# A 20-year trend of prevalence and susceptibility to trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole of *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* in a single secondary care hospital in Korea

Je Eun Song, PhD<sup>a</sup>, Sollip Kim, PhD<sup>b</sup>, Yee Gyung Kwak, PhD<sup>a</sup>, Sunghwan Shin, MD<sup>c</sup>, Tae-Hyun Um, PhD<sup>c</sup>, Chong Rae Cho, PhD<sup>c</sup>, Jeonghyun Chang, PhD<sup>c,\*</sup>

#### Abstract

Stenotrophomonas maltophilia is a Gram-negative opportunistic pathogen that can cause serious infection. We aimed to analyze the prevalence and susceptibility rates to trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole of *S. maltophilia*. We conducted a retrospective study of *S. maltophilia* isolates from a university hospital from 2001 to 2020. Clinical information, the numbers of isolates and susceptibility rates were analyzed by year. Susceptibility rates and changes in respiratory and non-respiratory samples were compared. 1805 *S. maltophilia* isolates were identified, of which 81.4% (1469/1805) were from respiratory samples. There was a male predominance and 52% of the isolates were from general wards. The average susceptibility rate was 87.7% and there was no significant annual trend (P = .519). The susceptibility rate was 88.7% in respiratory samples and 84.1% in non-respiratory samples (P = .018). Susceptibility analyses using clinical data over long periods can guide the choice of antimicrobials especially for pathogen whose treatment options are limited.

Abbreviations: MIC = minimal inhibitory concentration, TMP/SMX = trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole.

Keywords: antimicrobials, epidemiology, Stenotrophomonas maltophilia, susceptibility, trend, trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole

# 1. Introduction

Stenotrophomonas maltophilia is a Gram-negative, obligate aerobic, non-fermentative, ubiquitous bacillus.[1] It was first isolated as Bacterium bookeri in 1943 and later named Pseudomonas maltophilia in 1963 by Hugh et al,<sup>[2]</sup> Xanthomonas maltophilia in 1983 by Swings et al using rRNA cistron analysis,<sup>[3]</sup> and then S. maltophilia in 1993 (the current name) by Palleroni and Bradbury.<sup>[4]</sup> S. maltophilia can cause various human infections, including pneumonia, bacteremia, soft tissue infection, osteomyelitis, meningitis, keratitis, endocarditis, and urinary tract infection.<sup>[5]</sup> This pathogen causes high morbidity and mortality in immunocompromised patients with HIV infection, malignancy, and cystic fibrosis, especially as a hospital-acquired pathogen.<sup>[6]</sup> Trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole (TMP/SMX) is the treatment of choice for S. maltophilia infections.<sup>[7]</sup> Recently, there are many treatment options and some infections caused by S. maltophilia are treated by combination of TMP/SMX and fluoroquinolone.<sup>[5]</sup> Ticarcillin-clavulanate has been used as an alternative therapy to TMP/SMX because of the emergence of resistance to TMP/SMX.<sup>[5]</sup> Combination therapies using tigecycline and TMP/SMX, tigecycline and amikacin, and other combinations of antimicrobial agents have been also

The authors have no funding and conflicts of interest to disclose.

The datasets generated during and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

\* Correspondence: Jeonghyun Chang, Department of Laboratory Medicine, Inje University Ilsan Paik Hospital, 170, Juhwa-ro, Ilsanseo-gu, Goyang-si, Gyeonggi-do 10380, Republic of Korea (e-mail: chang@paik.ac.kr).

