# Expanding multiple antibiotic resistance among clinical strains of *Vibrio cholerae* isolated from 1992–7 in Calcutta, India

P. GARG<sup>1</sup>, S. CHAKRABORTY<sup>1</sup>, I. BASU<sup>1</sup>, S. DATTA<sup>1</sup>, K. RAJENDRAN<sup>1</sup>, T. BHATTACHARYA<sup>1</sup>, S. YAMASAKI<sup>1,2</sup>, S. K. BHATTACHARYA<sup>1</sup>, Y. TAKEDA<sup>3</sup>, G. BALAKRISH NAIR<sup>1</sup> AND T. RAMAMURTHY<sup>1\*</sup>

(Accepted 20 December 1999)

### **SUMMARY**

Antimicrobial susceptibilities of Vibrio cholerae strains isolated from cholera patients admitted to the Infectious Diseases Hospital, Calcutta, India for 6 years were analysed to determine the changing trends; 840 V. cholerae strains isolated in 1992–1997 were included in this study. Among V. cholerae serogoup O1 and O139, ampicillin resistance increased from 1992 (35 and 70%, respectively) to 1997 (both serogroups 100%). Resistance to furazolidone and streptomycin was constantly high among V. cholerae O1 strains with gradual increase in resistance to other drugs such as ciprofloxacin, co-trimoxazole, neomycin and nalidixic acid. V. cholerae O139 strains exhibited susceptibilities to furazolidone and streptomycin comparable with those of O1 strains. However, after initial increase in resistance to chloramphenicol and co-trimoxazole, all the V. cholerae O139 strains became susceptible to these two drugs from 1995 onwards. Both V. cholerae O1 and O139 remained largely susceptible to gentamicin and tetracycline. V. cholerae non-O1, non-O139 strains, in contrast, exhibited high levels of resistance to virtually every class of antimicrobial agents tested in this study especially from 1995. Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis showed that V. cholerae O1 Ogawa serogroup exhibited significant yearly increase in resistance to nine antibiotics followed by non-O1 non-O139 and O139 strains to six antibiotics and two antibiotics respectively. Interesting observation encountered in this study was the dissipation of some of the resistant patterns commonly found among V. cholerae non-O1 non-O139 or O1 serogroups to the O139 serogroup and vice versa during the succeeding years.

#### INTRODUCTION

The definition of emerging infectious diseases in the Institution of Medicine report includes drug-resistance infections, which have been on the upsurge for the past several years [1–3]. Recent examples include

\* Author for correspondence: National Institute of Cholera and Enteric Diseases, P-33, C.I.T. Road, Scheme XM, Beliaghata, Calcutta-700010, India.

multi drug resistance in *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* in USA [4], *Shigella dysenteriae* type I infection in Africa [5], *Salmonella typhi* in India [6], and *Vibrio cholerae* in Ecuador [7]. *Vibrio cholerae* O1 and O139 serogroups are the well-known aetiologic agents of epidemic cholera. Less is reported about *V. cholerae* belonging to the non-O1 non-O139 serogroups, but their participation in causing cholera-like diarrhoea should not be under-estimated particularly after the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> National Institute of Cholera and Enteric Diseases, Calcutta-700010, India

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Research Institute, International Medical Center of Japan, Shijuku-ku, Tokyo 162–8655, Japan

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Shijuku-ku, Tokyo 162–8640, Japan

emergence of O139 Bengal. Clinical laboratories do not always test for non-O1 non-O139 serogroups on a routine basis, both with respect to serotype and with respect to susceptibility to different classes of antimicrobial agents. It is important to ascertain the variations in resistance and to relate these variations to mechanisms of resistance. We have been monitoring different serogroups of *V. cholerae* among hospitalized cholera patients for the past several years in Calcutta, India [8]. The major objective of this study was to analyse the trends in multiple antibiotic resistance among clinical strains of *V. cholerae* isolated in 1992–7 in Calcutta.

