



http://www.elsevier.com/locate/jiph

# Urinary tract infections caused by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*: A minireview

Rahul Mittal<sup>a,b,\*</sup>, Sudhir Aggarwal<sup>c</sup>, Saroj Sharma<sup>b</sup>, Sanjay Chhibber<sup>b</sup>, Kusum Harjai<sup>b</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Division of Infectious Diseases, Childrens Hospital Los Angeles, Los Angeles, CA, USA

<sup>b</sup> Department of Microbiology, Panjab University, Chandigarh, India

<sup>c</sup> Department of Physiology, University of Tennessee Health Sciences Center, Memphis, TN, USA

Received 1 July 2009; received in revised form 12 August 2009; accepted 13 August 2009

#### **KEYWORDS**

Urinary tract infections; *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*; Biofilms; Virulence factors

Urinary tract infections (UTIs) are a serious health problem affecting Summary millions of people each year. Infections of the urinary tract are the second most common type of infection in the body. Catheterization of the urinary tract is the most common factor, which predisposes the host to these infections. Catheterassociated UTI (CAUTI) is responsible for 40% of nosocomial infections, making it the most common cause of nosocomial infection. CAUTI accounts for more than 1 million cases in hospitals and nursing homes annually and often involve uropathogens other than Escherichia coli. While the epidemiology and pathogenic mechanisms of uropathogenic Escherichia coli have been extensively studied, little is known about the pathogenesis of UTIs caused by other organisms like Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Scanty available information regarding pathogenesis of UTIs caused by P. aerug*inosa* is an important bottleneck in developing effective preventive approaches. The aim of this review is to summarize some of the advances made in the field of P. aeruginosa induced UTIs and draws attention of the workers that more basic research at the level of pathogenesis is needed so that novel strategies can be designed.

 $\ensuremath{\mathbb C}$  2009 King Saud Bin Abdulaziz University for Health Sciences. Published by Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

#### Contents

Virulence factors of uropathogenic P. aeruginosa	102
Biofilm formation by P. aeruginosa	103
Quorum-sensing in P. aeruginosa	105

\* Corresponding author at: Division of Infectious Diseases, MS#51, Childrens Hospital Los Angeles, 4650 Sunset Boulevard, Los Angeles, CA, 90027, USA. Tel.: +1 323 361 5809.

E-mail addresses: ramittal@chla.usc.edu, rahul\_mittal20022@yahoo.com (R. Mittal).

1876-0341/\$ - see front matter © 2009 King Saud Bin Abdulaziz University for Health Sciences. Published by Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved. doi:10.1016/j.jiph.2009.08.003

Environmental factors and urovirulence of <i>P. aeruginosa</i>	105
Iron	105
Osmolarity	106
Tamm–Horsfall protein	106
Host innate immune system and urinary tract infections	106
Future challenges	107
Conflict of interest	107
Acknowledgements	108
References	108

Urinary tract infections (UTIs) are one of the most common bacterial infections affecting humans throughout their life span [1,2]. UTIs account for more than 8 million visits to physician's offices, 1.5 million emergency room visits, and 300,000 hospital admissions in the United States annually [3,4]. UTIs are the second most common infection of any organ system and the most common urological disease in the United States, with a total annual cost of more than \$3.5 billion [5]. These infections are more common in females than in men. Incidence in women in the age of 20-40 years ranges from 25 to 30% whereas in older women above 60 years of age it ranges from 4 to 43% [6-8]. UTIs can be classified as uncomplicated or complicated [9,10]. The recognized predisposing factors in complicated UTIs are anatomic defects, vesicouretic reflux (VUR), obstruction, surgery, metabolic diseases like diabetes mellitus and generalized immunosuppression especially in patients of organ transplant [11–16]. Catheterization of urinary tract is one of the most common factor which predisposes the host to complicated UTIs [17-20]. Instillation of catheter may lead to damage of mucosal layer, which disrupts the natural barrier and allows bacterial colonization [21]. Organisms can gain entry via extraluminal route [22] by moving across the outer lumen of catheter or by intraluminal route by directly entering the interior of catheter [23].

The organisms most commonly responsible for catheter-associated UTIs are *Escherichia coli*, *Proteus mirabilis*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and *Streptococcus faecalis* [6,24–26]. In case of *E. coli*, the epidemiological, experimental and clinical studies have established the role of multiple virulence factors of *E. coli* like adhesins operative through type-I fimbriae and P fimbriae, O serotypes, K1 capsule, serum resistance, hemolysins, cytotoxic nectrotizing factor (CNF) and siderophores (enterochelin and aerobactin) in relation to uncomplicated and complicated UTIs [2,27]. However, there is paucity of literature in relation to pathogenesis of UTIs caused by *P. aeruginosa*.

Despite advances in antimicrobial therapy, the mortality and morbidity associated with *P. aeruginosa* induced UTIs remain significantly high. This unfavorable outcome is due to our inability to develop therapeutic strategies to prevent the disease which in turn is due to incomplete understanding about the pathogenesis of the disease. The aim of this review is to highlight some of the most important advances in understanding the pathogenesis of *P. aeruginosa* induced UTIs.

### Virulence factors of uropathogenic *P. aeruginosa*

P. aeruginosa is the third most common pathogen with hospital-acquired associated catheterassociated UTIs [6]. Virulence of P. aeruginosa is multifactorial and has been attributed to cellassociated factors like alginate, lipopolysaccharide (LPS), flagellum, pilus and non-pilus adhesins as well as with exoenzymes or secretory virulence factors like protease, elastase, phopholipase, pyocyanin, exotoxin A, exoenzyme S, hemolysins (rhamnolipids) and siderophores [28-31]. These factors have been shown to play an important role in pathogenesis of P. aeruginosa induced infections like respiratory tract infections, burn wound infections and keratitis [32–36]. However, limited reports are available regarding role of these virulence traits in urinary tract infections. Woods et al. [36] showed high production of elastase and protease in strains isolated from urinary tract infections in comparison to isolates from other infections like burn wounds infection, skin wound infection and acute pneumonia. Quantitative analysis of elastase, phospholipase C, toxin A, and exoenzyme S was assessed in *P. aeruginosa* strains isolated from wound infections, respiratory tract infections and urinary tract infections by Hamood et al. [37] It was observed that most of the isolates produced all the four virulence traits. However depending on infection site, the isolates produced varied levels of these virulence determinants. High levels of elastase and phospholipase C were



**Figure 1** Photograph showing complete encrustation of urinary catheter by biofilms of *P. aeruginosa* (A) and a higher magnification showing rod shaped bacteria on the surface of catheter (B).

