EPIDEMIOLOGY, BACTERIAL PROFILE, AND ANTIBIOTIC SENSITIVITY OF LOWER RESPIRATORY TRACT INFECTIONS IN SANA'A AND THAMAR CITY, YEMEN

ABSTRACT

Background and aims: Lower respiratory infections (LRTIs) are the leading cause of death infectious diseases in the world and the fifth leading cause of death in general. The study aimed to identify the general characteristics of LRTI, the causative bacteria and the results of sensitivity to antibiotics. Subjects and methods: The study included 555 clinical diagnostic cases as LRTI cases, 328 male and 227 female, aged 3 to 69 years. Clinical and demographic data were collected in the standard questionnaire, and samples included sputum or bronchial lavage (BAL) staining and culture. Samples were cultured in 3 different bacterial media, blood agar and LJ slope, chocolate agar with Co²; cultures were then examined for possible bacterial pathogens of LRTI. Possible bacterial pathogens were isolated and identified using standard laboratory techniques, and microbial sensitivity testing was carried out by disc diffusion method. Results: LRTI was recorded among all age groups and with less frequency in children under 16 years of age. A large number of LRTI (36.2%) was not diagnosed, most in CAP (52.4%), followed by HAP (33.9%) while unidentified cases were lower in AECOPD (22.8%). CAP isolates are K.pneumoniae (26.2%), S.pyogens (12.3%), and S.pneumoniae (9%); in HAP are MSSA (24%), E.Coli (12.9%), MRAS (11.1%), k.pneumoniae (10.5%) and P.aeruginosa (7%); and in AECOPD are M.catarrhalis (47.2%), K.pneumoniae (17.2%), H.influnzae (10.7%) and P.aeruginosa (2%). In Gram-positive bacteria, high resistance to ampicillin/sulbactam (100%) and amoxicillin/clavulanate (100%) was recorded, while moderate resistance to amikacin, vancomycin, cefepime and moxifloxacin was recorded. In Gram-negative bacteria, a high resistance to 3rd g Cephalosporin's (68.5%) was recorded, while a moderate sensitivity to the other antibiotics tested was recorded. Conclusions: There is a high rate of undiagnosed LRTI in Yemen and this highlights the need for health authorities to develop strategies to diagnose most of the causes of LRTI, including Mycoplasma, Chlamydia, and viral causes. No antibiotics are completely effective in treating LRTI in our area and antibiotic sensitivity should be performed in all cases.

Keywords: Lower respiratory tract infections (LRTIs), antibiotics, Sana'a City, Thamar city, Yemen.

INTRODUCTION

Lower respiratory tract infection (LRTIs) is the leading cause of infectious diseases of death worldwide, the fifth overall cause of death, and the second general cause of disability adjusted life years (DALYs), although they are largely preventable causes of diseases and Death¹. There have been changes in the epidemiology of LRTIs in the past ten years as there has been a decrease in the number of cases among children under 5 and an increase in infection among older adults as well as an increase in viral infections¹. Nevertheless, there is no uniform definition of "LRTIs", a fact which has been said to impede the appreciation of its true epidemiological importance^{2,3}. From an epidemiological standpoint, most definitions of LRTI include pneumonia, influenza, bronchitis (including acute exacerbations of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease [COPD] [AECOPD]) and bronchiolitis as important diseases ¹⁻³.

The three major bacterial respiratory pathogens are Streptococcus pneumoniae, Moraxella catarrhalis and Haemophilus influenzae. Unfortunately, these causes are spreading and increasing the rate of their resistance to antibiotics worldwide^{4,5,6}. The importance of monitoring the progress of this resistance has led to many international, regional and national monitoring programs. However, the results of surveillance studies show wide differences in sensitivity rates, both geographically and over time^{7,8}. Bacterial resistance patterns for antibiotics may differ from one region to another depending on the pressure on the antibiotics in that region⁹. Consequently, there is a great need for local resistance spread data in order to guide the experimental prescription and identify areas where new antibiotics with greater effect are needed. In Yemen, data on epidemiology of LRTIs and antibiotic patterns are still rare for bacterial causes. Over the past four years, an increase in mortality has been observed among residents of the capital, Sana'a, due to LRTIs¹⁰. Therefore, the present study was designed to identify the bacterial profile of lower respiratory tract infections (LRTIs) in Yemen and to determine the antibiotic susceptibility among these pathogens in our areas.