Copyright © 2023 the Author(s). Published by Wolters Kluwer Health, Inc.

proposed and used for treatment of *S. maltophilia* infection.<sup>[5]</sup> *S. maltophilia* shows intrinsic resistance to various antibiotics, including  $\beta$ -lactams, aminoglycosides, fosfomycin, tetracycline, and meropenem,<sup>[8]</sup> which makes treatment difficult for clinicians. Therefore, TMP/SMX is still very important and critical drug for treatment of infection caused by *S. maltophilia*. Recent data from other countries show *S. maltophilia* being emerged as an important nosocomial pathogen. Moreover, several studies reported that *S. maltophilia* has increasing resistance to TMP/SMX,<sup>[5,9,10]</sup> making it difficult to determine the best antibiotics to control hospital-acquired infection, including 2 Korean studies.<sup>[11,12]</sup> Here, we analyzed trends in the susceptibility of *S. maltophilia* to TMP/ SMX over the past 20 years. Because the majority of *S. maltophilia* is isolated from respiratory samples, we also compared respiratory samples with other sample types.

Medicine

# 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Study design and data collection

This retrospective study was conducted in a 642-bed university-affiliated hospital from January 2001 to December 2020.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/MD.000000000032704

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Inje University Ilsan Paik Hospital, Infectious Diseases, Internal Medicine, Goyang, Republic of Korea, <sup>b</sup> Asan Medical Center, University of Ulsan College of Medicine, Department of Laboratory Medicine, Seoul, Republic of Korea, <sup>c</sup> Department of Laboratory Medicine, Inje University Ilsan Paik Hospital, Goyang, Republic of Korea.

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Non Commercial License 4.0 (CCBY-NC), where it is permissible to download, share, remix, transform, and buildup the work provided it is properly cited. The work cannot be used commercially without permission from the journal.

How to cite this article: Song JE, Kim S, Kwak YG, Shin S, Um T-H, Cho CR, Chang J. A 20-year trend of prevalence and susceptibility to trimethoprim/ sulfamethoxazole of Stenotrophomonas maltophilia in a single secondary care hospital in Korea. Medicine 2023;102:4(e32704).

Received: 1 November 2022 / Received in final form: 28 December 2022 / Accepted: 29 December 2022

This hospital is located in Ilsan, Gyeonggi Province, South Korea. S. maltophilia from clinical isolates was included. S. maltophilia isolates from non-duplicate clinical samples were retrospectively acquired from the laboratory records complied during the study period. Identification and antimicrobial susceptibility testing were performed with the Vitek 2 automated identification and antimicrobial susceptibility system (bioMérieux, Marcy-L'Étoile, France) as described in the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) M100 guidelines.<sup>[8]</sup> The date of sample reception, sample type, and minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) data for TMP/SMX of S. maltophilia-positive samples were acquired. The institutional review board of Inje University Ilsan Paik Hospital approved this study (IRB number: ISPAIK NON2021-002) and waived the need for informed consent because the study did not use any human tissue samples. The study was performed according to the principles of the Declaration of Helsinki.

### 2.2. Susceptibility analysis

Susceptibility rate and sample type were analyzed by year using Microsoft Excel 2013 (Microsoft Corp., Redmond, WA) and WHONET 5.6 (available from http://whonet.org/software.html). Microbiology positive results were collected from the laboratory information system, and then only those corresponding to *S. maltophilia* were sorted. Identification and susceptibility test were performed by automated system and susceptibility criteria for the MIC of TMP/SMX were in accordance with CLSI guideline M100.<sup>[8]</sup> According to CLSI, isolates are susceptible when MIC to TMP/SMX are 2/38 or less, and resistant when MIC to TMP/SMX are 4/76 or more.<sup>[8]</sup> The number of isolates, susceptibility rate, and sample types during the study period were analyzed, and annual trends in the susceptibility rate were calculated.

# 2.3. Comparison between respiratory and non-respiratory groups

The clinical specimens were divided into respiratory and non-respiratory groups to compare the susceptibility rate. Respiratory samples included sputum, bronchial or tracheal aspirates, and pleural fluid. For sputum samples, isolates grown only in grade 4 or 5 were identified and undergone antimicrobial susceptibility test. The remaining sample types were grouped as non-respiratory samples, including urine, blood, pus, catheter, bile, body fluid, skin, tissue, and wound swabs. The number of isolates and susceptibility rate, for the entire period and for each year, were calculated; those for respiratory and non-respiratory samples were then compared.