produced by most isolates obtained from trachea, urinary tract, and wounds. Significantly higher levels of toxin A was produced by wound isolates, while significantly higher level of exoenzyme S was produced by wound and urinary tract isolates. It was observed that persistent infection isolates from different sites produce significantly higher levels of exoenzyme S. These workers concluded that elastase, phospholipase C, toxin A, and exoenzyme S are important virulence traits which help P. aeruginosa to cause a variety of persistent infections. Ciragil and Soyletir [38] investigated relationship between production of virulence traits and site of infection. These workers isolated P. aeruginosa strains from cystic fibrosis patients as well as from lungs, urine and blood of non-cystic fibrosis patients. It was observed that urinary isolates produced least amount of alginate and maximum amount of alkaline protease as compared to other isolates. Significantly lower levels of alkaline protease were observed in cystic fibrosis isolates as compared to other isolates. No significant difference in elastase levels was observed among different strains of P. aeruginosa. However these workers observed no correlation between elaboration of virulence factors and site of infection. It was concluded that virulence factors play an important role in pathogenesis of infections caused by *P. aeruginosa*. Visca et al. [39] assessed production of virulence determinants in P. aeruginosa strains isolated from patients suffering from urinary tract infections. It was observed that uropathogenic strains of P. aeruginosa produced at least one type of siderophore i.e. pyochelin and/or pyoverdin. However not all the uropathogenic strains produced both siderophores. We reported that uroisolates of P. aeruginosa produce high levels of alginate, siderophores, exoenzymes and hemolysin [40]. However uroisolates possessing high hemolytic property showed significantly high renal bacterial counts and marked tissue damage compared to low producers indicating direct association between hemolysin production and renal colonization. It was suggested that besides considering levels of all extracellular enzymes, high levels of hemolysin production *in vitro* could be used as surrogate information for assessing pyelonephritic potential of *P. aeruginosa*. Further studies employing mutant strains of *P. aeruginosa* defective in hemolysin production are required to elucidate the precise contribution of this virulence trait to the incidence of UTIs.

#### Biofilm formation by P. aeruginosa

In addition to elaboration of virulence factors, P. aeruginosa has a tendency to form biofilms on the surface of urinary catheters. Growth of P. aeruginosa begins in the form of microcolonies, which later coalesce together to form biofilms (Fig. 1) [41-43]. Alginate, which is an acetylated polymer of beta-D-mannouronic acid and alpha-Lguluronic acids, is the most important component of P. aeruginosa biofilms. However, some other exopolysaccharides like psl and pel have also been shown to play an important role in biofilm forming ability of non-alginate producing strains of P. aeruginosa [44,45]. Psl is a mannose-rich and galactose-rich polysaccharide, however the precise Psl structure has not been elucidated [46-50]. This is an area requiring future research. As with Psl. the Pel structure is unknown and further biochemical analyses of Pel polysaccharide is necessary [51]. Biofilms are resistant to antimicrobial agents as well as to host defense mechanisms and hence are difficult to eradicate. Biofilms contribute towards pathogenicity of P. aeruginosa as these often lead to persistent and recurrent infections [52-54].



**Figure 2** (A) Photograph showing abscess (yellow arrow) and casts (white arrows) along with necrotic changes in renal tissue of mice infected with biofilm cells of *P. aeruginosa*. (B) Photograph showing mild inflammation in renal tissue (white arrow) of mice infected with planktonic cells of *P. aeruginosa*. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of the article.)

Once an opportunistic pathogen like P. aeruginosa enters the host, its ability to cause infection has been correlated with its tendency to form biofilms [55,56]. P. aeruginosa has an innate propensity to stick to the surfaces of catheters and form biofilms leading to higher incidence of UTIs in patients with long-term indwelling bladder catheterization [41,47–59]. In addition, previous microbial urethral colonization could be the cause of most UTIs where introduction of bacteria into the bladder takes place subsequently at the time of catheterization [23,60]. Besides disruption of the normal valvular function of urethra, catheters can also traumatize urethral and bladder mucosa, hence disrupting the normal mucopolysaccharide coating of the epithelium [61]. This damage of cellular structure renders it susceptible to attachment as well as entry of bacteria through surface erosions [62,63]. Therefore, catheter serves as a direct conduit for pathogens which may be carried from the external meatus to the bladder when the catheter is introduced [64]. In addition, internal and external surfaces of catheters have intrinsic irregularities providing convenient sites for organism's implantation as demonstrated by scanning electron microscopy [65]. Following initial adherence, bacteria may exude or attract some products to further solidify attachment [66]. Costerton et al. [67] related the pathogenesis of catheter-associated UTIs to the production of biofilms by the infecting organisms in which bacterial population adhered to catheter surface through pili and/or exopolysaccharides. The organisms in biofilms are able to persist in host's tissues for longer durations and are able to cause continuous damage to the host [52]. In vivo biofilm formation was reported by Nickel et al. [68] where colonizing bacterial population was observed embedded in glycocalyx on the external and internal surfaces of Foley's catheter removed from patient. Ganderton et al. [69] examined 50 Foley bladder catheters that had been indwelling for periods ranging from 3 to 83 days in patients for the presence of bacterial biofilms. Scanning electron microscopy revealed biofilm formation on the luminal surfaces of 44 of these catheters. These workers observed very thin to very thick biofilms embedded in a matrix. Stickler et al. [70] compared nature of biofilms formed in urease producing and nonurease producing organisms. It was observed that urease producing organisms, P. mirabilis, Proteus vulgaris and Providencia rettgeri formed crystalline nature of biofilms whereas urease-negative bacteria, Morganella morganii, Klebsiella pneumoniae and *P. aeruginosa* produced non-crystalline biofilms on urethral catheter. Similar observation of biofilm formation in vivo by P. aeruginosa on indwelling catheter in mice was made by Kurosaka et al. [71]. In their study, scanning electron microscopy revealed a thick biofilm formation on the surface of polyethylene tubing from day 2 onwards which gradually increased till day 14. Repeatable pattern of cell death and lysis has been documented to occur in biofilms of P. aeruginosa during the normal course of development. During the onset of biofilm development and biofilm killing thereafter, a bacteriophage capable of superinfecting and lysing the P. aeruginosa parent strain has been detected in the fluid effluent from the biofilm [72,73]. The bacteriophage implicated in biofilm killing was closely related to the filamentous phage Pf1 which existed as a prophage within the genome of *P. aerugi*nosa. It has been proposed that prophage-mediated cell death could be an important mechanism of differentiation inside microcolonies that facilitate dispersal of a subpopulation of surviving cells. From our laboratory we observed that biofilm cells are able to cause more renal tissue damage compared

to planktonic counterparts possibly through evasion of phagocytosis and production of free radicals in mouse model of ascending UTI (Fig. 2) [74]. Hence formation of biofilms is the most important virulent trait of *P. aeruginosa* which enables this pathogen to cause recurrent and chronic UTIs by evading host immune defense mechanisms.