SUBJECTS AND METHODS

This study was conducted on 555 hospitalized patients with LRTI in university hospitals in the cities of Sana'a and Thamar during the period from October 2015 to October 2018. All patients were subjected to

full clinical, radiological and relevant laboratory examinations. Clinical sample analyzes were performed in the laboratories of the National Center of Public Health laboratories Sana'a (NCPHL)). The study included 187 patients with community-acquired pneumonia (CAP), 171 patient with hospital-acquired pneumonia (HAP) and 197 patients with acute exacerbation of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (AECOPD)⁵.

CAP was defined as acquired pneumonia outside the hospital¹¹. HAP was defined as a pneumonia occurring 48 hours or more after admission, which was not developed at the time of admission¹². AECOPD were defined according to the GOLD guidelines⁵. Patient data were collected using questionnaire including personal data, clinical symptoms, signs, and history of preexisting chronic diseases. Samples included sputum or bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) for staining and culture. Samples were cultured on 3 bacteriological media. Blood agar aerobically, chocolate agar with Co₂ and LJ slope then cultures were examined for possible bacterial pathogens of LRTI. Possible bacterial pathogens were isolated and identified using standard laboratory techniques, and microbial sensitivity testing was carried out by means of disc diffusion for selected antibiotics.

RESULTS

A total of 555 LRTIs hospitalized patients (328/59.1% male and 227/40.9% female) were enrolled in this study. The most frequent age groups were 30-42 years (26.5%), and age group 43-56 years (22.5%); while children age group was less frequent (8.5%). Bacterial growth yielded on 354 (63.8%) while 201 (36.2%) were negative for bacterial culture (Table 1). A large number of LRTI (36.2%) was not diagnosed, mostly in CAP (52.4%), followed by HAP (33.9%) while lower cases were in AECOPD (22.8%). The isolates in 187 patients with CAP were K.pneumoniae (26.2%), S.pvogens (12.3%), and S.pneumoniae (9%). Isolates in 171 patients with HAP were MSSA (24%), E.Coli (12.9%), MRAS (11.1%), K.pneumoniae (10.5%) and P.aeruginosa (7%). The organisms in 197 patients with AECOPD were Moraxella catarrhalis (47.2%), K.pneumoniae (17.2%), H.influnzae (10.7%) and P.aeruginosa (2%) (Table 2). Table 3 shows the frequency of bacterial causative agents of LRTI; the Subtotal Gram positive bacteria were counted for 28.3% from total bacteria isolates, while subtotal Gram positive bacteria was counted for 71.7% from the total bacterial isolates. The most 3 predominant bacteria isolated from LRTIs patients in the study were K.pneumoniae 101(18%),Moraxella catarrhalis 91(16.8%) and S.aureus 60 (10.8%), while others bacteria such as S.pyogens, S.pneumoniae, H.influnzae, P.aeruginosa, E.coli and Proteus vulgaris were less frequent (Table 3). In Gram-positive bacteria high resistance was recorded for ampicillin/sulbactam (100%) and amoxicillin/clavulanate (100%), while a moderate sensitivity rate for amikacin, vancomycin, cefepime and moxifloxacin was recorded. In Gram-negative bacteria, a high resistance to 3rd g of cephalosporins (68.5%) was recorded, while moderate sensitivity to other tested antibiotics was recorded (Table 4). The rates of cure, ICU admission, isolation and death among LRTI cases of positive bacterial growth were almost similar to those of negative culture with slight differences. The mortality rate among total LRTIs was 25%, while for confirmed LRTI cases in bacterial culture it was 22.9%, which is lower among the LRTI cases of negative culture (28.9%) (Table 5).