## **METHODS**

#### Vibrio cholerae strains

Eight hundred and forty strains of *V. cholerae* isolated between 1992 and 1997 from cholera and cholera-like patients admitted in the Infectious Diseases Hospital, Calcutta were included in this study. All the *V. cholerae* strains were isolated and identified by standard laboratory methods [9], and further confirmed by serology using antisera prepared in our Institute. The 840 strains of *V. cholerae* strains included 326 *V. cholerae* O1 Ogawa, 314 *V. cholerae* O139 and 200 *V. cholerae* non-O1 non-O139 strains. All the strains were stored in nutrient agar stabs at room temperature (20–30 °C) and antibiotic susceptibility testing was performed at monthly intervals.

## Antimicrobial susceptibility testing

Antimicrobial susceptibility analysis of V. cholerae was performed by the disk diffusion technique [10], with commercial discs (Hi Media, Bombay, India). The following antibiotics were used, ampicillin (A, 10 mcg), chloramphenicol (C, 30 mcg), ciprofloxacin (Cf, 5 mcg), co-trimoxazole (Co, 25 mcg), furazolidone (Fz, 50 mcg), gentamicin (G, 10 mcg), nalidixic acid (Na, 30 mcg), neomycin (N, 30 mcg), norfloxacin (Nf, 10 mcg), streptomycin (S, 10 mcg) and tetracycline (T, 30 mcg). Characterisation of strains as susceptible, intermediately resistant, or resistant was based on the size of the inhibition zones according to the manufacturer's instructions, which matched the interpretive criteria recommended by the World Health Organization [11]. In this study, strains showing intermediate zones of growth inhibition were interpreted as resistant on the basis of previous MIC studies with *V. cholerae* [12].

## Statistical analysis

The data were entered into a data base software package KEDIT 3.5 in a personal computer separately by two individuals and converted into EPI-ENFO 6.1 as rec. file for matching data to derive the consistency and validity. The validated data were random checked and then compiled and analysed using the SPSS 4.0 version software package. For comparing the mean rank differences in resistance to each drug for each year, the duration of 6 years from 1992 to 1997 were divided into six groups each for V. cholerae O1, O139 and non-O1 non-O139 for all drugs. For nonparametric tests, Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance was employed to compare the mean rank differences in resistance to each drug for each year, 1992–7. A 'P' value of < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

#### RESULTS

Results on the drug resistance of *V. cholerae* O1 strains are furnished in Table 1. Increase in resistant to ampicillin, co-trimoxazole, nalidixic acid and neomycin was constantly recorded from 1994. Almost all the *V. cholerae* O1 strains were uniformly resistant to furazolidone and streptomycin throughout the study period. From low levels of resistance to chromphenicol in 1992 and 1993, 73% were resistant to this drug in 1994 and in subsequent years showed a wavering trend (Table 1). *V. cholerae* O1 strains were mostly susceptible to gentamicin and tetracycline. A perceptible increase in the isolation of ciprofloxacin and norfloxacin resistant strains was noticed from 1995.

Like *V. cholerae* O1, O139 strains were resistant to ampicillin, furazolidone and streptomycin and mostly susceptible to nalidixic acid, norfloxacin and tetracycline (Table 2). Ciprofloxacin resistant *V. cholerae* O139 strains first appeared in 1995, but the isolation frequency was low. Frequency in the isolation of chloramphenicol and co-trimoxazole resistant strains of *V. cholerae* O139 was highest during 1994–5 and thereafter declined sharply in the succeeding years (Table 2). Ampicillin, co-trimoxazole, furazolidone, neomycin and streptomycin resistant strains of *V*.

Table 1. Resistance of Vibrio cholerae O1 strains to different antibiotics

	Year*					
Drug	$ \begin{array}{c} 1992 \\ (n = 26) \end{array} $	$   \begin{array}{l}     1993 \\     (n = 20)   \end{array} $	1994 $(n = 74)$	1995 $(n = 84)$	1996 $(n = 69)$	1997 (n = 53)
Ampicillin	9 (34·6)	5 (25.0)	54 (73.0)	74 (88·1)	69 (100)	53 (100)
Chloramphenicol	4 (15.4)	6 (30.0)	54 (73.0)	22 (26.2)	54 (78.3)	10 (18.9)
Ciprofloxacin				2 (2.4)	4 (5.8)	10 (18.9)
Co-trimoxazole	6 (23·1)	16 (80.0)	74 (100)	83 (99.0)	69 (100)	52 (98·1)
Furazolidone	25 (96·1)	17 (85.0)	74 (100)	82 (97.6)	69 (100)	53 (100)
Gentamicin					6 (8.7)	
Neomycin	7 (27.0)	2 (10.0)	35 (47·3)	56 (66.7)	64 (92.7)	23 (43.4)
Nalidixic acid	2 (7.7)	1 (5.0)	73 (98.6)	82 (97.6)	68 (98.5)	50 (94.3)
Norfloxacin	. ,	` ,	. ,	3 (3.6)	. ,	4 (7.5)
Streptomycin	26 (100)	20 (100)	74 (100)	83 (99.0)	69 (100)	59 (94.3)
Tetracycline	3 (11.5)	2 (10.0)	1 (1.3)	1 (1.2)	1 (1.4)	, ,