#### Quorum-sensing in P. aeruginosa

A variety of gram-negative and gram-positive bacteria have been reported to monitor their cell density as well as expression of virulence factors through chemical signals. These signals known as quorum-sensing signals are mainly operative through autoinducers generally acylhomoserine lactones (AHLs). In P. aeruginosa two types of quorum-sensing systems, las [75] and rhl [76] have been reported which consist of two signalgenerating synthetases (Lasl Rhll) and two cognate transcriptional regulators (LasR RhlR). The major products of LasI and Rhll are N-(3-oxododecanoyl)homoserine lactone (OdDHL or 30C<sub>12</sub>-HSL) [77] and N-butanoylhomoserine lactone (BHL or C<sub>4</sub>-HSL) [78,79], respectively. The lasIR encoded quorumsensing system has been shown to modulate expression of lasl itself [80], lasB (elastase) [81,82], alkaline protease [83], secretion pathway [84] and rhlR [85,86]. The rhllR-encoded guorum sensor modulates expression of rhll itself [85], rhlAB (rhamnolipid biosynthesis) [76,82], lasB [78,82,87] and rpoS [85]. Both these quorum-sensing systems are involved in the differentiation of planktonic cells to biofilm mode [88]. Role of these guorumsensing signals in virulence and pathogenicity of P. aeruginosa has been demonstrated in models of respiratory tract infections, burn wound infections and keratitis [89–94]. However, very limited studies highlighting the role of these signal molecules in the pathogenesis of urinary tract infections are available. Stickler and co-workers [69] reported production of AHLs by P. aeruginosa isolated from urethral catheters using cross-feeding assay. These workers demonstrated production of AHL molecules in biofilms in vitro as well as in vivo in the patient's bladder. Relatively recently from our laboratory, we reported that guorum-sensing signals play a crucial role in ability of *P. aeruginosa* to cause urinary tract infection [95]. Single mutant harboring mutated las I gene and double mutant harboring mutated las I and rhl R as well as quorum deficient clinical strain of P. aeruginosa were cleared from the renal tissues much earlier than parent strain possessing functional las and rhl quorum-sensing systems highlighting central role of quorum-sensing signals in virulence of *P. aeruginosa*. Recently some new types of quorum-sensing systems like PQS and have been identified in *P. aeruginosa* however their role in UTIs has yet to be elucidated [96–98].

### Environmental factors and urovirulence of *P. aeruginosa*

P. aeruginosa has been reported to continuously sense and respond to various environmental stimuli. While establishing in the urinary tract, presence of urine, which is a complex medium, exposes invading organism to conditions like varied osmolarity, pH and Tamm-Horsfall protein (THP) as well as variability of ions such as iron [99-101]. Urine is subject to change in pH and osmolarity depending on host's diet and clinical situation. Environmental conditions prevalent in the host mileu may bring about certain changes in organism like change in outer membrane protein (Omp) profile, porin size [102,103] and adhesive ability operative through lectins [99,102,104] which may play an important role in deciding the ultimate outcome of an infection.

#### Iron

Iron-limiting conditions have been reported to be prevalent in the milieu of urinary tract [100], therefore the ability of uropathogens to sequester iron from the host becomes a significant factor in determining their growth, metabolic process and pathogenicity [105]. P. aeruginosa has been reported to produce two siderophores, pyochelin and pyoverdin, which help this pathogen to obtain iron from host's iron binding proteins like lactoferrin and transferrin. In relation to P. aeruginosa some in vitro, studies are available where iron has been shown to regulate production of toxin A [106], alkaline protease [107], elastase [99,107] and siderophores [99], the recognized virulence factors of this opportunistic organism. Iron concentration of the culture medium employed for growth of P. aeruginosa was also shown to have the potential to influence pathogenicity of this organism in corneal [108] as well as in the acute respiratory tract infection model [109]. Recent studies from our laboratory demonstrated that P. aeruginosa grown in iron deplete medium were more virulent as compared to iron replete grown bacteria as indicated by higher production of virulence factors and lodgement of bacteria in the urinary tract of experimental animals [110]. Hence, existing literature indicate that levels of iron dictate virulence of *P. aeruginosa* and are thus critical for its pathogenicity. Extrapolation of available information may help in developing alternative preventive approach against UTIs based on iron supplementation with far reaching consequences.

#### Osmolarity

Osmolarity is another important factor which has been reported to affect growth and virulence of P. aeruginosa. In order to establish and cause UTI, P. aeruginosa has to adapt itself to variations in osmolarity of urine. We observed that osmolarity has profound influence on urovirulence of *P. aeruginosa* [111]. There was significant increase in production of virulence factors with increase in osmolarity from 200 to 300 mOsmol/l. However further increase in osmolarity led to significant decrease in production of virulence factors. In addition, organisms grown in medium having osmolarity 300 mOsmol/l were resistant to phagocytosis and were more virulent in mouse model of ascending UTI as indicated by significantly higher neutrophil recruitment, bacterial load, malondialdehyde (MDA) production, a marker of tissue damage, and renal as well as bladder pathology. Culham et al. [112] highlighted that in addition to directly influencing bacterial growth in the urinary tract, osmoregulatory mechanisms may indirectly influence urinary tract infection by affecting the expression of virulence determinants. In case of P. aeruginosa, the sigma factor, Rpo S, has been shown to play an important role during exposure of this organism to various environmental stresses including osmotic stress. Suh et al. [101] also suggested importance of Rpo S in the pathogenesis of P. aeruginosa induced respiratory infections. There is strong possibility that similar mechanism may be operative in the urinary tract affecting the evolution of infection caused by P. aeruginosa although this needs further confirmation.

