amoxicillin (30 µg), Chloramphenicol (30 µg), Erythromycin (10 µg), Streptomycin (10 µg),
171 Augmentin (30 µg), Septrin (30 µg), Ampiclox (30 µg), Zinnacet (30 µg), Pefloxacin (10 µg),
172 Rocephin (30 µg), Sparfloxacin (30 µg), Tarivid (30 µg) and Ciprofloxacin (5 µg).
173 Standardized culture of each isolate was used to seed Mueller-Hinton agar aseptically.
174 These were allowed to solidify and the antibiotic discs were aseptically placed on the surface
175 of the culture media in a sterile condition. The plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 hr.
176 Zones of inhibition were recorded and compared with Committee for Clinical Laboratory
177 Standards Interpretative Chart, [18].

178 **2.8 Statistical Analysis**

179 All data obtained were subjected to one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) using SPSS
180 20.0v. Difference between means was determined by Duncan's New Multiple Range Test at
181 ($p \leq 0.05$).
182
183

184 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

185
186 Table 1 shows the frequency of occurrence of uropathogen in respect to study location. Ita-
187 oniyán had the highest (43.80%) of *S. saprophyticus* and least (7.14%) with *K. pneumoniae*.
188 Ogbese had the highest (37.50%) of *P. vulgaris* and lowest (11.11%) of *E. coli*. Ipogun-Ayo
189 had the highest microbial distribution of (37.04%) with *E. coli* and lowest (2.50%) with *P.*
190 *vulgaris*. University of Medical Sciences Teaching Hospital, Akure. (UNIMED) had the
191 highest (36.36%) of *C. albicans* and least (9.39%) of *S. saprophyticus*. The total microbial
192 distribution of uropathogens across study location showed Ipogun-Ayo to have the highest
193 (28.72%) while; Ita-oniyán had the least (23.07%) among others. It was revealed that
194 Ipogun-Ayo had the highest percentage of bacteriuria among the study site. The result of this
195 work is in corroboration with the discoveries of [19, 20] who in their study on the assessment
196 of edemicity of praziquantel where Ipogun-Ayo had the highest prevalence of 18.0%. This
197 present study also implicated Ipogun-Ayo to have the highest prevalence of (28.72%).
198

199 **Table 1:** Frequency of occurrence of uropathogens in respect to study locations

200

Isolate	Ita-oniyan		Ogbese		Ipogun-Ayo		UNIMED		Total (per organism %)
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	7	13.2	15	22.30	17	32.08	14	26.42	53
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	5	18.51	3	11.11	10	37.04	9	33.33	27
<i>Proteus vulgaris</i>	6	25.00	9	37.50	6	2.50	3	12.5	24
<i>Staphylococcus saprophyticus</i>	14	43.80	5	15.63	10	31.25	3	9.38	32
<i>Enterococcus faecalis</i>	4	21.05	4	21.05	6	31.58	5	26.32	19
<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	1	7.14	5	33.71	3	21.48	5	35.71	14
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	5	33.33	4	26.67	3	20.00	3	20.00	15
<i>Candida albicans</i>	3	27.27	3	27.27	1	9.09	4	36.36	11
Total (per location %)	45	23.07 %	48	24.61 %	56	28.72%	46	23.59%	195

201 Table 2 shows the percentage occurrence of microorganisms isolated from urine samples.
 202 The presumptive isolates were *S. saprophyticus*, *K. pneumonia*, *P. vulgaris*, *C. albicans*, *E.*
 203 *coli*, *S. aureus*, *E. feacalis*, *P. aeruginosa*. This result shows *S. aureus* to be most frequently
 204 occurred with (27.2%) while *C. albicans* had the lowest (5.6%) among others. The
 205 microorganisms isolated from the urine samples were; *Proteus vulgaris*, *Staphylococcus*
 206 *aureus*, *Escherichia coli*, *Staphylococcus saprophyticus*, *Enterococcus feacalis*, *Klebsiella*
 207 *pneumonia*, *Pseudomonas aureginosa* and *Candida albicans*. The presence of these
 208 organisms in urine samples was however, substantial to the findings of [21, 22].
 209 *Staphylococcus aureus* to be the most frequently occurred uropathogen with 27.2%. The
 210 presence of *S. aureus* at higher percentage is however, supported by [22] that
 211 *Staphylococcus* spp. is common to cause urinary tract infections in younger persons. Odoki
 212 *et al.*, [21] also recorded *S. aureus* to be more prominent to cause UTIs among pregnant
 213 women in Uganda.