DISCUSSION

Lower respiratory tract infection (LRTIs) is the leading cause of infectious diseases of death worldwide, the fifth general cause of death, and the second general cause of disability adjusted life years (DALYs), although they are largely preventable causes of diseases and Death¹. In the current study the mortality rate among total LRTIs was 25%, while for LRTIs cases confirmed for bacterial culture was 22.9%, lower than that among negative culture LRTI cases (28.9%) (Table 5); this rate is higher than that reported by Brown and others in the United States of America where the death rate among community-acquired pneumonia hospitalizations patients was 7.4%¹³. While Global Strategy for the Diagnosis, Management and Prevention of COPD, reported that long-term prognosis following LRTIs was poor, with a 5-year mortality of approximately 50% ¹⁴. The high mortality rate in the current study may be high rates for related factors and include comorbidities especially cardiovascular disease, severity of exacerbations, age, previous hospitalization, low BMI and malnutrition¹.

When reviewing the various studies, it is clear that there are some regional differences in the reported etiology of LRTIs, as described by Waterer ¹⁵. This may be related to a number of factors, but it is also important to realize that although LRTIs are not a seasonal disease, many different organisms, including *S.pneumoniae*, *influenza* virus, *Legionella* species infections, and even polymicrobial infections do have seasonal variations ¹⁶. In the current study the most 3 predominant bacteria isolated from LRTIs patients were *K. pneumoniae* 101(18%), *Moraxella catarrhalis* 91(16.8%) and *S. aureus* 60(10.8%), while *S.pneumoniae* and *H. influnzae* were less frequently (Table 3); this result is different from that traditionally, the *pneumococcus* has been reported to be the most common cause of LRTIs ¹⁷⁻¹⁹ and the Global Burden of Disease Study analysis of LRTIs (2015) indicated that the *pneumococcus* was the most

common cause of LRTIs among all ages. However, our results is go with repots in which there have been changes noted in the reported etiology of LRTIs, particularly with the use of more sensitive diagnostic tools ¹⁹⁻²¹. In general, it is increasingly recognized that viruses appear to play a bigger role in the etiology of LRTIs than has previously been documented²²⁻²⁵ and cases of infection with more than one pathogen, commonly the association of one or more viruses with one or more bacterial agents are not uncommon ^{21,22}. For patients with CAP, our results (Table 2) showed bacterial profiles similar to those reported by international studies⁶ and regional²⁶. This pattern of "local" hegemony should be taken into account when prescribing antimicrobials in our region. When antibiotic sensitivity was considering for bacterial isolates from LRTI patients, in Gram positive bacteria a high resistance was recorded for ampicillin/sulbactam (100%) and amoxicillin/clavulanate (100%), while moderate of sensitivity was recorded for amikacin, vancomycin, Cefepime and moxifloxacin. In Gram negative bacteria a high resistance was recorded for 3rd g Cephalosporin's (68.5%), while moderate of sensitivity was recorded for other tested antibiotics (Table 4). Our data revealed high resistance rates for cephalosporins, and the β-lactam-βlactamase inhibitors. These findings are in agreement with the increasing prevalence of resistance of Gram positive bacteria as S.pneumoniae to those antimicrobial groups, by regional, 7,27-29 and worldwide 6,7 studies. Moreover, our results highlight the increasing problem of MDR in Gram positive and Gram negative bacteria of LRTIs, a problem that was extensively addressed in the literature²⁸⁻³⁰. This warns us of the need for wise use of different groups of antimicrobials, especially in our resource-poor country. Moreover, this requires greater focus on identifying drivers of resistance relevant and on implementing effective strategies to combat resistance and MDR problems.