#### Tamm-Horsfall protein

In the urinary tract, complex urine provides a medium which has copious amounts of mucus. The urinary mucus predominantly has Tamm—Horsfall protein (THP) which is a polymeric glycoprotein, produced in thick ascending limb of loop of Henle in renal tissue [113]. Majority of THP is in the form of secreted protein in urine but it also exists in membrane bound form especially at the renal distal nephron cell surface [114]. Concentration of THP has been reported to be crucial in deciding the ultimate role played by this protein [115]. We observed that with increase in concentration of THP

from 10 to 50  $\mu$ g/ml, there was gradual rise in elaboration of all the virulence factors as compared to control (i.e. in absence of THP). However with further increase in concentration of THP from 50 to 70 µg/ml there was significant fall in production of all the virulence traits by biofilm cells of P. aeruginosa [116]. Decreased uptake and intracellular killing of THP (50  $\mu$ g/ml) coated planktonic and biofilm cells of P. aeruginosa by murine peritoneal macrophages were also observed. In addition, it was observed that THP coated P. aeruginosa cells were more virulent in vivo in UTI model, showing higher level of destruction in kidney as well as in bladder tissue in comparison to uncoated organisms [117]. These results therefore bring out that THP coating provide better opportunity to this pathogen for survival in vivo by evading phagocytosis. Hawthorn et al. [118] while comparing adhesion of three uropathogens to THP coated renal tubular cells in vitro, also stressed that THP may not help to remove all uropathogens from urinary tract. It may help in renal colonization of uropathogens like P. aeruginosa. In the milieu of the kidney where THP is available in abundance these observations have immense relevance. Once *P. aeruginosa* reaches renal parenchyma, this ability may help this organism to colonize, get established and persist. Further in vivo studies using THP knock-out mice are warranted which can shed more light on the precise role of THP in P. aeruginosa induced UTIs.

## Host innate immune system and urinary tract infections

Besides environmental factors, the host also plays an important role in the establishment of an infectious process. Microbial virulence is dependent on host factors, as exemplified by the pathogenicity of avirulent microbes in immunocompromised hosts and the lack of pathogenicity of virulent pathogens in immune hosts. In this regard the innate immunity provides a first line of defense in which macrophages and neutrophils play an important role. Macrophages, coming mostly from circulation, form one of the initial lines of defense in the urinary tract and offer resistance against infection. These macrophages interact with invading pathogen leading to elaboration of biochemical substances referred to as macrophage secretory products (MSPs). MSPs have been recognized to contain peptide hormones, complement components, enzymes, bioactive oligopeptides and lipids, reactive oxygen and nitrogen species as well as cytokines [119]. P. aeruginosa has been reported to exploit these MSPs for its own growth and enhancing production of virulence traits leading to enhanced virulence in mouse model of ascending UTI (unpublished data) [120]. Utilization of MSPs by *P. aeruginosa* can have far reaching consequences including chronicity and recurrence of infections caused by this pathogen. Since MSPs contain a diverse array of biomolecules which can act in a complex manner among themselves, further studies are warranted which can throw more light on the precise role of MSPs in UTIs.

In addition to macrophages, neutrophils also provide defense against UTIs operative through phagocytosis as well as elaboration of cytokines. On one hand, these cells are essential for clearance of bacteria from urinary tract, on the other hand neutrophils have been implicated in tissue damage leading to renal scarring [121]. In case neutrophils are trapped and tissue is destroyed, the kidney pathology has been reported to be progressing to the stage of chronicity and renal scarring. These cells are recruited to the site of infection in response to chemokine secretion by bladder and renal epithelial cells like IL-8. In vitro production of IL-8 has been studied in cultured epithelial cells from various sources [122], where it has been shown to affect neutrophil chemotaxis, degranulation and transendothelial migration. High levels of IL-8 have been demonstrated in urine of patients suffering from UTIs. Macrophage inflammatory protein-2 (MIP-2) is one of the human IL-8 homologues in the mouse. Studies from our laboratory demonstrated that although biofilm cells of P. aeruginosa induce higher levels of MIP-2 compared to planktonic counterparts leading to more recruitment of neutrophils but are resistant to killing by neutrophils possibly by interfering with oxidative burst capacity in mouse model of ascending UTI [9]. Thus the ultimate clearance of the organism is not based on the collection of neutrophils but the efficacy of the neutrophils to kill, especially biofilm forms of P. aeruginosa.

UTIs activate both mucosal and systemic inflammatory responses in which cytokines play a pivotal role [123,124]. Cytokines, both proinflammatory and anti-inflammatory, have been reported to be produced largely by macrophages. In addition, wide variety of cells including lymphocytes, endothelial cells, pulmonary epithelial cells and urinary tract epithelial cells produce these cytokines in response to bacteria [125] or their products like lipopolysaccharide (LPS) and fimbriae [126–128]. Cytokines like TNF- $\alpha$ , MIP-2, IL-6 and IL-1 $\beta$  have been reported to be produced in urinary tract following infection with uropathogenic *E. coli* which help in transepithelial migration of phagocytes from blood to the site of infection [129,130]. Increased levels of these cytokines and their receptors have been observed in urine and serum samples of patients having acute pyelonephritis [131]. However there is paucity of literature in relation to role of these cytokines in UTIs caused by *P. aeruginosa*. Since cytokines play an important role in recruiting immune cells to the site of infection, further studies in relation to UTIs are warranted, and will be of special relevance for clinicians for treating catheter- and hospital-acquired infections.

#### Future challenges

Despite advances in antimicrobial therapy the mortality and morbidity associated with P. aeruginosa induced UTIs still remains high. This unfavorable outcome is due to our incomplete understanding about the pathogenesis of the disease. Very limited studies are available in relation to the pathogenesis of P. aeruginosa induced UTI. This review draws attention of the researchers that there is need to understand pathogenetic mechanisms of UTIs caused by P. aeruginosa in order to design effective treatment strategies. Acylhomoserine lactones (AHLs) can be speculated to serve as potential target molecules for inhibition of biofilm formation. In addition, role of bacterial and host factors during evolution of urinary tract infection caused by P. aeruginosa needs to be looked into since such infections, which may lead to persistence and chronicity, posing a threat for a treating clinician. Recognizing how P. aeruginosa overrun crucial hostcell pathways by using a myriad of mechanisms may help in understanding pathogenesis of UTIs caused by this pathogen. This knowledge needs to be advanced to the point at which it can be translated into a true understanding of the disease. This remains the crucial challenge to all who are involved in this field. All this information may help in developing effective preventive strategies against biofilms of P. aeruginosa formed on urethral catheters which are a major cause of recurrence, persistence and chronicity.

### **Conflict of interest**

*Funding:* This work was supported by a grant from Indian Council of Medical Research (ICMR), New Delhi, India.

Competing interests: None declared.

*Ethical approval:* The study protocol was approved by the institutional ethical committee for animal experimentation.

#### Acknowledgements

We are thankful to Jeenu for the critical reading of the manuscript. This work was supported by a research grant from Indian Council of Medical Research (ICMR), New Delhi, India.

