

Prevalence and antimicrobial susceptibility pattern of *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* in Kumasi, Ghana

Abstract

Background: In most African countries, including Ghana, treatment of the *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* infection is based on syndromic management owing to lack of laboratory equipment and resources in primary care facilities where most patients first visit. The aim of this study was to determine the prevalence of *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* and evaluate its susceptibility pattern to standard antimicrobials used for empirical treatment of the infection in patients that attended Ellolab Diagnostic Centre at Kumasi from November 2014 to July 2017.

Methods: Four hundred and twenty-seven (427) clinical specimen from suspected patients were cultured on chocolate agar. Positive cultures were tested for resistance against twelve antimicrobial agents using the disk diffusion method.

Results: *N. gonorrhoeae* was recovered from 117 clinical samples representing an overall prevalence of 27.4%, of which 39.3% and 60.7% occurred in males and females respectively. Maximum cases were observed in the 16-24 age group. Interestingly, the organism showed high levels of resistance to the nationally recommended drugs for first-line empirical treatment (ceftriaxone 85.5%, ciprofloxacin 46.2%). Amikacin was the least resisted (1.7%).

Conclusion: The local susceptibility trends of *N. gonorrhoeae* need to be monitored closely in order to establish appropriate local empirical therapy.

23 **Keyword:** *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*, Antimicrobial agents, sexually transmitted Infection,
24 Prevalence

25 **Abbreviations:** STI: Sexually transmitted infection; PID: Pelvic inflammatory disease;
26 MDR: Multidrug-resistant; ESC: Extended-spectrum cephalosporin; PBP: penicillin binding
27 protein.

28

29 **Introduction**

30 Gonorrhea is the second most common bacterial sexually transmitted infection (STI) and is
31 caused by *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*, a gram negative intracellular diplococcus [1]. This infection
32 usually affects multiple mucosal sites including those of the lower genital tract such as
33 urethra, cervix, Bartholin's glands, and Skene's glands as well as the anorectal canal,
34 pharynx, and conjunctivae [2]. It could spread further from the lower genital tract to the
35 upper genital tract, uterine tubes, and peritoneal cavity as well as other important systemic
36 sites [3]. Humans happen to be the only natural host [4]. *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* has gained
37 global attention over the years because of therapy failures due to increasing multi-drug
38 resistance [5]. In most African countries, including Ghana, treatment of the infection is based
39 on syndromic management due to lack of laboratory equipment and resources in primary
40 health care facilities which serve as the first point of call for people suspected of the infection
41 [6]. Treatment failure could result in the development of serious complications [7] such as
42 women being at risk of developing pelvic inflammatory disease (PID), urethritis, cervicitis
43 and Fitz-Hugh-Curtis syndrome [8,9]. Untreated pregnant women can even pass this infection
44 to their babies during delivery and can result in neonatal conjunctivitis which when left
45 untreated, may lead to blindness [10]. Infected males may present with symptoms that appear
46 two to five days post infection and is often accompanied by painful sensation when urinating

47 and purulent discharge from the urethra. Untreated gonorrhea in men can result in
 48 epididymitis and infertility [11, 12]. Treatment failure as a result of antimicrobial resistance
 49 has become global health nemesis due to widespread multi drug resistance [13].
 50 Unfortunately, the emergence of multidrug-resistant (MDR) *N. gonorrhoeae* strains in Africa
 51 is met with under-resourced STI control programmes, as funds and technical expertise are
 52 being directed to other public health priorities, such as HIV/AIDS, hepatitis, and tuberculosis
 53 [14]. Antimicrobial therapy forms a significant part of treatment in Ghana. In the case of
 54 gonorrhea and other STIs, most physicians tend to rely on empirical treatment due to lack of
 55 appropriate laboratory facilities for culture and sensitivity testing of the bacteria, coupled
 56 with the fact that the patient bears the cost of the laboratory services, and in quite a number of
 57 instances, culture and sensitivity tests may not be requested at all. The use of antimicrobials
 58 is very rift among the general populace. This is attributable to easy access to over-the-counter
 59 drugs, physicians prescribing antibiotics when they are not needed and/or prescribing for
 60 outpatients, the wrong antibiotics such as the extended spectrum agents for the treatment of
 61 viral, parasitic and other non-bacterial pathogens without ordering for laboratory tests to
 62 confirm the etiology of the disease [15]. Others incorporate antibiotics to traditional or herbal
 63 drugs or concoction for remedy. All these have contributed to the development of resistant
 64 strains of the bacteria [16]. Although gonococcal resistance has been reported worldwide,
 65 surveillance data in most African countries are few or absent which allow the infection to go
 66 unnoticed. This study aimed at bringing to the fore relevant data and information to help
 67 monitor and evaluate the rapid pattern of change of antimicrobial susceptibility and resistance
 68 because of their implication for public health.