214 However, probable cause for increase in the percentage of *Staphylococcus aureus* in urine
 215 samples from patients and participants could be as a result of contamination during
 216 collection of urine samples. Secondly, since this infection was found to be prominent with
 217 persons that are in their sexually active stage and age, it could also be as result of oral
 218 sexual intercourse, thereby causing bacteraemia. Another factor could be over use of antibiotics
 219 making *Staphylococcus* species to grow resistance to the effectiveness of the drugs. This
 220 will make it possible for the organisms by producing enzymes that destroys the active drugs
 221 [23]. *Staphylococci* are known to be resistant to penicillin G by producing a β –Lactamase
 222 that destroys the drug. *Staphylococcus* species could have also been able to gain resistance
 223 to the administered conventional drugs by failure to activate autolytic enzymes in the cell
 224 wall, which then resulted in the inhibition without killing the bacteria. This could also be as a
 225 result of survival of the bacteria in the bladder through progression in the intracellular
 226 bacteria communities (IBC) [22].

227

228 **Table 2: Percentage occurrence of microorganisms isolated from urine samples**

Isolate	Total	Percentage
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	53	27.2
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	27	13.8
<i>Proteus vulgaris</i>	24	12.3
<i>Staphylococcus saprophyticus</i>	32	16.4
<i>Enterococcus feacalis</i>	19	9.7
<i>Klebsiella pneumonia</i>	14	7.2
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	15	7.7
<i>Candida albicans</i>	11	5.6
	195	100%