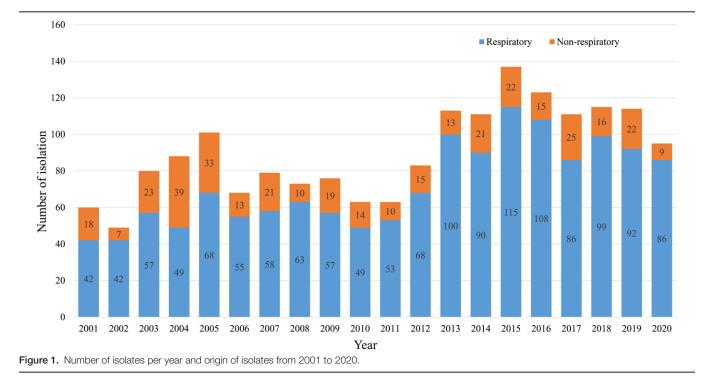
#### 2.4. Statistical analysis

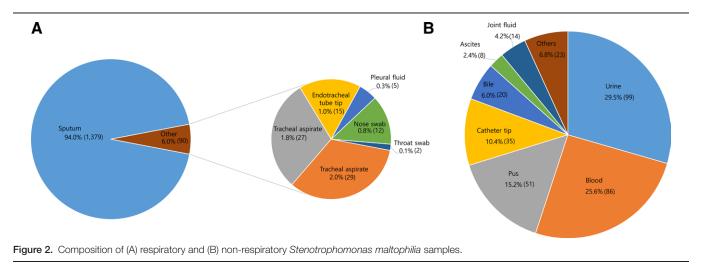
SPSS for Windows (ver. 25.0; IBM Corp., Armonk, NY) was used for all statistical analyses. Categorical variables were analyzed using the chi-square test or Fisher's exact test, as appropriate. Continuous variables were analyzed using an independent sample *t* test or the Mann–Whitney *U* test. For trend analysis of susceptibility rates during the study period, the linear by linear association test was used. A 2-tailed *P* value < .05 was considered significant.

### 3. Results

## 3.1. Prevalence of S. maltophilia

During the 20-year period, 1805 *S. maltophilia* isolates were identified. The mean number of isolates was  $90.15 \pm 24.4$ / year (range: 49–138/year). The highest number of *S. maltophilia* specimens in a single year was 137, in 2015, and the lowest number was 50, in 2002. The number of isolates per year was < 100 between 2001 and 2012, but has exceeded 100 cases per year since 2013 (Fig. 1). Overall, 81.4% of the isolates (1469/1805) were from respiratory samples and 18.6% (336/1805) were from non-respiratory samples (Fig. 2). The most common respiratory tract sample type was sputum (93.9%, 1379/1469), while the most common non-respiratory sample was urine (29.5%, 99/336), followed by blood (25.6%, 86/336), pus (15.2%, 51/336), and catheter tip (10.4%, 35/336) (Fig. 2).





# 3.2. Comparison of S. maltophilia isolated from respiratory and non-respiratory samples

There was no significant difference in gender ratio between the 2 groups. There was a higher proportion of men than of women (1205 [66.8%] vs 600 [33.2%]) in both groups. The mean patient age was  $65.02 \pm 21.01$  years; it was significantly higher in the respiratory group ( $67.72 \pm 19.03$  vs  $53.24 \pm 24.86$  years) (Table 1). At the time of isolation, patients were most likely to be admitted to a general ward (52% [938/1805]: 52.1% [766/1469] and 51.2% [172/336] from the respiratory and non-respiratory groups, respectively). At the time of isolation, significantly more patients in the intensive care unit were in the respiratory group (41.6% [611/1469] vs 20.8% [71/336]) (Table 1).

# 3.3. Susceptibility of S. maltophilia to trimethoprim/ sulfamethoxazole

During the 20-year period, 88.7% of respiratory *S. maltophilia* were susceptible to TMP/SMX, while non-respiratory isolates were somewhat less susceptible (84.1%) (P = .018) (Fig. 3). The change in susceptibility percentage over time was significant (P = .033), which were 95.0% in 2001 and 84.2% in 2020. The direction of the change was not clear. There were no significant changes in susceptibility rate by year for respiratory samples, including in trend analysis (P = .100 and P = .075, respectively). For non-respiratory samples, there was a significant change in susceptibility rate by year (P = .003), although not in trend analysis (P = .318) (Fig. 3).