69

70

Materials and Method

Area of study

The study was carried out at Ellolab Diagnostic Centre, Kumasi Ghana, a health facility which also serves as a referral center for many physicians in the Kumasi metropolis and beyond. Clinical specimens were collected from October 2014 to July 2017.

Specimen collection and processing

Clinical symptoms like dysuria, urethritis and painful urination, penile and vaginal discharge of whitish coloration and characteristic odor and appearance (-thick viscous, mucoid,) were routinely inquired to suspect the infection. Discharge specimens from the urethra (male), vaginal (female) were collected from patients early in the morning under strict aseptic conditions. A sterile swab was used to collect the specimen and subsequently inoculated on chocolate agar. The inoculum and agar were then incubated at 37°C enriched with CO₂ for 24-36 hours. Positive bacterial growth was established and Gram-stained, and examined under a light microscope (Olympus CX 22, Japan) for the presence of Gram-negative diplococci. Relevant biochemical tests were carried out to confirm the culture and microscopic results. The disc diffusion antimicrobial sensitivity test was subsequently done for the positive cultures using antimicrobial sensitivity discs on Mueller Hinton agar (Oxoid Ltd). Antimicrobial discs tested against the positive isolates were ampicillin (10U), cefuroxime (30µg), ceftriaxone (30µg), tetracycline (30µg), erythromycin (15µg), amikacin (10µg), gentamicin (15µg), ciprofloxacin (5µg), cefotaxime (30µg), levofloxacin (25µg), cotrimoxazole, chloramphenicol (30µg) (Oxoid Ltd). *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* strain ATCC 49226 was used as a control. Antimicrobial susceptibility results were interpreted as susceptible >20, intermediate 15-19, and resistant ≤ 14 using the standard table supplied by the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute [17]. There were no ethical matters

concerned with this study, as results from routine laboratory diagnosis of clinical samples constituted the data for analysis; no particular identifiable group of patients were involved and their individual identities could not be traced.

Statistical Analysis

Data were analyzed using statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 21. The data were analyzed using Chi-square (χ^2) and proportion tests. Chi-square test was applied to test whether significant association exists between *Neisseria* infection and variables under study. P values < 0.05 were considered statistically significant. Mantel-Haenzel common odds ratio was used to estimate the resistance among gender.

Results

Demographic characteristics

A total of 427 cases were evaluated for gonorrhoea at Ellolab Diagnostic Centre. Minimum age, maximum age and mean age were 16, 71 and 30 respectively, with standard deviation being 9.56. Of the 427 cases, 117 suspected patients were confirmed positive for gonococcal infection while 310 were negative. Of the 117 positive cases, the minimum age was 18 and the maximum age was 63. Mean age and standard deviation were 31 and 10.137 respectively.

Prevalence of *N. gonorrhoeae*

The overall prevalence of *N. gonorrhoeae* infection was 27.4% (Table 1). Proportion test showed that this value was significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) than the previously recorded prevalent rates for Ghana, 0.6%. Though the prevalence in females (28.3%) was found to be higher, it was not significantly different from that of males (26.1%) [$z = 1.11$, $p = 0.291$, $p > 0.05$]. The age group 16-24 recorded the highest frequency of cases whereas the least came from age group 45 and above cohort (Table 2). Of the 117 positive cases of *N. gonorrhoeae* infection, 46 (39.3%) were males whereas 71 (60.7%) were females (Table 2).

128 **Resistance pattern of the national protocol drugs**135 **Discussion**

6

143 men with a sensitivity > 90% in symptomatic men, a sensitivity of 50-75% in asymptomatic
144 men, and a specificity of > 90% for both symptomatic and asymptomatic female[21, 22].
145 Bacterial cultures for *N. gonorrhoeae* has a test specificity of more than 99% [21] and a
146 sensitivity of 85-95% for urethral and endocervical infection [23]. Unlike the nucleic acid
147 amplification test (NAATs), it allows for antimicrobial susceptibility testing. NAAT
148 specificity (96.1 to 99.85%) is slightly lower than bacterial culture, usually resulting in
149 slightly higher risk of false positive results [23, 24]. These factors informed the decision to use
150 both microscopy and bacterial culture methods of diagnosis in this study.