#### References

- Chang SL, Shortliffe LD. Pediatric urinary tract infections. Pediatr Clin North Am 2006;53:379–400.
- [2] Kucheria R, Dasgupta P, Sacks SH, Khan MS, Sheerin NS. Urinary tract infections: new insights into a common problem. Postgrad Med J 2005;81:83–6.
- [3] Foxman B. Epidemiology of urinary tract infections: incidence, morbidity, and economic costs. Dis Mon 2003;49:53–70.
- [4] Stamm WE, Hooton TM. Management of urinary tract infections in adults. N Engl J Med 1993;329:1328–34.
- [5] Litwin MS, Saigal CS, Yano EM, Avila C, Geschwind SA, Hanley JM, et al. Urologic Diseases in America Project: analytical methods and principal findings. J Urol 2005;173:933-7.
- [6] Jarvis WR, Martone WJ. Predominant pathogens in hospital infections. J Antimicrob Chemother 1992;29:19-24.
- [7] Kunin C. Detection, prevention and management of urinary tract infections. Philadelphia: Lea and Febiger; 1987.
- [8] Williams DH, Schaeffer AJ. Current concepts in urinary tract infections. Minerva Urol Nefrol 2004;56:15–31.
- [9] Mittal R, Chhibber S, Sharma S, Harjai K. Macrophage inflammatory protein-2, neutrophil recruitment and bacterial persistence in an experimental mouse model of urinary tract infection. Microbes Infect 2004;6:1326–32.
- [10] Nicolle LE. Uncomplicated urinary tract infection in adults including uncomplicated pyelonephritis. Urol Clin North Am 2008;35:1–12.
- [11] Bonadio M, Meini M, Gigli C, Longo B, Vigna A. Urinary tract infection in diabetic patients. Urol Int 1999;63:215–9.
- [12] Geerlings SE, Meiland R, van Lith EC, Brouwer EC, Gaastra W, Hoepelman AIM. Adherence of type I-fimbriated *Escherichia coli* to uroepithelial cells. Diabetes Care 2002;25:1405–9.
- [13] Leone M, Albanese J, Garnier F, Sapin C, Barrau K, Bimar MC, et al. Risk factors of nosocomial catheter-associated urinary tract infection in a polyvalent intensive care unit. Int Care Med 2003;29:929–32.
- [14] Munoz JA, Perez-Esteban B, Esteban M, de la Escalera S, Gomez MA, Martinez-Toledo MV, et al. Growth of moderately halophilic bacteria isolated from sea water using phenol as the sole carbon source. Folia Microbiol (Praha) 2001;46:297–302.
- [15] Read RR, Eberwein P, Dasgupta MK, Grant SK, Lam K, Nickel JC, et al. Peritonitis in peritoneal dialysis: Bacterial colonization by biofilm spread along the catheter. Kid Int 1988;35:614–21.
- [16] Warren JW, Tenney JH, Hoopes JM, Muncie HL, Anthony WC. A prospective microbiologic study of bacteriuria in patients with chronic indwelling urethral catheters. J Infect Dis 1982;146:719-23.
- [17] Bass 3rd PF, Jarvis JA, Mitchell CK. Urinary tract infections. Prim Care 2003;30:41-61.
- [18] Reid G. Current scientific understanding of urinary tract infections in women: an overview. World J Urol 1999;17:336–8.

- [19] Saint S, Chenoweth CE. Biofilms and catheter-associated urinary tract infections. Infect Dis Clin North Am 2003;17:411–32.
- [20] Shaw GM, Iovannisci DM, Yang W, Finnell RH, Carmichael SL, Cheng S, et al. Endothelial nitric oxide synthase (NOS3) genetic variants, maternal smoking, vitamin use, and risk of human orofacial clefts. Am J Epidemiol 2005;162:1207–14.
- [21] Kalsi J, Arya M, Wilson P, Mundy A. Hospital-acquired urinary tract infection. Int J Clin Pract 2003;57:388–91.
- [22] Logan K. Indwelling catheters: developing an integrated care pathway package. Nurs Times 2003;99:49–51.
- [23] Dickinson GM, Bisno AL. Infections associated with indwelling devices: infections related to extravascular device. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1989;33:602–7.
- [24] Chang SC, Chen YC, Hsu LY. Epidemiologic study of pathogens causing nosocomial infections. J Formos Med Assoc 1990;89:1023–30.
- [25] Fluit AC, Schmitz FJ, Verhoef J. Frequency of isolation of pathogens from bloodstream, nosocomial pneumonia, skin and soft tissue, and urinary tract infections occurring in European patients. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 2001;20:188–91.
- [26] Hootan TM. Recurrent urinary tract infection in women. Int J Antimicrob Agents 2001;17:259–68.
- [27] Johnson JR, Berggren T, Manivel JC. Histopathologicmicrobiologic correlates of invasiveness in a mouse model of ascending unobstructed urinary tract infection. J Infect Dis 1992;165:299–305.
- [28] Matheson NR, Potempa J, Travis J. Interaction of a novel form of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* alkaline protease (aeruginolysin) with interleukin-6 and interleukin-8. Biol Chem 2006;387:911–5.
- [29] Yates SP, Jorgensen R, Andersen GR, Merrill AR. Stealth and mimicry by deadly bacterial toxins. Trends Biochem 2006;31:123–33.
- [30] Zulianello L, Canard C, Kohler T, Caille D, Lacroix JS, Meda P. Rhamnolipids are virulence factors that promote early infiltration of primary human airway epithelia by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Infect Immun 2006;74:3134–47.
- [31] Veesenmeyer JL, Hauser AR, Lisboa T, Rello J. Pseudomonas aeruginosa virulence and therapy: evolving translational strategies. Crit Care Med 2009;37:1777–86.
- [32] Lysczak JB, Cannon CL, Pier GB. Establishment of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* infection: lessons from a versatile opportunist. Microbes Infect 2000;2:1051–60.
- [33] Smith DC, Spooner RA, Watson PD, Murray JL, Hodge TW, Amessou M, et al. Internalized *Pseudomonas* exotoxin A can exploit multiple pathways to reach the endoplasmic reticulum. Traffic 2006;7:379–93.
- [34] Vance RE, Rietsch A, Mekalanos JJ. Role of the type III secreted exoenzymes S, T, and Y in systemic spread of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* PAO1 *in vivo*. Infect Immun 2005;73:1706–13.
- [35] Woods DE, Lam JS, Parenchych W, Speet DP, Campbell M, Godfrey AJ. Correlation of virulence factors from clinical and environmental isolates with pathogenicity in the neutropenic mouse model. Can J Microbiol 1997;43: 541–51.
- [36] Woods DE, Schaffer MS, Rabin HR, Campbell GD, Sokol PA. Phenotypic comparison of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strains isolated from a variety of clinical sites. J Clin Microbiol 1986;24:260–4.
- [37] Hamood AN, Griswold JA, Duhan CM. Production of extracellular virulence factors by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* isolates obtained from tracheal, urinary tract, and wound infections. J Surg Res 1996;61:425–32.