# 4. Discussion

This study analyzed 1805 S. maltophilia samples collected over a 20-year period, including 336 non-respiratory samples.

This is the largest number of *S. maltophilia* non-respiratory samples to be analyzed in a susceptibility study to date. There are few studies of the prevalence, clinical characteristics, or susceptibility of *S. maltophilia* to TMP/SMX. A Hungarian study identified 160 isolates over 3 years,<sup>[13]</sup> whereas in this study the average number of isolates per year was 90. Several studies have reported a male predominance (56.3%–66.3%),<sup>[14+17]</sup> as in our study (66.8%, 1205/1805). Another Hungarian study, conducted in a 1820-bed hospital, identified 579 (58%) isolates in respiratory samples over 10 years.<sup>[18]</sup> We collected 1469 (81.4%) respiratory samples over 20 years. The results may differ according to hospital size, country, and study design.

The number of isolates showed increasing trend through 2001 to 2020 (Fig. 1). It is in the same context as other previous studies that showed *S. maltophilia* has a risk as an important pathogen in the nosocomial infection.<sup>[5]</sup> In the environment of university hospital, where there are inevitably many risk factors for *S. maltophilia* infection including underlying malignancy, presence of indwelling devices, chronic respiratory diseases, and immunocompromised hosts,<sup>[5]</sup> we should look more carefully at infections caused by *S. maltophilia*.

In this study, the overall susceptibility rate of *S. maltophilia* over 20 years was 87.7%. The reported susceptibility rate of *S. maltophilia* to TMP/SMX varies from 61.3% to 100%. Studies in the United States and United Kingdom reported higher susceptibility rates compared to our study (96%–100.0%),<sup>[19–22]</sup> while studies in Turkey, China, Taiwan, and India reported resistance rates of 20.3, 38.8, 17.5%, and 22.6% respectively.<sup>[23–26]</sup> In Iranian studies, resistance to TMP/SMX were 10.3% 3.0%,<sup>[27,28]</sup> which were lower than our study. Indian and Iranian study also revealed molecular mechanism regarding resistance to TMP/SMX.<sup>[26,28]</sup> A Hungarian study reported a resistant rate to TMP/SMX of 12.1%, similar to our result.<sup>[18]</sup> In Korea, 2

### Table 1

Comparison of Stenotrophomonas maltophilia isolated from respiratory and non-respiratory samples.

	Total (no.=1805)	Respiratory samples (no.=1469)	Non-respiratory samples (no.=336)	P value
Male	1205 (66.8)	973 (66.2)	232 (69.0)	.336
Age (yr)	$65.02 \pm 21.01$	67.72 ± 19.03	53.24 ± 24.86	< .001
Department				
ICU	682 (37.8)	611 (41.6)	71 (20.8)	< .004
General ward	938 (52.0)	766 (52.1)	172 (51.2)	
ED	145 (8.0)	82 (5.6)	63 (18.8)	
OPD	40 (2.2)	10 (0.7)	30 (8.9)	
Susceptibility (%)	87.7	88.7	84.1	.018

ED = emergency department, ICU = intensive care unit, OPD = out-patient department.

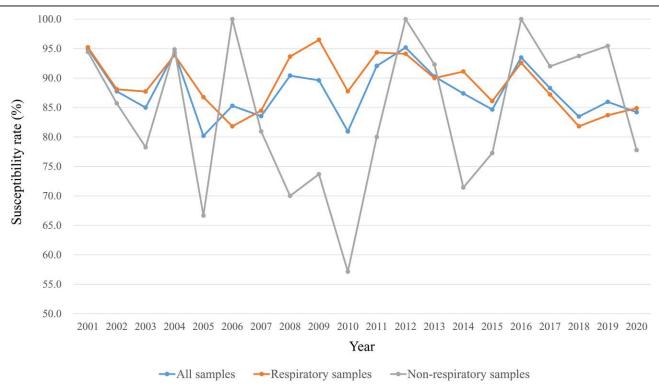


Figure 3. Trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole susceptibility rates of Stenotrophomonas maltophilia over 20 years for all (blue), respiratory (orange), and non-respiratory (gray) samples.