151 The overall prevalence of *N. gonorrhoeae* in this study was significantly high compared to
152 earlier studies conducted in Ghana which reported a prevalence of 0.6%; [25] 6.0% by
153 culture and 18% by NAAT ($p < 0.05$) [26]. The present study thus underscores the
154 progressive prevalence of the bacteria and possibly reflects the true state of gonorrhea in
155 Ghana. The relatively high prevalence in this study possibly reflects the true state of
156 gonorrhea in Ghana, considering the relatively longer duration of this study (November 2014-
157 July 2017). The prevalence of this study was however, lower than what was reported in Port
158 Elizabeth, South Africa, where 35 out of 80 swab samples were found to be positive for *N.*
159 *gonorrhoeae* infection [27].

160 Maximum number of cases in this study were observed among the age group 16-24. This may
161 be attributed to the fact that this cohort is sexually active and easily engage in casual and
162 unsafe sex, and lack the knowledge to detect early disease symptoms. Whereas other
163 researchers in Ghana [28] identified male gender as a significant predictor for gonorrhea in
164 their study, in this study, the highest prevalence was recorded in females, and there was no
165 significant statistical association between gender and prevalence of the bacteria nor
166 significant differences between the prevalence rates of males and females. The high
167 prevalence in females may be due to the asymptomatic manifestations in women and also a

higher chance of seeking medication or other treatment by men compared to women since symptoms manifest early in males [29]. This may be supported by the fact that the resistance to ciprofloxacin (which is orally administered, easy to access over the counter and routinely prescribed by clinicians) was significant in males than females in our study. There was no association in the observed prevalence and resistance to ceftriaxone and gentamicin because both are administered intramuscular and thus restricted to hospital use, confirming the fact that, unregulated usage of a particular antimicrobial agent could lead to antimicrobial resistance in the agent. [29]

All the isolates were resistant to at least three of the antimicrobial agents used, representing a multi-drug resistance of 100%. The high level of resistance to ampicillin, tetracycline and erythromycin observed in this study has also been reported elsewhere [27, 28, 30-32]. Erythromycin and tetracycline are the recommended drugs for the treatment of chlamydial infections, [33] and most cases of gonorrhea also present with chlamydial co-infection. However, since syndromic diagnosis does not differentiate between gonorrhea and chlamydial infection, patients with gonococcal infections are exposed to this group of drugs, [27, 34] because, the national standard protocol for the treatment of chlamydia requires that these drugs are administered for 7 days [35]. This eventually exerts selective pressure on strains of *N. gonorrhoeae* that leads to mutations in key genes [27, 32]. The high level of resistance to penicillin and penicillin-derivatives such as ampicillin and tetracycline in the last two decades has made these antimicrobial agents obsolete as a treatment option for gonococcal infection [36]. Therefore, the high level of resistance to these drugs recorded in this study was expected.

Low level of susceptibility to fluoroquinolones was quite similar to another study in Ethiopia [31]. In addition, the resistance to Ciprofloxacin observed in the study confirms an earlier one carried out in Ghana where all the isolates demonstrated resistant to ciprofloxacin [28].

193 Remarkably, resistance to ciprofloxacin was significantly associated with gender (CI =95%,
194 p- value=0.025, OR=2.933, CI=1.146-7.507). This is of great concern because ciprofloxacin
195 is recommended in the national protocol as first-line treatment option. Reports from South
196 Africa indicate that ciprofloxacin is no longer used to treat presumptive gonococcal infections
197 in the country [37]. Additionally, *N. Gonorrheae* resistance to ciprofloxacin greater than 50%
198 has been reported in other parts of the world, [27, 30, 38] suggesting a widespread resistance.