229

230

231

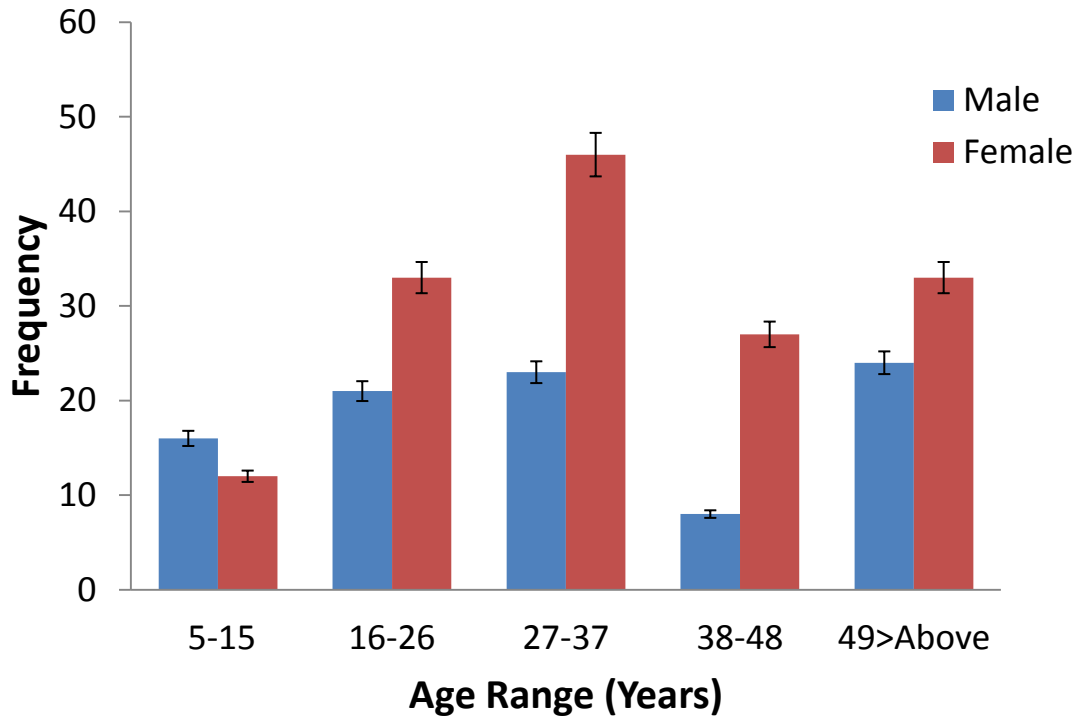
232

233

234 **3.3 Occurrence of uropathogens in relation to age and sex distribution**

235 Figure 1 shows the distribution of bacterial and fungal isolates across different age groups;
236 ages 5-15 ages had 6.58% male and 4.93% female, ages 16-26 had 8.64% male and 13.6%
237 female, ages 27-37 had 9.42% male and 18.93% female; ages 38-48 had 3.29% male and
238 11.11% female and ages from 49 and above had 9.88% male and 13.6% female.
239 [24], reported that, UTI when complicated may be life threatening thereby involving the lower
240 urinary tract and/or the upper urinary tracts. The age of the participants and patients that
241 featured in this study, which had the highest occurrence of the infection were people within
242 the age ranges of 27-37 years. This result is corresponding to that of [22] who reported that
243 people within this age range and those that are at ages lesser than fifty years of age are
244 mostly susceptible to the infection. Findings from this study also revealed that female have
245 higher (18.93%) of the uropathogens compared to male folks. [25, 26], reported in that
246 urinary tract infections occurs four times more frequently in female than in male which is
247 usually because of their anatomical makeup. The female anatomy allows easy passage of
248 uropathogens from the rectum to the genitourinary part. The importance of the ascending
249 route of infection is supported by the shortness of length of the urethra (4cm) and also the
250 proximity to the warm moist vulva (which encourages the growth of uropathogens).
251 According to [22] the perirectal areas are also prone to be colonized by uropathogens.
252 Aydin *et al.*, [27] also reported that fluctuation in the female hormone; progesterone
253 stimulates the growth of uropathogens.

254 Impaired and immunodeficiency state of the host could be a possible reason for the increase
255 in the microbial population thereby causing urinary tract infections. When a person is
256 immunodeficient, this could lead to frequent, severe and recurrent urinary tract infections
257 [27]. In accordance with the findings of [28] who highlighted some predisposing factors to
258 UTIs as (immunodeficiency) diabetes mellitus, organ transplants, (urinary irregularities)
259 urinary calculi, voiding dysfunction, reduced urine flow; (behavioural effects) sexual
260 intercourse, spermicide use and estrogen deficiency. High volume of retention of urine could
261 be responsible for recurrent UTIs in male patients, and also those that with lower UTIs
262 symptoms [28].



263

264 **Figure 1: Frequency occurrence of uropathogens in relation to age and sex**
 265 **distribution**

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281 **3.4 Variation in the Colony Counts on Different Culture Media**

282 Table 3 shows the variation in the colony counts on different culture media. CLED, BA, NA,
 283 and PDA were used for bacterial and fungal isolates respectively. NA had the highest
 284 (greater than the colony forming unit for bacterial isolates) being a general purpose media.
 285 CLED agar had higher cfu for bacteria that had affinity for cysteine and lactose. Blood agar
 286 also exhibited greater cfu for hemolytic bacteria distinguishing the α , β and gamma
 287 hemolysis bacteria among others while, PDA on supported the growth of fungal isolates after
 288 the introduction of chloramphenicol before the 40°C cool agar was poured into petri-dishes
 289 and allowed to set.