- [38] Ciragil P, Soyletir G. Alginate elastase and alkaline protease production of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strains isolated from various body sites. Mikrobiyol Bull 2004;38:341–7.
- [39] Visca P, Chiarini F, Mansi A, Vetriani C, Serino L, Orsi N. Virulence determinants in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strains from urinary tract infections. Epidemiol Infect 1992;108:323–36.
- [40] Mittal R, Khandwaha RK, Gupta V, Mittal PK, Harjai K. Phenotypic characters of urinary isolates of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and their association with mouse renal colonization. Indian J Med Res 2006;123:67–72.
- [41] Hoiby N, Johnsen HK, Moser C, Song Z, Ciofu O, Kharazmi A. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and the *in vitro* and *in vivo* biofilm mode of growth. Micro Infect 2001;3:23–35.
- [42] Klausen M, Aaes-Jorgensen A, Molin S, Tolker-Nielsen T. Involvement of bacterial migration in the development of complex multicellular structures in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* biofilms. Mol Microbiol 2003;50:61–8.
- [43] Kuchma SL, Connoly JP, O'Toole GA. A three-component regulatory system regulates biofilm maturation and type III secretion in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. J Bacteriol 2005;187:1441–54.
- [44] Ryder C, Byrd M, Wozniak DJ. Role of polysaccharides in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* biofilm development. Curr Opin Microbiol 2007;10:644–8.
- [45] Friedman L, Kolter R. Two genetic loci produce distinct carbohydrate-rich structural components of the *Pseudomonas aerguinosa* biofilm matrix. J Bacteriol 2004;186:4457–65.
- [46] Jackson KD, Starkey M, Kremer S, Parsek MR, Wozniak DJ. Identification of psl, a locus encoding a potential exopolysaccharide that is essential for *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* PAO1 biofilm formation. J Bacteriol 2004;186:4466–75.
- [47] Ma LY, Jackson K, Landry RM, Parsek MR, Wozniak DJ. Analysis of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* conditional Psl variants reveals roles for the Psl polysaccharide in adhesion and maintaining biofilm structure postattachment. J Bacteriol 2006;188:8213–21.
- [48] Ma L, Lu H, Sprinkle A, Parsek MR, Wozniak DJ. Pseudomonas aeruginosa Psl is a galactose- and mannose-rich exopolysaccharide. J Bacteriol 2007;189:8353–6.
- [49] Campisano A, Schroeder C, Schemionek M, Overhage J, Rehm BHA. PslD is a secreted protein required for biofilm formation by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Appl Environ Microbiol 2006;72:3066–8.
- [50] Overhage J, Schemionek M, Webb JS, Rehm BHA. Expression of the psl operon in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* PAO1 biofilms: PslA performs an essential function in biofilm formation. Appl Environ Microbiol 2005;71: 4407–13.
- [51] Vasseur P, Vallet-Gely I, Soscia C, Genin S, Filloux A. The pel genes of the *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* PAK strain are involved at early and late stages of biofilm formation. Microbiology 2005;151:985–97.
- [52] Boles BR, Thoendel M, Singh PK. Self-generated diversity produces ''insurance effects'' in biofilm communities. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 2004;101:16630–5.
- [53] Donlan RM. Biofilm formation: a clinically relevant microbiological process. Clin Infect Dis 2001;33:1387–92.
- [54] Drenkard E. Antimicrobial resistance of *Pseudomonas* aeruginosa biofilms. Microbes Infect 2003;5:1213– 39.
- [55] Donlan RM, Costerton JW. Biofilms: survival mechanisms of clinically relevant microorganisms. Clin Microbiol Rev 2002;15:167–93.

- [56] Hall-Stoodley L, Stoodley P. Biofilm formation and dispersal and the transmission of human pathogens. Trends Microbiol 2005;13:7–10.
- [57] Trautner BW, Darouiche RO. Catheter-associated infections: pathogenesis affects prevention. Arch Intern Med 2004;164:842–50.
- [58] Stamm AM, Coutinho MS. Urinary tract infection associated with indwelling bladder catheter incidence and risk factors. Rev Assoc Med Brass 1999;45:27–33.
- [59] Trautner BW, Hull RA, Darouiche RO. Prevention of catheter-associated urinary tract infection. Curr Opin Infect Dis 2005;18:37–41.
- [60] Beltran J, Pericas R, Lopez VL, Virto BJL, Prats PG, Verger GG. Urinary infection in patients with short-term bladder catheterization. Med Clin 1991;96:161–4.
- [61] Parsons CL. Pathogenesis of urinary tract infections: bacterial adherence, bladder defense mechanisms. Urol Din North Am 1986;13:563–8.
- [62] Bissett L. Reducing the risk of catheter-related urinary tract infection. Nurs Times 2005;101:64-5.
- [63] Bonadio M, Pichierri G, Costarelli S, Morelli G, Tanzilli P, Tartaglia T, et al. Catheter-associated urinary tract infections (CAUTI): distribution of uropathogens and patterns of antimicrobial resistance in an Italian hospital (1996–2003). J Chemother 2005;17:560–2.
- [64] Niel-Weise BS, van den Broek PJ. Antibiotic policies for short-term catheter bladder drainage in adults. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2005;3:CD005428.
- [65] Locci R, Peters G, Pulverer G. Microbiol colonization of prosthetic devices. I. Scanning electron microscopy of naturally infected intravenous catheters. Zentralbl Bakteriol Microbiol Hyg Abt Orig 1981;173:285–9.
- [66] Peters G, Locci R, Pulverer G. Microbial colonization of prosthetic devices. II. Scanning electron microscopy of naturally infected intravenous catheters. Zentralbl Bakteriol Microbiol Hyg Abt Orig 1982;173:293–6.
- [67] Costerton JW, Irvin RT, Cheng KJ. The bacterial glycocalyx in nature and disease. Ann Rev Microbiol 1981;35:299–324.
- [68] Nickel JC, Grant SK, Costerton JW. Catheterassociated bacteriuria. An experimental study. Urology 1985;26:369-75.
- [69] Ganderton L, Chawla J, Winters C, Wimpenny J, Stickler D. Scanning electron microscopy of bacterial biofilms on indwelling bladder catheters. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 1992;11:789–96.
- [70] Stickler DJ, Morris NS, McLean RJ, Fuqua C. Biofilms on indwelling uretheral catheters produce quorum sensing signal molecules in situ and in vitro. Appl Environ Microbiol 1998;64:3486–90.
- [71] Kurosaka Y, Ishida Y, Yamamura E, Takase H, Otani T, Kumon H. A non-surgical rat model of foreign body-associated urinary tract infection with *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Microbiol Immunol 2001;45:9– 15.
- [72] Webb JS, Lau M, Kjelleberg S. Bacteriophage and phenotypic variation in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* biofilm development. J Bacteriol 2004;186:8066–73.
- [73] Rice SA, Tan CH, Mikkelsen PJ, Kung V, Woo J, Tay M, et al. The biofilm life cycle and virulence of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* are dependent on a filamentous prophage. ISME J 2009;3:271–82.
- [74] Mittal R, Sharma S, Chhibber S, Harjai K. Contribution of free radicals to *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* induced acute pyelonephritis. Microb Pathog 2008;45:323–30.
- [75] Gambello MJ, Iglewski BH. Cloning and characterization of the *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* lasR gene, a tran-