<sup>\*</sup> n, total number of strains. The numbers in parentheses indicate percentage.

Table 2. Resistance of Vibrio cholerae O139 strains to different antibiotics

	Year*					
Drug	$ \begin{array}{c} 1992 \\ (n = 10) \end{array} $	1993 $(n = 87)$	1994 $(n = 40)$	1995 $(n = 42)$	1996 $(n = 64)$	$   \begin{array}{c}     1997 \\     (n = 71)   \end{array} $
Ampicillin	7 (70.0)	60 (69.0)	35 (87.5)	42 (100)	64 (100)	71 (100)
Chloramphenicol		49 (56.3)	26 (65.0)	6 (14.3)	9 (14·1)	2 (2.8)
Ciprofloxacin		. ,	. ,	1 (2.4)	3 (4.7)	1 (1.4)
Co-trimoxazole	10 (100)	87 (100)	40 (100)	36 (85.7)	1 (1.6)	
Furazolidone	10 (100)	86 (98.8)	39 (97.5)	41 (97.6)	64 (100)	71 (100)
Gentamicin					2 (3·1)	
Neomycin	1 (10.0)	28 (32·2)	14 (35.0)	15 (35.7)	61 (95.3)	42 (59·1)
Nalidixic acid		2 (2.3)		9 (21.4)	5 (7.8)	5 (7.0)
Norfloxacin				1 (2.4)		
Streptomycin	7 (70.0)	87 (100)	40 (100)	41 (98.0)	61 (95.3)	25 (35·2)
Tetracycline		1 (1.1)		1 (2.4)	5 (7.8)	1 (1.4)

<sup>\*</sup> n, total number of strains. The numbers in parentheses indicate percentage.

cholerae non-O1 non-O139 strains were generally high between 1992 and 1997 as shown in Table 3. In contrast to *V. cholerae* O1 and O139, the non-O1, non-O139 strains were more frequently resistant to ciprofloxacin, norfloxacin and tetracycline (Table 3).

To determine statistically the yearly increase in antibiotic resistance among *V. cholerae* strains isolated between 1992 and 1997, we used Kruskal–Wallis oneway analysis of variance and the results are depicted in Table 4. Except for gentamicin and tetracycline, *V. cholerae* O1 strains were increasingly resistant to all the tested antibiotics. Among *V. cholerae* O139 strains, significant yearly increase in resistance was recorded only for ampicillin and neomycin. However, significant decrease in resistance was recorded among

V. cholerae O139 to chloramphenicol, co-trimoxazole, nalidixic acid, and streptomycin. V. cholerae non-O1, non-O139 strains showed significant increase in resistance to most of the tested antibiotics such as ampicillin, chloramphenicol, ciprofloxacin, neomycin, nalidixic acid and norfloxacin.

One hundred and nineteen different multidrug resistance profiles were encountered in this study (data not shown). Two processes (emergence and dissemination) account for strains of antibiotic resistance in *V. cholerae*. It seems that antibiotic resistance characters confined to one serogroup for a particular period of time was presumably dissipated to the other *V. cholerae* serogroup(s), in which it became stable and then became dominant in the

Table 3. Resistance of Vibrio cholerae non-O1 non-O139 strains to different antibiotics