290

291 **Table 3: Variation in colony counts in culture media used for urine samples**

Organisms	CLED	BA	NA
Bacteria (10^5 cfu/ml)			
A	+	+	+
B	+	-	+
C	-	-	+
D	+	+	+
E	+	-	+
F	+	-	+
G	-	-	+
Fungi (10^6 cfu/ml)			
	PDA		
H	+		

292 **KEY:** A = *Staphylococcus aureus*, B = *Escherichia coli*, C= *Proteus vulgaris*, D=
 293 *Staphylococcus saprophyticus*, E= *Enterococcus faecalis*, F= *Klebsiella pneumonia*, G=
 294 *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, H=*Candida albicans*, + = indicates a higher colony count
 295 observed for a particular microbiological media, - = indicates a less colony count observed
 296 for a particular microbiological media, CLED = cysteine lactose electrolyte deficient agar, BA
 297 = Blood agar, NA = Nutrient agar, PDA = potato dextrose agar

298

299

300

301

302

303

304 **3.5 Colonial Characteristics of Bacterial and Fungal isolates**

305 Table 4 shows the colonial characteristics of bacterial and fungal isolates considering the
 306 following features; opacity, colour of the colonies with respect to different culture media,
 307 shape, edge, elevation, surface.

308

309 **Table 4: Colonial characteristics of isolated bacteria**

Isolates	Opacity	Colour	Shape	Edge	Elevation	Surface
A	Opaque	Deep yellow on CLED	Cicular	Undular	Raised	Smooth
B	Opaque	Pink on MacConkey	Circular	Entire	Raised/convex	Smooth
C	Opaque	Colourless on MacConkey	Circular	Entire	Convex	Smooth
D	Opaque	White to pink on MacConkey	Circular	Entire	Convex	Smooth
E	Opaque	White on MacConkey	Circular	Entire	Convex	Smooth
F	Opaque	Grey on CLED	Circular	Small mucoid	Convex	Smooth
G	Opaque	Greenish on nutrient agar	Round	Entire	Flat	Rough
H	Opaque	Cream to white	Round	Entire	Raised	Smooth

KEY: A = *Staphylococcus aureus*, B = *Escherichia coli*, C= *Proteus vulgaris*, D= *Staphylococcus saprophyticus*, E= *Enterococcus faecalis*, F= *Klebsiella pneumonia*, G= *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, H=*Candida albicans*,

3.6 Biochemical Characteristics of the Bacterial Isolates

Table 5 shows the biochemical characteristics of the bacterial isolates. The probable isolates were subjected to Simon citrate test, Urease test, oxidase test, motility (to confirm it an organism is motile or not), indole test, catalase, coagulase, sugar fermentation test, grams reaction, among the others.

310 **Table 5: Biochemical and morphological characteristics of bacteria isolate.**

Isolates	Gram stain	Cell shape	urease	oxidase	Citrate	Motility	Indo	Catalase	Coagulase	gas	H ₂ S	Mannitol	Lactose	Sucrose	Glucose	Galactose	Maltose	Presumptive Isolates
A	+	Cocci	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>
B	-	Rod	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	<i>Escherichia coli</i>
C	-	Rod	+	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	-	<i>Proteus vulgaris</i>
D	+	Cocci	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	<i>Staphylococcus saprophyticus</i>
E	+	Cocci	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	<i>Enterococcus faecalis</i>
F	-	Rod	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>
G	-	Rod	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>

311 **KEY: KEY:** A = *Staphylococcus aureus*, B = *Escherichia coli*, C= *Proteus vulgaris*, D= *Staphylococcus saprophyticus*, E= *Enterococcus*
 312 *faecalis*, F= *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, G= *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, + = **Positive**, - = **negative**

313 **3.7 Antibiogram Susceptibility Pattern of Bacterial and Fungal Isolates in respect to**
 314 **the Tested Conventional Antibiotics**

315
 316 Table 6 shows the antifungal activities of convention antifungal agents against test clinical
 317 and typed fungal isolates. *C. albican* ATCC 10231 had the highest (21.00±0.58 mm) zone of
 318 inhibition compared to clinical fungal isolates.

319 Table 7 and 8 showed the antibiogram susceptibility pattern of Gram-positive and Gram-
 320 negative in respect to the tested conventional antibiotics. Ciprofloxacin was most effective
 321 while septrin was least effective (1.33±0.33 mm) zone of inhibition. Typed bacterial and
 322 fungal isolates were more susceptible to the conventional antibiotics than clinical isolates. *P.*
 323 *aeruginosa* ATCC 10145 had the highest (22.00±1.15 mm) zone of inhibition while, *K.*
 324 *pneumonia*, had the least (16.33±0.67 mm) zone of inhibition to ciprofloxacin at (30 µg).