studies examined its susceptibility to TMP/SMX: the former study examined 90 isolates and a latter study examined 206 isolates, and they reported susceptibility rates of 94% and 96%, respectively.<sup>[11,12]</sup>

There was no significant change in the susceptibility rate over 20 years. A Taiwanese study found no significant change in the susceptibility rate from 1998 to 2008.<sup>[25]</sup> In the study published in 2016, TMP/SMX resistance were increased from 19.2% in 2005 to 46.9% in 2014.<sup>[24]</sup> In another study, resistance rate was significantly increased from 29.7% in 2005 to 2009 to 47.1% in 2010 to 2014.<sup>[29]</sup> Another study analyzing only respiratory samples also found a significant increase in the resistance rate, from 6.3% during 2008 to 2012 and 18.06% during 2013 to 2017.<sup>[18]</sup> The trend of decreased susceptibility was also shown in our study, from 95.0% in 2001 to 84.2% in 2020. In this study, there was a significant difference between the susceptibility rates of respiratory and non-respiratory samples (88.7% vs 84.1%; P = .018). This differs from previous studies that found higher susceptibility in non-respiratory samples. In a 2019 study of respiratory samples, 87.9% of the samples were susceptible to TMP/SMX,[18] while 97.8% and 95.2% of isolates were susceptible to TMP/SMX isolated from the blood samples of bacteremia patients and non-respiratory samples of children, respectively.<sup>[19,30]</sup> A study conducted at 1 hospital in Brazil reported 68.8% susceptibility for respiratory samples and 81.9% for non-respiratory samples.[31] Another interesting result of our study was that the number of isolates was higher in general ward than that of ICU. That's probably because the absolute number of patients admitted to the ICU was smaller than that to the general ward. The proportion of S. maltophilia isolated patients may be higher in ICU.

Because antibiograms vary among regions and countries, knowledge of local antibiograms can promote successful empirical antimicrobial treatment.<sup>[32]</sup> Susceptibility rates are most accurate when obtained from data accumulated in a clinical microbiology laboratory. The Infectious Diseases Society of America/Society for Healthcare Epidemiology of America antibiotic stewardship program also recommends the use of cumulative antibiograms to establish empirical treatment guidelines.<sup>[33]</sup> There are several considerations when prescribing TMP/ SMX, especially the adverse effects, including hypersensitivity reactions and renal and bone marrow impairment.<sup>[34]</sup> Although many studies have reported susceptibility rates of over 90%, caution is necessary when interpreting the data and regional susceptibility rates should be checked.

There were some limitations to this study. First, we could not determine whether the isolates were infective or colonizers. Second, we analyzed only susceptibility to TMP/SMX. Guidelines have changed over the 20 years and the list of antibiotics shows annual variations. Therefore, some antibiotics have been tested only for a few of the 20 years. If susceptibility to multiple antibiotics is obtained over a long period, meaningful data can be generated.

In summary, more than 90 *S. maltophilia* isolates were identified per year and a high proportion were isolated from respiratory samples. The rate of susceptibility to TMP/SMX was 87.7% and did not change significantly over 20 years. Isolates from respiratory samples showed significantly higher susceptibility than isolates from non-respiratory samples.

# 5. Conclusion

Susceptibility analyses using clinical data over long periods can guide the choice of antimicrobial treatment. Because antimicrobial treatment options for *S. maltophilia* infection are limited, clinicians should always consider antimicrobial susceptibility rates.

#### Authors contributions

Conceptualization: Je Eun Song, Jeonghyun Chang. Data curation: Sollip Kim, Yee Gyung Kwak. Formal analysis: Tae Hyun Um, Jeonghyun Chang. Investigation: Chong Rae Cho, Sunghwan Shin. Methodology: Je Eun Song. Project administration: Jeonghyun Chang.