For patients with HAP, the problem of antibiotic resistance seems more important; therefore, the situation is more complicated than that in CAP. Nosocomial pneumonias leads to high morbidity and mortality, especially among ICU patients^{8,11}. In most clinical cases, there is a need to start empirical antimicrobial therapy before obtaining microbial results. However, the situation is further complicated by the emergence of several beta-lactamase and MDR pathogens^{29,31}. Obviously there is a great need to obtain data on the prevalent strains in HAP; along with the sensitivity pattern to help revise antibiotic policy and guide physicians to better manage patients with HAP; especially in developing countries such as Yemen.

The current study revealed the present of MRSA, Gram-negative organisms, and *P.aeruginosa* among patients with HAP. This differs clearly from the results obtained by Goel and co-workers³¹ and even those of Ahmed, *et al.*³², Agmy, *et al.*³³. Although the later study addressed the problem of HAP in 75 cases of ICU patients, the predominant pathogens were *S.aureus* (32%), *P.aeruginosa* (30%), and *S.pneumoniae* (15%). It is clear that this "regional" difference explains the changing pattern of pathogens that cause over time, even in the same hospital. This underscores the importance of implementing continued local monitoring programs⁸. Also, our data show an alarming high prevalence of MRSA. This coincides with the recent report by Alyahawi, and Al-Safani *et al.*^{34,35} who observed that the prevalence of MRSA in invasive isolates from hospitals in Yemen was 23%³⁴.

CONCLUSION

Lower respiratory infections are still very common and continue to be a major cause of morbidity and mortality in Yemen in children and adults alike, and there are significant changes in the epidemiology of LRTIs in terms of their frequency and infectious pathogens. There is a high rate of undiagnosed LRTI in Yemen and this highlights the need for health authorities to develop strategies to diagnose most of the causes of LRTI, including *Mycoplasma*, *Chlamydia*, and viral causes. The most common bacteria in CAP in Yemen is *K.pneumoniae* while HAP is the *S.aureus* and Gram negative bacteria. For acute exacerbation of COPD, *M.catarrahalis* was the most common. No antibiotics are completely effective in treating LRTI in our area and antibiotic sensitivity should be performed in all cases.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to acknowledge Ministry of Health and Population, Sana'a, Yemen and the National Center of Public Health Laboratories (NCPHL), Ministry of Health and Population, Sana'a, Yemen for their support and provided working space and materials.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

"No conflict of interest associated with this work".

AUTHOR'S CONTRIBUTION

This research work is part of project of the National Center for Public Health Laboratories (NCPHL). The authors performed clinical and laboratory works. The corresponding author (HAA) supervised the laboratory works, and revised and edited the research.