325 The pattern of conventional antibiotics in inhibiting the growth of both clinical and typed
 326 organisms showed the varying abilities of each organism to resist the antimicrobial activity.
 327 However, these disparities could be due to variation in the structure and components of the
 328 microbial cell wall, because these attributes are the ultimate target of any antimicrobial agent
 329 [29]. The result of the conventional drugs susceptibility test shows that Gram-negative
 330 microorganisms were more susceptible to the antibiotics than Gram-positive organisms.
 331 These differences may be due to the cell wall structural differences between the Gram-
 332 negative and Gram-positive bacteria. The result is in corroboration with [23] who revealed
 333 that the walls of Gram-positive that might be responsible for this resistance is the thick layer
 334 of peptidoglycan which makes it resistance to osmotic pressure.

335 The wide spread use of conventional drugs both inside and outside medicine is important in
 336 the emergence and re-emergence of resistant bacteria [30]. The extensive and wrong use of
 337 antimicrobial agents has consistently led to the development of antibiotics resistance
 338 which has become a major problem globally [30]. [31] observed in recent discoveries that
 339 bacteria antibiotics resistance patterns may be due to the presence of large plasmid and the
 340 ability of the plasmids to undergo conjugation process.

341
 342 **Table 6: Antibiotics susceptibility pattern of conventional antifungi agents on fungal**
 343 **isolates**

Isolate	Fluconazole	Itraconazole	Ketoconazole
<i>C. albican</i>	11.00±0.58 ^a	16.33±0.33 ^b	26.00±0.58 ^c
<i>C. albican</i> ATCC 10231	21.00±0.58 ^b	16.00±0.58 ^a	16.33±0.33 ^a

345 Values represent means ± standard deviation of triplicate readings. Superscripts of the same
 346 letter in a row are not significantly different at P≤0.05.

347
 348

349
350
351
352
353

Table 7: Antibiotics susceptibility pattern of conventional antibiotics on Gram- positive bacteria

Bacteria	PEF	CN	APX	Z	AM	R	CPX	S	SXT	E
<i>S. aureus</i>	10.00±0.5 8 ^a	12.00±0.58 a ^b	16.67±0.3 3 ^d	19.67±0.8 8 ^e	14.67±0.8 8 ^{cd}	15.67±0.8 8 ^d	19.67±0.8 8 ^e	11.00±0.58 a	13.33±0.33 bc	14.33±0.6 7 ^{cd}
<i>S. aureus</i> NCTC 6571	11.33±0.8 8 ^a	11.67±0.66 a	19.67±0.0 7 ^c	15.33±0.8 8 ^b	14.00±0.5 8 ^c	14.33±0.6 7 ^b	20.67±0.8 8 ^c	14.00±0.58 b	16.33±0.58 b	14.33±0.6 7 ^b
<i>S. saprophyticus</i>	6.67±0.88 a	14.00±0.58 bc	19.00±0.5 8 ^d	13.67±0.8 8 ^b	16.33±0.6 7 ^c	14.33±0.3 3 ^b	18.67±1.2 0 ^d	14.33±0.33 bc	14.33±0.88 bc	14.33±0.6 7 ^{bc}
<i>E. feacalis</i>	0.00±00 ^a	14.67±0.88 b	14.33±0.6 6 ^b	15.00±0.5 8 ^b	13.00±0.5 8 ^b	13.00±1.1 5 ^b	18.33±0.5 8 ^c	14.00±0.5 8 ^b	15.00±0.57 b	13.67±0.3 3 ^b
<i>E. feacalis</i> ATCC 23241	1.00±0.58 a	14.00±0.58 b	16.33±1.5 2 ^{bc}	18.67±0.8 8 ^{ef}	15.00±0.5 8 ^{bc}	14.33±0.6 7 ^b	19.67±0.3 3 ^e	16.33±0.58 cd	18.00±0.58 def	17.00±0.7 8 ^{de}

354
355
356
357
358
359
360
361
362
363

Values represent means ± standard error of triplicate readings. Superscripts of the same letter in a row are not significantly different at p≤0.05.