199 The efficiency of extended-spectrum cephalosporins (ESCs) for the treatment of gonococcal
200 infections has been described by many studies [28, 31, 32, 39] yet, recent studies have
201 reported a continuing decreased susceptibility to ceftriaxone and cefixime [40]. This study
202 also recorded a high level of resistance to this class of drugs, confirming this alarming
203 development. Mutant mosaic penicillin binding protein (PBP) 2 alleles have been noted to be
204 the elemental resistance determinant to ESCs [41]. A non-mosaic PBP IX allele containing
205 P551L substitution has also been associated with increased MICs for ESCs [40]. This
206 overwhelming resistant rate may be due to the sporadic, indiscriminate and intense
207 prescription and use of these drugs, easy availability outside the hospitals, and many
208 antimicrobials over the counter for self-medication.

209 The aminoglycosides are both bacteriostatic and bactericidal agents that exert their activity by
210 irreversibly binding to the 30S ribosomal proteins thereby inhibiting bacterial protein
211 synthesis [42]. Two of this class of drugs used in this study were amikacin and gentamicin.
212 Amikacin recorded the least resistance and compares favorably with WHO threshold of 5%.
213 The possible explanation is that the drug is expensive and not easily available outside the
214 hospitals. This drug may be novel for treatment or used as second line treatment options for
215 gonorrhea. The only drawback is the fact that it is very expensive and associated with high
216 toxicity. The number of isolates susceptible to gentamicin was higher than ceftriaxone but
217 same as ciprofloxacin. Nevertheless, resistance to gentamicin was lower over the study period

compared to the ciprofloxacin and ceftriaxone. These two drugs are very important because they are the national protocol drug for gonococcal infection. Statistically, significant difference was observed in the resistance between gentamicin and ceftriaxone (z value=11.06, $p < 0.05$), and gentamicin and ciprofloxacin (z value =3.04, $p < 0.05$). Gonococci isolates have been observed to have a high susceptibility to gentamicin *in vivo* in Malawi, with a clinical cure rates of approximately 95% when used in combination with doxycycline [41,43,44]. Hence, possibly, a little increase in the dosage may produce a greater susceptibility in the bacteria when used as a single dose therapy or when combined with doxycycline, and therefore might exhibit similar potency as Amikacin with few side effects and cost. To this end, gentamicin can be used in place of the national protocol drugs ciprofloxacin and ceftriaxone which are fast losing their potency against *N. gonorrhoeae*.

Conclusion

This study has revealed a relatively high prevalence for gonococcal infection in presumptive patients in Kumasi, Ghana. Furthermore, the age group 16-24 and females were the most affected cohorts and therefore could be considered as high-risk groups. The recovered isolates demonstrated high resistance to the available antimicrobial agents recommended in the national protocol for empirical treatment. Notwithstanding, more than half of the isolates were either susceptible or slightly sensitive to gentamicin. Gentamicin is therefore the appropriate agent to be used as a substitute to the nationally recommended protocol drugs, since the most potent drug amikacin is usually associated with high level of toxicity. Additionally, unless antimicrobial susceptibility test is carried out, the following drugs ampicillin, tetracycline, erythromycin, chloramphenicol, levofloxacin, cotrimoxazole, cefuroxime, ceftriaxone, cefotaxime, and ciprofloxacin should not be used for the treatment of gonococcal infection in Ghana.

242 **Table 1. Prevalence of *N.gonorrheae* infection among the gender.**

	n (total)	Prevalence	p-value
Male	46 (176)	26.1%	>0.005
Female	71(251)	28.3%	
Total	117(427)	27.4%	

243

244 **Table 2. Distribution of *N. gonorrheae* among the age group**

Age group	Male n (%)	Female n (%)	Total
16-24	13(11.1%)	26(22.2)	39
25-34	16(13.7%)	21(17.9%)	37
35-44	13(11.1%)	18(15.4%)	31
45 and above	4(3.4%)	6(5.1%)	10

245

246 **Table 3. Antimicrobial susceptibility of *N. gonorrheae* to standard antimicrobials.**

Antibiotic	Susceptible n(%)	Moderate n(%)	Resistant n(%)
Erythromycin	0(0)	1(0.9)	116(99.1)
Tetracycline	0(0)	7(6.0)	110(94.0)
Amikacin	114(97.4)	1(0.9)	2(1.7)
Chloramphenicol	2(1.7)	16(13.7)	99(84.6)
Cefuroxime	3(2.6)	7(6.0)	107(91.4)
Ceftriaxone	7(6.0)	10(8.5)	100(85.5)
Ciprofloxacin	30(25.6)	33(28.2)	54(46.2)
Gentamicin	24(20.5)	61(52.1)	32(27.4)
Cefotaxime	3(2.6)	8(6.8)	106(90.6)
Ampicillin	5(4.3)	4(3.4)	108(92.3)

Cotrimoxazole	1(0.9)	11(9.4)	105(89.7)
Levofloxacin	12(10.2)	29(24.8)	76(65.0)

Table 4. Mantel-Haenzel common odds ratio estimate of resistance among gender.