REFERENCES

- 1- GBD 2015 LRI Collaborators. Estimates of the global, regional and national morbidity, mortality, and aetiologies of lower respiratory tract infections in 195 countries: a systematic analysis for the global burden of disease study 2015. Lancet Infect Dis. 2017;17:1133–1161.
- 2- ERS white book, Chapter 18. Acute lower respiratory infections. ERS white book. p. 210–223. [cited 2020 April 21]. Available from: https://www.erswhite book.org/files/public/ Chapters/ 18_ALRIs.pdf
- 3- Greene G, Hood K, Little P, *et al.* Towards clinical definitions of lower respiratory tract infection (LRTI) for research and primary care practice in Europe: an international consensus study. Prim Care Respir J. 2011;20(3):299–306.
- 4- Pfaller MA, Jones RN, Doren GV *et al.* Bacterial Pathogens Isolated from Patients with Bloodstream Infection: Frequencies of Occurrence and Antimicrobial Susceptibility Patterns from the SENTRY Antimicrobial Surveillance Program (United States and Canada, 1997). Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1998; 42: 1762-1770. PMid:9661018 PMCid:PMC105680
- 5- Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease. Global Strategy For The Diagnosis And Prevention Of Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease. Updated 2009.
- 6- Mandell LA, Wunderink RG, Anzueto A, *et al.* Infectious Diseases Society of America/American Thoracic Society Consensus Guidelines on the Management of Community-Acquired Pneumonia in Adults. Clin Infect Dis 2007; 44 Suppl 2: S27–72. http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/511159 PMid:17278083
- 7- Garcı'a-Rey C, Aguilar L, Baquero F, et al. Importance of Local Variations in Antibiotic Consumption and Geographical Differences of Erythromycin and Penicillin Resistance in *Streptococcus pneumoniae*. J Clin Microbiol 2002; 40: 159–164. http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/ JCM.40.1.159-164.2002 PMCid:PMC120130
- 8- Alpuche C, Garau J, and Lim V. Global and local variations in antimicrobial susceptibilities and resistance development in the major respiratory pathogens. Int J Antimicrob Agents 2007; 30 Suppl 2: 135-8. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2007.07.035 PMid:17945468
- 9- Lakshmi V. Need for national/regional guidelines and policies in India to combat antibiotic resistance. Indian J of Medical Microbiology 2008; 26: 105-7. http://dx.doi.org/10.4103/0255-0857.40521
- 10- Al-Ademi DAA, Al-Harazi AH, Al-Shamahy HA, Jaadan BM. Detection of influenza viruses among hospitalized cases suffering from severe acute respiratory illness (SARI) in Sana'a city, Yemen. Universal Journal of Pharmaceutical Research 2019; 4(4): 30-34. DOI: https://doi.org/10.22270/ujpr.v4i4.296
- 11- Gordon RC. Community acquired pneumonia in adolescents. Adoles Med 2000; 11: 681-695. PMid:11060562
- 12- American Thoracic Society; Infectious Diseases Society of America. Guidelines for the Management of Adults with Hospital acquired, Ventilator- associated, and Healthcare-associated Pneumonia. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 2005; 171: 388–416. http://dx.doi.org/10.1164/rccm.200405-644ST PMid:15699079
- 13- Brown JD, Harnett J, Chambers R, *et al.* The relative burden of community-acquired pneumonia hospitalizations in older adults: a retrospective observational study in the United States. BMC Geriatr. 2018;18(1):92.
- 14- GOLD 2017: Global Strategy for the Diagnosis, Management and Prevention of COPD, Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease (GOLD). 2017. Available from: https://goldcopd.org.
- 15- Waterer G. Community-acquired pneumonia: a global perspective. Semin Respir Crit Care Med. 2016;37:799–805.
- 16- Feldman C, Anderson R. The role of *Streptococcus pneumoniae* in community-acquired pneumonia. Semin Respir Crit Care Med. 2016;37:806–818.
- 17- Welte T, Torres A, Nathwani D. Clinical and economic burden of community-acquired pneumonia among adults in Europe. Thorax. 2012;67:71–79.
- 18- Herrero FS, Olivas JB. Microbiology and risk-factors for community-acquired pneumonia. Semin Respir Crit Care Med. 2012;33:220–231.
- 19- Cillóniz C, Cardozo C, García-Vidal C. Epidemiology, pathophysiology, and microbiology of community-acquired pneumonia. Ann Res Hosp. 2018;2:1.
- 20- Lung M, Rello J. Microbiology of bacterial CAP using traditional and molecular techniques. Eur Respir Monogr. 2014;63:25–41.
- 21- Gadsby NJ, Russell CS, McHugh MP, *et al.* Comprehensive molecular testing for respiratory pathogens in community-acquired pneumonia. Clin Infect Dis. 2016;62(7):817–823.
- 22- Jain S, Self WH, Wunderink RG, *et al.* Community-acquired pneumonia requiring hospitalization among U.S. Adults N Engl J Med. 2015;373(5):415–427.
- 23- Da Rocha Neto OG, Leite RF, Baldi BG. Update on viral community-acquired pneumonia. Rev Assoc Med Bras. 2013;59 (1):78–84.
- 24- Rohde GGU. The role of viruses in CAP. Eur Respir Monogr. 2014;63:74–87.