KEY: PEF = Pefloxacin, CN = Gentamycin, APX = Ampiclox, Z = Zinnacef, AM = Amoxicillin, R = Rocephin, CPX = Ciprofloxacin, S = Streptomycin, SXT = Septrin, E = Erythromycin

364

365

366 **Table 8: Antibiotics susceptibility pattern of conventional antibiotics on Gram- negative bacteria**

Bacteria	SXT	CH	SP	CPX	AM	AU	CN	PEF	OFX	S
<i>E. coli</i>	8.00±0 .58 ^a	19.67±0. 88 ^{ef}	2.67±0.67 a	21.00±0.6 7 ^f	18.33±0.5 8 ^e	1.00±1.14 a	15.67±0.5 8 ^{cd}	14.00±0.8 3 ^{bc}	13.00±0.8 8 ^{cd}	12.00±0.67 ±0.58 ^e
<i>E. coli</i> ATCC 25922	9.00±0 .58 ^a	21.00±0. 58 ^{ef}	19.67±0.8 8 ^{de}	21.67±0.6 7 ^f	20.00±0.5 8 ^{def}	12.00±0.5 8 ^a	19.00±0.5 8 ^d	16.00±0.5 8 ^c	13.00±0.5 8 ^a	12.00±0.58 cda
<i>P. vulgaris</i>	9.0±0. 58 ^a	0.33±0.3 3 ^a	16.00±0.5 8 ^e	19.00±0.5 8 ^f	18.00±0.5 8 ^f	1.00±0.58 a	15.67±0.3 3 ^{de}	13.33±0.8 8 ^{bc}	14.00±0.5 8 ^{cd}	20.67±0.33 f
<i>P. vulgaris</i> ATCC 29905	6.0±1. 52 ^a	3.67±0.8 8 ^a	17.67±0.8 8 ^d	20.0±0.67 e	21.00±1.1 5 ^f	14.00±0.5 8 ^b	18.33±0.6 7 ^{de}	17.00±0.5 8 ^{cd}	14.67±0.3 3 ^a	21.33±0.33 f
<i>K. pneumonia</i>	00.0±0 .00 ^a	00.00±0. 00 ^a	18.33±0.5 8 ^{de}	16.33±0.6 7 ^d	15.33±0.3 3 ^{cd}	18.67±0.8 8 ^e	0.00±0.00 a	11.00±0.5 8 ^b	14.00±0.5 8 ^c	19.67±0.88 ef
<i>K. pneumonia</i> ATCC 13883	1.3±0. 88 ^a	1.00±1.1 4 ^a	21.00±0.6 7 ^f	17.67±0.8 8 ^{cd}	18.33±1.2 0 ^{de}	18.00±0.5 8 ^d	2.00±0.58 a	13.67±0.8 8 ^{bc}	18.00±0.5 8 ^d	21.67±0.88 ef
<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	1.33±0 .33 ^a	15.67±0. 33 ^{cd}	15.33±0.3 3 ^{cd}	21.33±1.2 0 ^e	11.67±0.8 8 ^a	13.33±0.8 8 ^{bc}	18.33±0.6 7 ^d	16.00±0.5 8 ^c	19.00±0.5 8 ^d	17.00±1.00 d
<i>P. aeruginosa</i> ATCC 10145	3.0±0. 58 ^a	17.36±0. 88 ^{cd}	16.00±0.5 8 ^{bcd}	22.00±1.1 5 ^e	12.67±0.8 8 ^a	15.00±0.5 8 ^b	20.67±0.3 3 ^e	16.33±0.3 3 ^{bcd}	14.33±0.3 3 ^{ab}	18.00±0.58 ef

367 Values represent means ± standard error of triplicate readings. Superscripts of the same letter in a row are not significantly different at p≤0.05.