M-H Common Odds Ratio					
Gender	Antibiotic	Estimate	95%CI		p-value
			Lower limit	Upper limit	
Male /Female	Ceftriaxone	0.600	0.196	1.832	0.369
	Ciprofloxacin	3.124	1.425*	6.848*	0.004*
	Gentamicin	0.928	0.405	2.126	0.859

Ho: there is no association between the prevalence of *N. gonorrhoeae* and occurrence of resistance among the gender. Hi: there is a relationship between the two variables.

*=statistically significant

Table 5. Proportion of resistance of gentamicin to ciprofloxacin and ceftriaxone and Ceftriaxone to ciprofloxacin.

Antibiotics		Estimate for difference	p-value
Gentamicin	Ciprofloxacin	-0.188	0.002*
	Ceftriaxone	-0.581	0.000*
Ceftriaxone	Ciprofloxacin	0.393	0.000*

*=statistically significant

259 **Reference**

- 260 1. Duncan ME, Tibaus G, Pelzer A, Mehari L, Peutherer J, Young H, Jamil Y, Darougar
261 S, Lind I, Reimann K. Prevalence and significance of sexually transmitted diseases
262 among Ethiopian women attending antenatal clinics in Addis Ababa. The Ethiopian
263 Journal of Health Development (EJHD). 2017; 9(1).
- 264 2. de Voux A, Kirkcaldy RD. Gonococcal Infections. In: Sexually Transmitted
265 Infections in HIV-Infected Adults and Special Populations. Springer; 2017; 69-88.
- 266 3. Dragic M, Posteraro P, Marani C, Natale ME, Vecchioni A, Sanguinetti M, de Waure
267 C, Posteraro B. Assessment of Chlamydia trachomatis, Neisseria gonorrhoeae, and
268 Mycobacterium tuberculosis infections in women undergoing laparoscopy: the role of
269 peritoneal fluid sampling. Microbiologia Medica. 2016; 31(4).
- 270 4. Semchenko EA, Seib KL. Intractable problems require novel solutions: it's time to get
271 serious about developing a gonorrhoea vaccine. BMJ Publishing Group Ltd. 2016.
- 272 5. Olofsson M. Microbiological Surveillance in Primary Health Care. 2016.
- 273 6. Feglo P, Opoku S. AmpC beta-lactamase production among Pseudomonas aeruginosa
274 and Proteus mirabilis isolates at the Komfo Anokye Teaching Hospital, Kumasi,
275 Ghana. Journal of Microbiology and Antimicrobials. 2014; 6(1):13-20.
- 276 7. Unemo M, Shafer WM. Antimicrobial resistance in Neisseria gonorrhoeae in the 21st
277 century: past, evolution, and future. Clinical microbiology reviews 2014; 27(3):587-
278 613.
- 279 8. Brunham RC, Gottlieb SL, Paavonen J. Pelvic inflammatory disease. New England
280 Journal of Medicine. 2015; 372(21):2039-2048.
- 281 9. Tiplica G-S, Tschachler E: Venereal Disease II: Chlamydia trachomatis Infection,
282 Gonorrhoea. Antibiotic and Antifungal Therapies in Dermatology. 2016; 69-80.
- 283 10. Strominger MB. Ocular Infection in Children. The Infected Eye. 2016; 177-196.