- 25- Jain S. Epidemiology of viral pneumonia. Clin Chest Med. 2017;38:1-9
- 26- El Sayed Zaki M and Goda T. Clinico-pathological study of atypical pathogens in community-acquired pneumonia: a prospective study. J Infect Dev Ctries 2009; 3: 199-205. http://dx.doi.org/10.3855/jidc.36 PMid:19759475
- 27- Agmy G, Mohamed S, Gad Y *et al.* Bacterial Profile, Antibiotic Sensitivity and Resistance of Lower Respiratory Tract Infections in Upper Egypt. Mediterr J Hematol Infect Dis 2013, 5(1): e2013056, DOI: 10.4084/MJHID.2013.056 This article is available from: http://www.mjhid.org/article/view/11814
- 28- Wasfy MO, Pimentel G, Abdel-Maksoud M, *et al.* Antimicrobial susceptibility and serotype distribution of *Streptococcus pneumoniae* causing meningitis in Egypt, 1998–2003. J Antimicrob Chemother 2005; 55: 958–964. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/jac/dki101 PMid:15820983
- 29-Borg MA, Tiemersma E, Scicluna E, *et al.* Prevalence of penicillin and erythromycin resistance among invasive *Streptococcus pneumoniae* isolates reported by laboratories in the southern and eastern Mediterranean region. Clin Microbiol Infect 2009; 15: 232–237. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-0691.2008.02651.x PMid:19154490
- 30- Lynch JP 3rd, Zhanel GG. *Streptococcus pneumoniae*: does antimicrobial resistance matter? Semin Respir Crit Care Med. 2009; 30: 210-38. http://dx.doi.org/10.1055/s-0029-1202939 PMid:19296420
- 31- Goel N, Chaudhary U, Aggarwal R, Bala K. Antibiotic sensitivity pattern of gram negative bacilli isolated from the lower respiratory tract of ventilated patients in the intensive care unit. Indian J Crit Care Med 2009; 13: 148-151. http://dx.doi.org/10.4103/0972- 5229.58540 PMid:20040812 PMCid:PMC2823096
- 32- Ahmed SH, Daef EA, Badary MS, *et al.* Nosocomial blood stream infection in intensive care units at Assiut University Hospitals (Upper Egypt) with special reference to extended spectrum beta-lactamase producing organisms. BMC Research Notes 2009; 2: 76-87. http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1756- 0500-2-76 PMid:19419535 PMCid:PMC2694819
- 33- Agmy GM, Sayed SS, Mohamed EA. Nosocomial pneumonia in intensive care units at Assiut University Hospital. In Proceedings of the Annual Congress of The European Respiratory Society, Copenhagen; 2005. PMid:19498617
- 34- Al-Safani AMA, Al-Shamahy HA, Al-Moyed KA. Prevalence, antimicrobial susceptibility pattern and risk factors of MRSA isolated from clinical specimens among military patients at 48 medical compound in Sana'a city-Yemen. Universal Journal of Pharmaceutical Research. 2018; 3(3): 40-44.
- 35- Alyahawi A, Alkaf A, and Alhomidi A. "Prevalence of methicillin resistant *staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) and antimicrobial susceptibility patterns at a private hospital in Sana'a, Yemen". Universal Journal of Pharmaceutical Research, 2018; 3(3): 4-9.

Table 1: Distribution of age groups, gender and years among LRTI patients and its correlation with bacterial growth outcome.

		% (Total)	Bacte	Bacterial growth outcome					
	NO		Growth			No gi	rowth]	
			No	%		No	%	X^2	P
Age category								4.913	0.0296
(3-16)	47	8.5%	26	55.3%		21	44.7%		
(17-29)	119	21.4%	76	63.8%		43	36.2%		
(30-42)	147	26.5%	92	62.6%		55	37.4%		
(43-56)	125	22.5%	85	68%		40	32%		
≥ 57	117	21.1%	75	64.1%		42	35.9%		
Gender								4.940	0.029
Male	328	59.1%	218	66.5%		110	33.5%		
Female	227	40.9%	136	60%		86	40%		
Data								19.124	< 0.0001
2015	142	25.6%	90	63.4%		52	35.6%		
2016	178	32.1%	124	69.6%		54	30.4%		
2017	159	28.6%	100	62.9%		59	37.1%		
2018	76	13.7%	40	52.6%		36	47.4%		
Total	555	100.0%	354	63.8%		201	36.2%		

Table 2. Bacterial profile of lower respiratory tract infections in Yemen.