	Year*					
Drug	$ \begin{array}{c} 1992 \\ (n = 13) \end{array} $	1993 $(n = 20)$	1994 $(n = 14)$	1995 ( <i>n</i> = 27)	1996 $(n = 53)$	$   \begin{array}{c}     1997 \\     (n = 73)   \end{array} $
Ampicillin	13 (100)	20 (100)	11 (78.6)	25 (92.6)	53 (100)	73 (100)
Chloramphenicol	1 (7.7)		4 (28.6)	3 (11·1)	14 (26.4)	24 (32.9)
Ciprofloxacin	3 (23·1)	1 (5.0)		2 (7.4)	19 (35.8)	24 (32.9)
Co-trimoxazole	2 (15.4)	6 (30.0)	7 (50.0)	9 (33·3)	25 (47·1)	39 (53.4)
Furazolidone	13 (100)	19 (95.0)	14 (100)	26 (96.3)	53 (100)	72 (98.6)
Gentamicin				1 (3.7)	6 (11.3)	10 (13.7)
Neomycin	11 (84.6)	18 (90.0)	10 (71.4)	16 (59·2)	52 (98·1)	55 (75.3)
Nalidixic acid		2 (10.0)	3 (21.4)	5 (18.5)	19 (35.8)	30 (41·1)
Norfloxacin		1 (5.0)		2 (7.4)	11 (20.7)	15 (20.5)
Streptomycin	5 (38·5)	14 (70.0)	10 (71.4)	17 (63.0)	36 (67.9)	31 (42.5)
Tetracycline	1 (7.7)	2 (10.0)	4 (28.6)	6 (22·2)	14 (26.4)	28 (38·3)

<sup>\*</sup> n, total number of strains. The numbers in parentheses indicate percentage.

Table 4. Kruskal–Wallis one-way analysis of variance exploring significant changes in drug resistance (either mean rank increase or mean rank decrease) among years and V. cholerae O1, O139 and non-O1 non-O139

	Ties significand	ee	
Antibiotics	O1	O139	Non-O1 non-O139
Ampicillin	< 0.00001*	< 0.00001*	< 0.00001*
Chloramphenicol	< 0.00001*	< 0.00001†	0.0148*
Ciprofloxacin	< 0.00001*	0.2789	0.0018*
Co-trimoxazole	< 0.00001*	< 0.0001†	0.0808
Furazolidone	0.0003*	0.6488	0.5823
Gentamicin	0.0004†	0.1654	0.1511
Neomycin	< 0.00001*	< 0.0001*	0.0006*
Nalidixic acid	< 0.00001*	0.0008‡	0.0057*
Norfloxacin	0.0312*	0.2626	0.0559*
Streptomycin	0.0532*	< 0.0000†	0.0151†
Tetracycline	0.0147†	0.0913	0.0754

<sup>\*</sup> Statistically significant increases mean rank in resistance to the antibiotic in question among the years of comparison.

subsequent years. As shown in Table 5, the profiles AFz and AFzN are recorded among *V. cholerae* non-O1 and non-O139 strains from 1992 and these profiles are respectively recorded among 17% (12/71 strains) and 39·4% (28/71 strains) of *V. cholerae* O139 in 1997. Similarly, the profile AFzNS was first recorded among *V. cholerae* O1 and non-O1 non-O139 strains from 1992 and most likely was transferred to 67·7% of O139 serogroup (42/64 strains), which was one of the dominant profiles in 1996. The profile ACoFzNaS was first recorded during 1993 among *V. cholerae* O139 and non-O1 and non-O139 strains followed by *V. cholerae* O1 strains from 1994 (4/74 strains), in

which preponderance of this profile reached to 30% (16/53 strains). AFzS profile was recorded first among *V. cholerae* O1 in 1992 followed by non-O1 and non-O139 strains until 1996. In 1997, this profile was dominantly found among 18·3% of *V. cholerae* O139 strains (13/71 strains).

## DISCUSSION

Even though the therapy for cholera is principally supportive, antimicrobial therapy can be useful in decreasing the volume of stools and length of illness [13, 14]. While tetracycline has been the mainstay of

<sup>†</sup> Significantly decreasing.