- 284 11. Gimenes F, Souza RP, Bento JC, Teixeira JJ, Maria-Engler SS, Bonini MG,
285 Consolaro ME. Male infertility: a public health issue caused by sexually transmitted
286 pathogens. *Nature Reviews Urology*. 2014; 11(12):672-687.
- 287 12. Skerlev M, Čulav-Košćak I: Gonorrhea: new challenges. *Clinics in dermatology*.
288 2014; 32(2):275-281.
- 289 13. Baquero F, Lanza VF, Cantón R, Coque TM. Public health evolutionary biology of
290 antimicrobial resistance: priorities for intervention. *Evolutionary applications*. 2015;
291 8(3):223-239.
- 292 14. Marshall B, Crowder R: *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*: Another “ticking time bomb?”. 2014.
- 293 15. Graft A, Joseph J, Joshi N, Paarmann E, Ruchismita R. *Health Horizons 2021*:
294 *Emerging Opportunities for Social Entrepreneurs In India*. 2014.
- 295 16. Blair JM, Webber MA, Baylay AJ, Ogbolu DO, Piddock LJ. Molecular mechanisms
296 of antibiotic resistance. *Nature reviews Microbiology* 2015; 13(1):42.
- 297 17. Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute: *Performance Standards For Antimicrobial*
298 *Susceptibility Testing*. 23rd Informational Supplement. Clinical and Laboratory
299 Standards Institute M100-S23. 2013; (33)1
- 300 18. Sylverken AA, Owusu-Dabo E, Yar DD, Salifu SP, Awua-Boateng NY, Amuasi JH,
301 Okyere PB, Agyarko-Poku T. Bacterial etiology of sexually transmitted infections at a
302 STI clinic in Ghana; use of multiplex real time PCR. *Ghana medical journal* 2016;
303 50(3):142-148.
- 304 19. Satterwhite CL, Torrone E, Meites E, Dunne EF, Mahajan R, Ocfemia MCB, Su J, Xu
305 F, Weinstock H. Sexually transmitted infections among US women and men:
306 prevalence and incidence estimates, 2008. *Sexually Transmitted Diseases*. 2013;
307 40(3):187-193.

- 308 20. Parvathi M, Prasad PG, Lavanya G, Priya YS, Naldeega R. Study of incidence of
309 gonorrhoea in reproductive age group women with Leucorrhoea attending STI clinic.
310 Journal of Evolution of Medical and Dental Sciences-Jemds. 2015; 4(99):16470-
311 16472.
- 312 21. Papp JR, Schachter J, Gaydos CA, Van Der Pol B. Recommendations for the
313 laboratory-based detection of Chlamydia trachomatis and Neisseria gonorrhoeae—
314 2014. MMWR Recommendations and reports: Morbidity and mortality weekly report
315 Recommendations and reports/Centers for Disease Control. 2014; 63:1.
- 316 22. Bignell C, Unemo M, Board ESGE. 2012 European guideline on the diagnosis and
317 treatment of gonorrhoea in adults. International journal of STD & AIDS. 2013;
318 24(2):85-92.
- 319 23. WHO guidelines for the treatment of Neisseria gonorrhoeae. 2016.
- 320 24. Allen VG, Seah C, Martin I, Melano RG. Azithromycin resistance is coevolving with
321 reduced susceptibility to cephalosporins in Neisseria gonorrhoeae in Ontario, Canada.
322 Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy. 2014; 58(5):2528-2534.
- 323 25. Fonseca TM, Cesar JA, Mendoza-Sassi RA, Schmidt EB. Corrimento Vaginal
324 Patológico Entre Gestantes: Padrão De Ocorrência E De Associação Em Um Estudo
325 De Base Populacional No Extremo Sul Do Brasil. Processos educativos emergentes
326 da relação médico-paciente sobre DST e a autopercepção de risco entre gestantes
327 2014;67.
- 328 26. Ndwanja TW. Attitudes and behaviors of South African women and psychosocial
329 determinants of gonorrhea. Walden University. 2015.
- 330 27. Govender S, Lebani T, Nell R. Antibiotic susceptibility patterns of Neisseria
331 gonorrhoeae isolates in Port Elizabeth. South African Medical Journal. 2006;
332 96(3):225-226.