Common Bacterial pathogens (No/%)						
CAP (n=187/33.7%)	HAP (n=171/30.8%)	AECOPD (n=197/35.5)				
S. pneumoniae (17 /9%)	MRSA (19/11.1 %)	H. influnzae (21/10.7%)				
K. pneumoniae (49 /26.2%)	k. pneumoniae (18/10.5%)	K. pneumoniae (34/17.2%)				
St. pyogens (23/12.3%)	E. Coli (22/12.9%)	M. catarrhalis (93/47.2%)				
	P. aeruginosa (12/7%)	P. aeruginosa (4/2%)				
	MSSA (41/24%)					
	Proteus vulgaris (1/0.6%)					
No Bacterial growth (98/52.4%)	No Bacterial growth (58/33.9%)	No Bacterial growth (45/22.8%)				

CAP: Community-acquired pneumonia; HAP: Hospital-acquired pneumonia; AECOPD; Acute exacerbations of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; MRSA: Methecillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*; MSSA: Methecillin-sensitive *Staphylococcus aureus*.

Table 3: The frequency of bacterial causative agents of LRTI

Isolated Bacteria	No (%)	% Total n=555			
Gram Positive		-			
S. pneumoniae	17 (17)	3			
S. aureus	60 (60)	10.8			
S. pyogenes	23 (23)	4.1			
Subtotal Gram positive	100 (28.3)	18			
Gram Negative	-	_			
K. pneumoniae	101 (39.8)	18			
H. influenzae	21 (8.3)	3.8			
P. aeruginosa	16 (6.3)	2.9			
Proteus vulgaris	1 (0.4)	0.18			
Moraxella catarrhalis	93 (36.6)	16.8			
E. coli	22 (8.7)	4			
Subtotal Gram negative	254 (71.7)	45.8			
Total positive culture	354	63.8			
Total negative culture	201	36.2			
Fungi	-				
C. albicans colonization	159	28.6			

Table 4: . Antibiotic sensitivity and resistance rates (percentages) of gram positive and gram negative bacteria in 354 patients with LRTI in Yemen

Antibiotics	Test	Bacteria	
		Gram positive	Gram negative
		percentage	percentage
Vancomycin	S	69.2	ND
	I	11	
	R	19.8	
Moxifloxacin	S	47.5	71
	I	14	7
	R	38.5	22
3 rd g Cephalosporin's	S	8	22.5
	I	13	9
	R	79	68.5
Ciprofloxacin	S	37	82
	I	12	3.2
	R	51	14.8
Cefepime	S	46	65.4
	I	19	13.1
	R	35	21.5
* Aampicillin/sulbactam	S	0	48.2
	I	0	11.2
	R	100	40.6
*Amoxicillin/clavulanate	S	0	67
	I	0	11
	R	100	22
Amikacin	S	58.2	80
	I	19	9
	R	22.8	11

^{*}Not done for *P.aeruginosa*, ND= not done

Table 5: The output of LRTI cases with bacterial infections in comparison with LRTI cases caused by other agents

Outcome	LRTI wi	th bacterial	LRTI cases with non- Total (n=555)		55)	
	infections (n=354)		bacterial agents (n=201)			
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Cure	273	77.1	143	71.1	416	75
ICU	22	6.2	31	15.4	53	9.5
Isolation	1	0.3	3	1.5	4	0.72
Death	81	22.9	58	28.9	139	25
Total n=555	354	63.8	201	36.2	555	100