scriptional activator of elastase expression. J Bacteriol 1991;173:3000–9.

- [76] Ochsner UA, Reiser J. Autoinducer-mediated regulation of rhamnolipid biosurfactant synthesis in *Pseudomonas* aeruginosa. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1995;92:6424–8.
- [77] Pearson JP, Gray KM, Passador L, Tucker KD, Eberhard A, Iglewski BH, et al. Structure of the autoinducer required for expression of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* virulence genes. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1994;91:197–201.
- [78] Pearson JP, Passador L, Iglewski BH, Greenberg EP. A second N-acylhomoserine lactone signal produced by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1995;92:1490–4.
- [79] Winson MK, Camara M, Latifi A, Foglino M, Chhabra SR, Daykin M, et al. Multiple N-acyl-L-homoserine lactone signal molecules regulate production of virulence determinants and secondary metabolites in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1995;92:9427–31.
- [80] Seed PC, Passador L, Iglewski BH. Activation of the Pseudomonas aeruginosa lasl gene by LasR and the Pseudomonas autoinducer PAI: an autoinduction regulatory hierarchy. J Bacteriol 1995;177:654–9.
- [81] Passador L, Cook JM, Gambello MJ, Rust L, Iglewski BH. Expression of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* virulence genes requires cell-to-cell communication. Science 1993;260:1127–30.
- [82] Pearson JP, Pesci EC, Iglewski BH. Roles of *Pseudomonas* aeruginosa las and rhl quorum-sensing systems in control of elastase and rhamnolipid biosynthesis genes. J Bacteriol 1997;179:5756–67.
- [83] Gambello MJ, Kaye S, Iglewski BH. LasR of *Pseudomonas* aeruginosa is a transcriptional activator of the alkaline protease gene (apr) and an enhancer of exotoxin A expression. Infect Immun 1993;61:1180–4.
- [84] Chapon-Herve V, Akrim M, Latifi A, Williams P, Lazdunski A, Bally M. Regulation of the *xcp* secretion pathway by multiple quorum sensing modulons in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Mol Microbiol 1997;24:1169–78.
- [85] Latifi A, Foglino M, Tanaka K, Williams P, Lazdunski A. A hierarchical quorum-sensing cascade in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* links the transcriptional activators LasR and RhIR (VsmR) to expression of the stationary-phase sigma factor RpoS. Mol Microbiol 1996;21:1137–46.
- [86] Pesci EC, Pearson JP, Seed PC, Iglewski BH. Regulation of las and rhl quorum sensing in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. J Bacteriol 1997;179:3127–32.
- [87] Brint JM, Ohman DE. Synthesis of multiple exoproducts in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* is under the control of RhlR-RhlI, another set of regulators in strain PAO1 with homology to the autoinducer-responsive LuxR-LuxI family. J Bacteriol 1995;177:7155–63.
- [88] Davies DG, Parsek MR, Pearson JP, Iglewski BH, Costerton JW, Greenberg EP. The involvement of cell-to-cell signals in the development of a bacterial biofilm. Science 1998;280:295–8.
- [89] Lesprit P, Faurisson F, Join-Lambert O, Roudot-Thoraval F, Foglino M, Vissuzaine C, et al. Role of the quorumsensing system in experimental pneumonia due to *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in rats. Am J Respir Crit Care Med 2003;167:1478–82.
- [90] Pearson JP, Feldman M, Iglewski BH, Prince A. Pseudomonas aeruginosa cell-to-cell signaling is required for virulence in a model of acute pulmonary infection. Infect Immun 2000;68:4331–4.
- [91] Rumbaugh KP, Griswold JA, Hamood AN. Pseudomonas aeruginosa strains obtained from patients with tracheal, urinary tract and wound infection: variations in viru-

lence factors and virulence genes. J Hosp Infect 1999;43: 211-8.