Table 5. Emergence and dissemination of multiply antibiotic resistance among V. cholerae in Calcutta

	Year/serogroup					
	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Dominant profile	Non-OI OI OI39 non-OI39	Non-O1 O1 O139 non-O139	Non-OI OI OI39 non-OI39	Non-OI OI OI39 non-OI39	Non-OI OI OI39 non-OI39	Non-O1 O1 O139 non-O139
AFz AFzN AFzNS ACoFzNaS AFzS			4	3		-     12     8       -     28     14       -     9     -       16     -     -       -     13     -

therapy, chloramphenicol, furazolidone and co-trimoxazole are the other reported alternatives [15, 16]. Multidrug resistant classical V. cholerae strains and simultaneous epidemic outbreaks of both classical and ElTor biotypes of V. cholerae has been reported in Bangladesh [17]. Majority of the ElTor strains in this study was resistant to ampicillin and furazolidone and a similar trend is seen in Calcutta. Since cholera is a non-invasive disease, drugs such as co-trimoxazole, which is not absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract, was widely used for the treatment [18, 19]. Resistance of an ElTor strain of V. cholerae to trimethoprim, streptomycin and the vibriostatic agent O/129 (2,4-diamino-6,7-diisopropylpteridine) is due to a transposon inserted into the chromosome [20], whose transfer is being enhanced by pretreatment with these drugs for which the markers encode resistance. This phenomenon may, in large part, be responsible for the rapid dissemination and high incidence of co-trimoxazole and streptomycin resistance among V. cholerae isolated from 1989 in Calcutta [21]. Almost all the V. cholerae O1 strains were resistant to co-trimoxazole versus none of V. cholerae O139 strains isolated during 1996-7 [22]. The higher incidence of V. cholerae non-O1, non-O139 strains resistant to tetracycline compared to O1 and O139 strains in this study could be a prelude to the possible emergence of tetracycline resistant strains of V. cholerae O1 and O139.

Reservation about promotion of ciprofloxacin as a first line drug for the treatment of cholera in developing countries has been expressed [23], since it is an important substitute drug for treatment of multidrug resistant enteric and other pathogens. Extensive use of this drug and empirical therapy for treating diarrhoeal infection might have promoted incidence of ciprofloxacin resistant *V. cholerae*, which has emerged for the first time in Calcutta during 1992 among *V. cholerae* non-O1 non-O139 and during 1995 among *V. cholerae* O1 and O139 strains [24].

Since tetracycline resistant *V. cholerae* O1 strains have been responsible for major epidemics of cholera in Latin America, Tanzania, Bangladesh and Zaire [7, 25–27], norfloxacin is widely used as an alternative to tetracycline for the treatment. Even though the incidence level of norfloxacin resistant strains among *V. cholerae* O1 and O139 is less in the present study, the non-O1 non-O139 strains exhibited a higher level of incidence, especially during 1996–7.

Based on the chronological evidence gleaned from this study it appears that some of the drug resistance expression might have transferred from one serogroup of *V. cholerae* to the other. However, the possibility of acquiring antibiotic resistance by inter/intra generic transfer cannot be ignored. The major patterns of multiple antibiotic resistance determined in Calcutta are comparable with those from other endemic locals in India and Bangladesh. The antibiotic resistance profiles AFz; AFzN and AFzNS encountered in this study were also reported common among *V. cholerae* O139 strains isolated from Madras, Nagpur [28]; Dhaka, Bangladesh [29]; Nagpur, Midnapur, Madras, Amravati [30] respectively. The profile ACoFzNaS was common among *V. cholerae* O1 strains isolated from Bhillai, Ahmadabad, Allephey, Madras, Vellore and Dibrugarh [31].

Early studies conducted in India showed that the prevalence of multidrug resistant strains of V. cholerae non-O1 was a rare event [32, 33]. Sundaram & Murthy [34] reported that only 2.7% non-O1 isolates were multi drug resistant in Madras; an area endemic for cholera in south India, but none of the strains was resistant to nalidixic acid or furazolidone. In the current study, we have observed that like O1, non-O1 and non-O139 isolates exhibited resistance to furazolidone and nalidixic acid.

It is amply clear that long-term surveillance programmes are essential to identify changes in the spectrum of microbial pathogens causing serious infection and to monitor trends in antimicrobial resistance patterns [35–37]. The information gleaned from the surveillance efforts is integral to the designing approaches to the therapy of serious infection and also to defining appropriate control measures for antimicrobial-resistance pathogens.