Supervision: Yee Gyung Kwak.

Validation: Je Eun Song.

Writing – original draft: Je Eun Song.

Writing – review & editing: Jeonghyun Chang.

#### References

- Denton M, Kerr KG. Microbiological and clinical aspects of infection associated with Stenotrophomonas maltophilia. Clin Microbiol Rev. 1998;11:57–80.
- [2] Hugh R, Leifson E. A description of the type strain of Pseudomonas maltophilia. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol. 1963;13:133–8.
- [3] Swings J, Vos PD, Mooter MV, et al. Transfer of Pseudomonas maltophilia Hugh 1981 to the genus Xanthomonas as Xanthomonas maltophilia (Hugh 1981) comb. nov. J Syst Evol Microbiol. 1983;33:409–13.
- [4] Palleroni NJ, Bradbury JF. Stenotrophomonas, a new bacterial genus for Xanthomonas maltophilia (Hugh 1980) Swings et al. 1983. Int J Syst Bacteriol. 1993;43:606–9.
- [5] Brooke JS. Stenotrophomonas maltophilia: an emerging global opportunistic pathogen. Clin Microbiol Rev. 2012;25:2–41.
- [6] Falagas ME, Kastoris AC, Vouloumanou EK, et al. Communityacquired Stenotrophomonas maltophilia infections: a systematic review. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis. 2009;28:719–30.
- [7] Chang YT, Lin CY, Chen YH, et al. Update on infections caused by Stenotrophomonas maltophilia with particular attention to resistance mechanisms and therapeutic options. Front Microbiol. 2015;6:893.
- [8] Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute CLSI guideline M100. Performance standards for antimicrobial susceptibility testing, 31st edition. CLSI. 2021.
- [9] Al-Jasser AM. Stenotrophomonas maltophilia resistant to trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole: an increasing problem. Ann Clin Microbiol Antimicrob. 2006;5:23.
- [10] Tsiodras S, Pittet D, Carmeli Y, et al. Clinical implications of Stenotrophomonas maltophilia resistant to trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole: a study of 69 patients at 2 university hospitals. Scand J Infect Dis. 2000;32:651–6.
- [11] Chung HS, Hong SG, Lee Y, et al. Antimicrobial susceptibility of Stenotrophomonas maltophilia isolates from a Korean tertiary care hospital. Yonsei Med J. 2012;53:439–41.
- [12] Chung HS, Hong SG, Kim YR, et al. Antimicrobial susceptibility of Stenotrophomonas maltophilia isolates from Korea, and the activity of antimicrobial combinations against the isolates. J Korean Med Sci. 2013;28:62–6.
- [13] Juhász E, Krizsán G, Lengyel G, et al. Infection and colonization by Stenotrophomonas maltophilia: antimicrobial susceptibility and clinical background of strains isolated at a tertiary care centre in Hungary. Ann Clin Microbiol Antimicrob. 2014;13:333.
- [14] Aisenberg G, Rolston KV, Dickey BF, et al. Stenotrophomonas maltophilia pneumonia in cancer patients without traditional risk factors for infection, 1997–2004. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis. 2007;26:13–20.
- [15] Tan CK, Liaw SJ, Yu CJ, et al. Extensively drug-resistant Stenotrophomonas maltophilia in a tertiary care hospital in Taiwan: microbiologic characteristics, clinical features, and outcomes. Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis. 2008;60:205–10.
- [16] Naeem T, Absar M, Somily AM. Antibiotic resistance among clinical isolates of Stenotrophomonas maltophilia at a teaching hospital in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. J Ayub Med Coll Abbottabad. 2012;24:30–3.
- [17] Saugel B, Eschermann K, Hoffmann R, et al. Stenotrophomonas maltophilia in the respiratory tract of medical intensive care unit patients. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis. 2012;31:1419–28.