368 **KEY: SXT = Septrin, CH = Chloranphnicol, SP = Sparfloxacin, CPX = Ciprofloxacin, AM = Amoxicillin, AU = Augumentin, CN = Gentamycin,**
369 **PEF = Pefloxacin, OFX = Tarivid, S = Streptomycin**

370 **4. CONCLUSION**

371 This study revealed *S. aureus* to be prominent in causing UTIs in people at young ages and
372 Ipogun-Ayo has high endemicity with bacteriuria compared to other study sites. Conventional
373 antibiotics should be used appropriately as prescribed by the physician in order to avoid
374 resistance.

375

376 **5. REFERENCES**

377

- 378 1. Hooton TM. Uncomplicated urinary tract infection. *New Engl J. Med.*, 2012;
379 366:1028–1037
- 380 2. Flores-Mireles A, Walker J, Caparon M, Hultgren S. Urinary tract infections:
381 epidemiology, mechanisms of infection and treatment options. *Nat Rev Micro.*,
382 2015;13(5): 269–284.
- 383 3. Azubuike CN, Nuamadu OJ, Oji RU. Prevalence of urinary tract infection among
384 school children in a Nigerian Rural Community. *West African J Med.* 1994; 13(1):48-
385 52.
- 386 4. Oyewale MO. Urinary tract infections among students of Osun State Polytechnic,
387 Iree. *Int J Sci Inno. Sustainable Deve.* 2015; 5 (2):57-64.
- 388 5. Davison AM, Cumming AD, Swainson CP. Diseases of the kidney and urinary
389 system. In: *Davidson's Principles and Practise of Medicine.* Churchill Livingstone,
390 Edinburgh. 2000; 1175.
- 391 6. Famurewa O. (1992). Prevalence of urinary tract infection in women in Ado-Ekiti,
392 Nigeria. *L'igiene Mordema.* 1992; 97:580-591.
- 393 7. Gharaghami M, Taghipour S, Halvaezadeh M, Malmoudababi A. Candiduria; a
394 review article with specific data from Iran. *Turkey J Urology*, 2018; 44 (6) 445-452.
- 395 8. Trnka P, Kralik J, Tuharsky J, Sagart T, Hudecova N. Candiduria in critically ill
396 children; risk factors and predictors of mortality. *Infecti Dis clin prac* 1998; 7: 234-239.
- 397 9. Maniga N, Mogaka G, Nyambare L, Eilu E. "Prevalence and susceptibility pattern of
398 bacterial urinary tract infections among pregnant HIV positive women in Guch a sub
399 country, Kenya". *Special Bact Path*, 2015; 1: (1) 10-15.
- 400 10. Kolawole AS, Kolawole OM, Kandaki-Olukemi Y T, Babatunde S K, Durowade KA,
401 Kolawole CF. Prevalence of urinary tract infections (UTI) among patients attending
402 Dalhatu Araf Specialist Hospital, Lafia, Nasarawa State, Nigeria. *Int J Med Medical*
403 *Sci.* 2015; 1 (5) 163-167.
- 404 11. Cheesbrough, M. *District Laboratory Practice in Tropical Countries, Part 2. Second*
405 *edition Update*, Cambridge University Press, 2014; 434.
- 406 12. Cheesbrough M. "District laboratory practice in tropical countries". Cambridge
407 University Press, New York, 2010; 157-164.
- 408 13. Cheesbrough, M. *District Laboratory Practice in Tropical Countries—Part 2. 2nd*
409 *Edition*, Cambridge University Press, New York. 2006.
- 410 14. Fawole MO, Oso BA. *Characterization of Bacteria: Laboratory Manual of*
411 *Microbiology.* 4th Edn., Spectrum Book Ltd., Ibadan, Nigeria, 2004; 24-33.
- 412 15. Olutiola PO, Famurewa O, Sonntag HG. *Introduction to General Microbiology:*
413 *A Practical Approach.* 2nd Edn., Bolabay Publications, Ikeja, Nigeria, 2000.
- 414 16. Hunter BB, Bameett, HL. *Deuteromycetes (Fungi Imperfecti).* In: *Handbook of*
415 *Microbiology*, Laskin AI, Lechevalier HA. (Eds.). 4th Edn., CRC Press, Boca
416 Raton, FL., 2000; 1 -234.