- [92] Wu H, Song Z, Givskov M, Doring G, Worlitzsch D, Mathee K, et al. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* mutations in lasI and rhll quorum sensing systems result in milder chronic lung infection. Microbiology 2001;147:1105–13.
- [93] Zhu H, Bandara R, Conibear TC, Thuruthyil SJ, Rice SA, Kjelleberg S, et al. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* with lasl quorum-sensing deficiency during corneal infection. Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci 2004;45:1897–903.
- [94] Parker CT, Sperandio V. Cell-to-cell signalling during pathogenesis. Cell Microbiol 2009;11:363–9.
- [95] Mittal R, Sharma S, Chhibber S, Harjai K. Contribution of quorum-sensing systems to virulence of *Pseudomonas* aeruginosa in an experimental pyelonephritis model. J Microbiol Immunol Infect 2006;39:302–9.
- [96] Haussler S, Becker T. The *Pseudomonas* quinolone signal (PQS) balances life and death in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* populations. PLoS Pathog 2008;4:e1000166.
- [97] Farrow 3rd JM, Sund ZM, Ellison ML, Wade DS, Coleman JP, Pesci EC. PqsE functions independently of PqsR-*Pseudomonas* quinolone signal and enhances the rhl quorum-sensing system. J Bacteriol 2008;190:7043– 51.
- [98] Dubern JF, Diggle SP. Quorum sensing by 2-alkyl-4quinolones in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and other bacterial species. Mol Biosyst 2008;4:882–8.
- [99] Kim EJ, Sabra W, Zeng AP. Iron deficiency leads to inhibition of oxygen transfer and enhanced formation of virulence factors in cultures of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* PAO1. Microbiology 2003;149:2627–34.
- [100] Shand GH, Anwar H, Kadurugamuwa J, Brown M, Silvermann SH, Melling J. *In vivo* evidence that bacteria in urinary tract infection grow under iron restricted conditions. Infect Immun 1985;48:35–9.
- [101] Suh SJ, Suh SL, Woods DE, Hassett DJ, West SEH, Ohman DE. Effect of *rpoS* mutation on the stress response and expression of virulence factors in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. J Bacteriol 1999;181:3890–7.
- [102] Lamont IL, Beare PA, Ochsner U, Vasil AI, Vasil ML. Siderophore mediated signaling regulates virulence factor production in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 2002;99:7072–7.
- [103] Sriyosachati S, Cox CD. Siderophore mediated iron acquisition from transferrin by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Infect Immun 1986;52:885–91.
- [104] Winzer K, Falconer C, Garber NC, Diggle SP, Camara M, Williams P. The *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* lectins PA-IL and PA-IIL are controlled by quorum sensing and by RpoS. J Bacteriol 2000;182:6401–11.
- [105] Bullen JJ, Rogers HJ, Spalding PB, Ward CG. Iron and infection: the heart of the matter. FEMS Immunol Med Microbiol 2005;43:325–30.
- [106] Bjorn MJ, Iglewski BH, Ives SK, Sadoff JC, Vasil ML. Effect of iron on yields of exotoxin A in cultures of *Pseudomonas* aeruginosa PA-103. Infect Immun 1978;19:785–91.
- [107] Bjorn MJ, Sokol PA, Iglewski BH. Influence of iron on yields of extracellular products in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* cultures. J Bacteriol 1979;138:193–200.
- [108] Woods DE, Iglewski BH, Johanson WG. Host and bacterial factors in the colonization of the respiratory tract. In: Schlessinger D, editor. Microbiology. Washington, D.C.: American Society for Microbiology; 1982. p. 348– 52.
- [109] Sokol PA, Woods DE. Relationship of iron and extracellular virulence factors to *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* lung infections. J Med Microbiol 1984;18:125–33.

- [110] Mittal R, Sharma S, Chhibber S, Harjai K. Iron dictates the virulence of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in urinary tract infections. J Biomed Sci 2008;15:731–41.
- [111] Mittal R, Sharma S, Chhibber S, Harjai K. Effect of osmolarity on virulence of uropathogenic *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Am J Biomed Sci 2009;1:12–26.
- [112] Culham DE, Dalgado C, Gyles CL, Mamelak D, MacLellan S, Wood JW. Osmoregulatory transporter ProP influences colonization of the urinary tract by *Escherichia coli*. Microbiology 1998;144:91–102.
- [113] Kokot F, Dulawa J. Tamm-Horsfall protein updated. Nephron 2000;85:97-102.
- [114] Seraffini-cesssi F, Malagolini N, Cavallone D. Tamm–Horsfall glycoprotein: biology and clinical relevance. Am J Kidney Dis 2003;42:658–76.
- [115] Duncan JL. Differential effect of Tamm-Horsfall protein on adherence of *Escherichia coli* to transitional epithelial cells. J Infec Dis 1988;158:1379–89.
- [116] Mittal R, Sharma S, Chhibber S, Harjai K. Alteration in virulence characteristics of biofilm cells of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in presence of Tamm–Horsfall Protein. World J Microbiol Biotechnol 2006;22:915–9.
- [117] Harjai K, Mittal R, Chhibber S, Sharma S. Contribution of Tamm–Horsfall protein to virulence of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in urinary tract infection. Microbes Infect 2005;7:132–7.
- [118] Hawthorn LA, Bruce AW, Reid G. Ability of uropathogens to bind to Tamm–Horsfall protein coated renal tubular cells. Urol Res 1991;1:301–4.
- [119] Nathan CF. Secretory products of macrophages. J Clin Invest 1987;79:319–26.
- [120] Mittal R, Sharma S, Chhibber S, Harjai K. Effect of macrophage secretory products on elaboration of virulence factors by planktonic and biofilm cells of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Comp Immunol Microbiol Infect Dis 2006;29:12–26.
- [121] Haraoka M, Hang L, Frendeus B, Godaly G, Burdick M, Strieter R, et al. Neutrophil recruitment and resistance to urinary tract infection. J Infect Dis 1999;180: 1220-9.

- [122] Jung H, Eckmann L, Yang S, Panja A, Fierer J, Wroblewska E, et al. A distinct array of proinflammatory cytokines is expressed in human colon epithelial cells in response to bacterial invasion. J Clin Invest 1995;95:55–65.
- [123] Godaly G, Bergsten G, Hang L, Fischer H, Frendeus B, Lundstedt AC, et al. Neutrophil recruitment, chemokine receptors, and resistance to mucosal infection. J Leukoc Biol 2001;69:899–906.
- [124] Svanborg C, Bergsten G, Fischer H, Godaly G, Gustafsson M, Karpman D, et al. Uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* as a model of host-parasite interaction. Curr Opin Microbiol 2006;9:33–9.
- [125] Agace WW, Hedges SR, Ceska M, Svanborg C. Interleukin-8 and the neutrophil response to mucosal gram-negative infection. J Clin Invest 1993;92:780–5.
- [126] Hedges S, Linder H, de Man P, Svanborg Eden C. Ciclosporin-dependent, nu-independent, mucosal interleukin 6 response to gram-negative bacteria. Scand J Immunol 1990;31:335–43.
- [127] Jirik FR, Podor TJ, Hirano T, Kishimoto T, Loskutoff DJ, Carson DA, et al. Bacterial lipopolysaccharide and inflammatory mediators augment IL-6 secretion by human endothelial cells. J Immunol 1989;142:144–7.
- [128] Lopponow H, Libby P, Freudenberg M, Krauss J, Weckesser J, Mayer H. Cytokine induction by lipopolysaccharide (LPS) corresponds to lethal toxicity and is inhibited by nontoxic *Rhodobacter capsulatus* LPS. Infect Immun 1990;58:3743–50.
- [129] Godaly G, Bergsten G, Frendeus B, Hang L, Hedlund M, Karpman D, et al. Innate defences and resistance to gram negative mucosal infection. Adv Exp Med Biol 2000;485:9–24.
- [130] Olszyna DP, Vermeulen H, Baan AH, Speelman P, van Deventer SJ, Gouma DJ, et al. Urine interleukin-8 is a marker for urinary tract infection in postoperative patients. Infection 2001;29:274–7.
- [131] Kassir K, Vargas-Shiraishi O, Zaldivar F, Berman M, Singh J, Arrieta A. Cytokine profiles of pediatric patients treated with antibiotics for pyelonephritis: potential therapeutic impact. Clin Diagn Lab Immunol 2001;8:1060–3.

Available online at www.sciencedirect.com