- 333 28. Duplessis C, Puplampu N, Nyarko E, Carroll J, Dela H, Mensah A, Amponsah A,
334 Sanchez J: Gonorrhea Surveillance in Ghana, Africa. *Military medicine*. 2015;
335 180(1):17-22.
- 336 29. Acheampong DO, Opoku R, Boye A, Agyirifo SD, Dadzie I, Barnie AP, Kwakye-
337 Nuako G, and Nyandzi F. Diagnosis and Treatment Outcome of Smear Positive
338 Pulmonary Tuberculosis: Retrospective study in Kpando Municipal, Ghana. *JAMMR*
339 2018; 25(9): 1-11.
- 340 30. Azizmohammadi S, Azizmohammadi S; Antimicrobial susceptibility pattern of
341 *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* isolated from fertile and infertile women. *Tropical Journal of*
342 *Pharmaceutical Research*. 2016; 15(12):2653-2657.
- 343 31. Hailemariam M, Abebe T, Mihret A, Lambiyo T. Prevalence of *Neisseria gonorrhea*
344 and their antimicrobial susceptibility patterns among symptomatic women attending
345 gynecology outpatient department in Hawassa Referral Hospital, Hawassa, Ethiopia.
346 *Ethiopian journal of health sciences*. 2013; 23(1):10-18.
- 347 32. Moodley P, Pillay C, Goga R, Kharsany AB, Sturm AW. Evolution in the trends of
348 antimicrobial resistance in *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* isolated in Durban over a 5 year
349 period: impact of the introduction of syndromic management. *Journal of*
350 *Antimicrobial Chemotherapy*. 2001; 48(6):853-859.
- 351 33. Chang H-H, Cohen T, Grad YH, Hanage WP, O'Brien TF, Lipsitch M. Origin and
352 proliferation of multiple-drug resistance in bacterial pathogens. *Microbiology and*
353 *Molecular Biology Reviews*. 2015; 79(1):101-116.
- 354 34. Dangor Y, De Jongh M, Adam A, Hoosen A. Antimicrobial susceptibility patterns of
355 gonococcal isolates in Pretoria, South Africa, over a 20-year period (1984-2004).
356 *Southern African Journal of Epidemiology and Infection*. 2010; 25(3):10-13.

- 357 35. Vickerman P, Watts C, Alary M, Mabey D, Peeling R. Sensitivity requirements for
358 the point of care diagnosis of *Chlamydia trachomatis* and *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* in
359 women. *Sexually Transmitted Infections*. 2003; 79(5):363-367.
- 360 36. Adonizio AL. Anti-quorum sensing agents from South Florida medicinal plants and
361 their attenuation of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* pathogenicity. Florida International
362 University. 2008.
- 363 37. Lewis DA. Antimicrobial-resistant gonorrhoea in Africa: an important public health
364 threat in need of a regional gonococcal antimicrobial surveillance programme:
365 Festschrift. *Southern African Journal of Epidemiology and Infection*. 2011;
366 26(4):215-220.
- 367 38. Chen Y, Gong Y, Yang T, Song X, Li J, Gan Y, Yin X, Lu Z. Antimicrobial
368 resistance in *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* in China: a meta-analysis. *BMC Infectious*
369 *Diseases*. 2016; 16(1):108.
- 370 39. Control CfD, Prevention: Recommendations for the laboratory-based detection of
371 *Chlamydia trachomatis* and *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*--2014. *MMWR Recommendations*
372 *and reports: Morbidity and mortality weekly report Recommendations and reports*
373 2014; 63(RR-02):1.
- 374 40. Gianecini R, Oviedo C, Stafforini G, Galarza P. *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* resistant to
375 ceftriaxone and cefixime, Argentina. *Emerging Infectious Diseases* 2016; 22(6):1139.
- 376 41. Hathorn E, Dhasmana D, Duley L, Ross JD. The effectiveness of gentamicin in the
377 treatment of *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*: a systematic review. *Systematic Reviews* 2014;
378 3(1):104.
- 379 42. Lara HH, Ayala-Núñez NV, Turrent LdCI, Padilla CR: Bactericidal effect of silver
380 nanoparticles against multidrug-resistant bacteria. *World Journal of Microbiology and*
381 *Biotechnology* 2010; 26(4):615-621.

- 382 43. Brown LB, Krysiak R, Kamanga G, Mapanje C, Kanyamula H, Banda B, Mhango C,
383 Hoffman M, Kamwendo D, Hobbs M. *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* antimicrobial
384 susceptibility in Lilongwe, Malawi, 2007. Sexually Transmitted Diseases. 2010;
385 37(3):169-172.
- 386 44. Lule G, Behets F, Hoffman I, Dallabetta G, Hamilton H, Moeng S, Liomba G, Cohen
387 M. STD/HIV control in Malawi and the search for affordable and effective urethritis
388 therapy: a first field evaluation. Sexually Transmitted Infections. 1994; 70(6):384-
389 388.