- 417 17. Okore VC. Evaluation of chemical Antimicrobial agents. Bacterial resistance to
418 antimicrobial agents, *Pharmaceutical microbiology*, 2005; 55-120.
- 419 18. Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI). Performance Standards for
420 Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing; Twenty-Fourth Informational Supplement. CLSI
421 Document M100-S24, Wayne, 2014; 34(1).
-
- 422 19. Oniya MO, Jeje. Urinary schistosomiasis: Efficacy of praziquantel and association of
423 blood grouping in the disease epidemiology. *Int J. Biotech. Micro.*2010; 1:31-35.
- 424 20. Oniya MO, Ishola MA, Jayeoba OD. Schistosomiasis in Ipogun: Update Assessment
425 on Endemicity and Efficacy of Praziquantel in Chemotherapy. *Int J. Trop. Dis.*
426 *Health*, 2013; 3(1):37-44.
- 427 21. Odoki M, Aliero A, Tibyangye J, Maniga J, Wampande E, Kato C, Agwu E, Bazira
428 J. (2019). Prevalence of Bacterial Urinary Tract Infections and Associated Factors
429 among Patients Attending Hospitals in Bushenyi District, Uganda. *International*
430 *Journal of Microbiology*, 2019
- 431 22. Danielle M, d'Anzeo G, Danielle C, Alessandro C, Giovanni M. (2011). Urinary tract
432 Infection in women: etiology and treatment options. *International Journal of General*
433 *Medicine*, 2011; 4: 333-343.
-
- 434 23. Willey JM, Sherwood L, Woolverton CJ, Prescott LM. Antimicrobial Chemotherapy.
435 *Prescott's Microbiology*, 8th Edition, New York: McGraw-Hill: 2011; 747-767.
- 436 24. Chandra Bala S, Koneru RK, Evod EK, Devarajan DK. Evaluation of the Prevalence
437 of Urinary Tract Infection in Females Aged 6-50 Years at Kinondoni District,
438 Tanzania. *Sci Int*, 2017; 5: 42-46
-
- 439 25. Sakamoto S, Miyazawa K, Yasui T, Iguchi T, Fujita M, Nishimatsu H, Masaki T,
440 Hasegawa T, Hibi H, Arakawa T, Ando R, Kato Y, Ishito N, Yamaguchi S, Takazawa
441 R, Tsujihata M, Taguchi M, Akakura K, Hata A, Ichikawa T. Chronological changes in
442 epidemiological characteristics of lower urinary tract urolithiasis in Japan. *Int J*
443 *Urology*, 2019; 26(1):96-101.
- 444 26. Alperin M, Burnett L, Lukacz E, Brubaker L. The mysteries of menopause and
445 urogynecologic health: clinical and scientific gaps. *Menopause*. 2019; 26(1):103-111.
- 446 27. Aydin A, Ahmed K, Zaman I, Khan MS, Dasgupta, P. Recurrent urinary tract
447 infections in women. *Int Urogynecol J*. 2015; 26(6):795-804.
- 448 28. Jia-Fong J, Hann-Chorng K. Recent advances in recurrent urinary tract infection from
449 pathogenesis and biomarkers to prevention. *Ci Ji Yi Xue Za Zhi*. 2017; 29 (3): 131-
450 137.
- 451 29. Oladunmoye MK. Comparative evaluation of antimicrobial activities and
452 phytochemical screening of two varieties of *Acalypha wilkesiana*. *Trends of*
453 *Appl. Sci Research*, 2006 ; 1: 538-541.
- 454 30. Goossens H, Ferech M, Vander Stichele R, Elseviers M. Outpatient antibiotic use in
455 Europe and association with resistance: a cross-national database study. *Lancet*.
456 2005; 18; 365 (9459):579-87.
- 457 31. Onifade AK, Oladoja MA, Fadipe DO. Antibiotics sensitivity pattern of E. coli isolated
458 from children of school age in Ondo state, Nigeria. *Researcher*, 2015; 7(2):73-76.

459

460

461

462