- [18] Gajdács M, Urbán E. Prevalence and antibiotic resistance of Stenotrophomonas maltophilia in respiratory tract samples: a 10year epidemiological snapshot. Health Serv Res Manag Epidemiol. 2019;6:2333392819870774.
- [19] Hamdi AM, Fida M, Saleh OMA, et al. Stenotrophomonas bacteremia antibiotic susceptibility and prognostic determinants: mayo clinic 10-year experience. Open Forum Infect Dis. 2020;7:ofaa008.
- [20] Wang YL, Scipione MR, Dubrovskaya Y, et al. Monotherapy with fluoroquinolone or trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole for treatment of Stenotrophomonas maltophilia infections. Antimicrob Agents Chemother. 2014;58:176–82.
- [21] Livermore DM, Hope R, Brick G, et al. Non-susceptibility trends among Pseudomonas aeruginosa and other non-fermentative Gramnegative bacteria from bacteraemias in the UK and Ireland, 2001–06. J Antimicrob Chemother. 2008;62:ii55–63.
- [22] Sader HS, Farrel DJ, Flamm RK, et al. Antimicrobial susceptibility of Gram-negative organisms isolated from patients hospitalised with pneumonia in US and European hospitals: results from the SENTRY antimicrobial surveillance program, 2009–2012. Int J Antimicrob Agents. 2014;43:328–34.
- [23] Çıkman A, Parlak M, Bayram Y, et al. Antibiotics resistance of Stenotrophomonas maltophilia strains isolated from various clinical specimens. Afr Health Sci. 2016;16:149–52.
- [24] Hu LF, Chen GS, Kong QX, et al. Increase in the prevalence of resistance determinants to trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole in clinical Stenotrophomonas maltophilia isolates in China. PLoS One. 2016;11:e0157693.
- [25] Wu H, Wang JT, Shiau YR, et al. A multicenter surveillance of antimicrobial resistance on Stenotrophomonas maltophilia in Taiwan. J Microbiol Immunol Infect. 2012;45:120–6.
- [26] Parvinder K, Vikas G, Rupinder T. Distribution of class 1 integrons, sul1 and sul2 genes among clinical isolates of Stenotrophomonas maltophilia from a tertiary care hospital in north India. Microb Drug Resist. 2015;21:380–5.
- [27] Baseri Z, Dehghan A, Yaghoubi S, et al. Prevalence of resistance genes and antibiotic resistance profile among Stenotrophomonas maltophilia isolates from hospitalized patients in Iran. New Microbes New Infect. 2021;44:100943.
- [28] Bostanghadiri N, Ghalavand Z, Fallah F, et al. Characterization of phenotypic and genotypic diversity of Stenotrophomonas maltophilia strains isolated from selected hospitals in Iran. Front Microbiol. 2019;10:1191.
- [29] Hu LF, Xu XH, Li HR, et al. Surveillance of antimicrobial susceptibility patterns among Stenotrophomonas maltophilia isolated in China during the 10-year period of 2005–2014. J Chemother. 2018;30:25–30.
- [30] Sattler CA, Mason EO, Kaplan SL. Nonrespiratory Stenotrophomonas maltophilia infection at a children's hospital. Clin Infect Dis. 2000;31:1321–30.
- [31] Mendes ET, Paez JIG, Ferraz JR, et al. Clinical and microbiological characteristics of patients colonized or infected by Stenotrophomonas maltophilia: is resistance to sulfamethoxazole/trimethoprim a problem? Rev Inst Med Trop Sao Paulo. 2020;62:e96.
- [32] Pakyz AL. The utility of hospital antibiograms as tools for guiding empiric therapy and tracking resistance. insights from the society of infectious diseases pharmacists. Pharmacotherapy. 2007;27:1306–12.
- [33] Barlam TF, Cosgrove SE, Abbo LM, et al. Implementing an antibiotic stewardship program: guidelines by the infectious diseases society of America and the society for healthcare epidemiology of America. Clin Infect Dis. 2016;62:e51–77.
- [34] Ho JMW, Juurlink DN. Considerations when prescribing trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole. CMAJ. 2011;183:1851–8.