# **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

This work was supported, in part, by the Japan International Co-operation Agency (JICA/NICED Project 054-1061-E-O), Tokyo, Japan. We thank A. M. Mukhopadhyay, A. Basu and R. Mitra for their input in this study.

#### REFERENCES

- 1. Murray BE. New aspects of antimicrobial resistance and the resulting therapeutic dilemmas. J Infect Dis 1991; **163**: 1185–94.
- 2. Cohen M. Epidemiology of drug resistance: implications for a post-antibiotic era. Science 1992; **257**: 1050–5.

- 3. Neu HC. The crisis in the antibiotic resistance. Science 1992: **257**: 1064–73.
- Edlin BR, Tokars JI, Grieco MH, et al. An outbreak of multidrug resistance tuberculosis among hospitalized patients with acquired immunodeficiency syndrome. N Engl J Med 1994; 331: 377–82.
- Ries AA, Wells JG, Olivola D, et al. Epidemic Shigella dysentariae type I in Burundi: panresistance and implication for prevention. J Infect Dis 1994; 169: 1035–41.
- Threlfall EJ, Ward LR, Rowe B, et al. Wide spread occurrence of multiple-drug resistance *Salmonella typhi* in India. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 1992; 11: 990–3.
- Weber JT, Mintz ED, Canizares R, et al. Epidemic cholera in Ecuador: multidrug resistance and transmission by water and seafood. Epidemiol Infect 1994; 112: 1–11.
- 8. Ramamurthy T, Pal A, Bhattacharya MK, et al. Serovar, biotype, phagetype, and antibiotic susceptibility patterns of *Vibrio cholerae* isolated during two consecutive cholera seasons (1989–90) in Calcutta. Indian J Med Res 1992; **95**: 125–9.
- 9. World Health Organization. Manual for laboratory investigations of acute enteric infections, 1987: CDD/83.3.
- Bauer AW, Kirby WMM, Sherris JC, Turck M. Antibiotic susceptibility testing by a standardized single disk method. Am J Clin Pathol 1966; 45: 493–6.
- 11. World Health Organization. Guidelines for cholera control. Geneva: World Health Organization, 1993.
- 12. Yamamoto T, Nair GB, Albert MJ, Parodi CC, Takeda Y. Survey of *in vitro* susceptibility of *Vibrio cholerae* O1 and O139 to antimicrobial agents. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1995; **39**: 241–4.
- 13. Greenough WB III, Rosenberg S, Gordon RS, Davis BI. Tetracyclines in the treatment of cholera. Lancet 1964; i: 335–7.
- 14. Carpenter CC, Barua D, Sack RB, et al. Clinical studies in Asiatic cholera IV. Antibiotic therapy in cholera. Bull Johns Hopkins Hosp 1966; 118: 230–42.
- Barua D, Merson MH. Prevention and control of cholera. In: Barua D, Greenough WB III, eds. Cholera. New York: Plenum Publishing Co., 1992: 329–49.
- Mahalanabis D, Molla AM, Sack DA. Cholera management. In: Barua D, Greenough WB III, eds. Cholera. New York: Plenum Publishing Co., 1992: 253–83.
- Siddique A, Zaman K, Majumder Y, et al. Simultaneous outbreaks of contrasting drug resistant classic and El Tor *Vibrio cholerae* O1 in Bangladesh. Lancet 1989; ii: 396.
- Cash RA, Northrop RS, Mizanur Rahman ASM. Trimithoprim and sulfamethoxazole in clinical cholera: comparison with tetracycline. J Infect Dis 1973; 128: S749–53.
- Uylangco C, Santiago L, Pescnte M, Menday P, Christensen O. Pivmecillinam, co-trimoxazole and oral mecillinam in gastroenteritis due to *Vibrio* spp. J Antimicrob Chemother 1984; 13: 171–5.

- Waldor MK, Tschape H, Mekalanos JJ. A new type of conjugative transposon encodes resistance to sulfamethoxazole, trimethoprim, and streptomycin in *Vibrio cholerae* O139. J Bacteriol 1996; 178: 4157–65.
- 21. Ramamurthy T, Pal A, Pal SC, Nair GB. Taxonomical implications of the emergence of high frequency of occurrence of 2,4-diamino-6,7-diisopropylpteridine-resistant strains of *Vibrio cholerae* from clinical cases of cholera in Calcutta, India. J Clin Microbiol 1992; **30**: 742–3.
- 22. Mitra R, Basu A, Dutta D, Nair GB, Takeda Y. Resurgence of *Vibrio cholerae* O139 Bengal with altered antibiogram in Calcutta, India. Lancet 1996; **348**: 1181.
- 23. Khan WA, Begum M, Salam MA, Bardhan PK, Islam MRI, Mahalanabis D. Comparative trial of five antimicrobial compounds in the treatment of cholera in adults. Trans Royal Soc Trop Med Hyg 1995; **89**: 103–6.
- 24. Mukhopadhyay AM, Basu I, Bhattacharya SK, Bhattacharya MK, Nair GB. Emergence of fluoroquinolone resistance in strains of *Vibrio cholerae* isolated from hospitalized patients with acute diarrhea in Calcutta, India. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1998; 42: 206–7.
- 25. Mahlu FS, Mmari PW, Ijumba J. Rapid emergence of El Tor *Vibrio cholerae* resistant to antimicrobial agents during the first six months of forth cholera epidemic in Tanzania. Lancet 1979; i: 345–7.
- 26. Glass RI, Huq MI, Lee JV, et al. Plasmid-borne multiple drug resistance in *Vibrio cholerae* serogroup O1, biotype ElTor; evidence for a point source outbreak in Bangladesh. J Infect Dis 1983; **147**: 204–9.
- Islam MS, Siddique AKM, Salam A, et al. Microbiological investigation of diarrhoea epidemics among Rwandan refugees in Zaire. Trans Royal Soc Trop Med Hyg 1995; 89: 506–28.
- 28. Faruque SM, Saha MN, Asadulghani, et al. Genomic diversity among *Vibrio cholerae* O139 strains isolated in Bangladesh and India between 1992 and 1998. FEMS Microbiol Lett 2000; **184**: 279–84.

- 29. Basu A, Mukhopadhyay AK, Sharma C, et al. Heterogeneity in the organization of the CTX genetic element in strains of *Vibrio cholerae* O139 Bengal isolated from Calcutta, India and Dhaka, Bangladesh and its possible like to the dissimilar incidence of O139 cholera in the two locals. Microbial Pathogen 1998; 24: 175–83.
- 30. Mukhopadhyay AK, Basu A, Garg P, et al. Molecular epidemiology of reemergent *Vibrio cholerae* O139 Bengal in India. J Clin Microbiol 1998; **36**: 2149–52.
- 31. Bag PK, Maiti S, Sharma C, et al. Rapid spread of the new clone of *Vibrio cholerae* O1 biotype El Tor in cholera endemic areas in India. Epidemiol Infect 1998; **121**: 245–51.
- 32. Misra BS, Verma SN, Mondal MM, Pal SC, Raghavan NGS. Antibiotic sensitivity pattern of *Vibrio* strains isolated from different parts of India during 1968. J Indian Med Assoc 1970; **55**: 311–3.
- Sil J, Sanyal SC, Mukherjee S. Antibiotic sensitivity of Vibrio cholerae other than O serotype 1 (so called NAG vibrios). Indian J Med Res 1974; 62: 491–6.
- 34. Sundaram SP, Murthy KV. Transferable plasmid-mediated drug resistance among non-O1 *Vibrio cholerae* and rough strains of *Vibrio cholerae* from Tamilnadu, India. J Hyg 1984; **92**: 59–65.
- 35. Jones RN, Kehrberg EN, Errvin ME, Anderson SC, and the Fluroquinolone Resistance Surveillance Group. Prevalence of important pathogens and antimicrobial activity of parental drugs at numerous medical centers in the United States. I. Study on the threat of emerging resistances, real or perceived? Diagn Microbial Infect Dis 1994; 19: 203–15.
- 36. Osterhalm MT, MacDonald MK. Antibiotic-resistant bugs: when, where and why? Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol 1995; **16**: 382–4.
- 37. Jones RN. The emergent needs for basic research, education and surveillance of antimicrobial resistance. Diagn Microbial Infect Dis 1996; 25: 1–9.