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Phenotypic characterization of the resistance of Salmonella – Shigella isolates to colistin and detection of mcr1/2 genes

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ABSTRACT

Objective: Colistin is one of the latest line of therapeutics used in the management of infections due to multiresistant Gram-negative bacteria. The current emergence of colistin resistance, in particular through the mediation of plasmid resistance genes (mcr1 and mcr2) in intestinal bacteria is a worldwide concern. The objective of this study is to evaluate the sensitivity of *Salmonella* and *Shigella* strains to colistin and the detection of mcr1 and mcr2 genes within these strains.

Methodology and Results: The colistin sensitivity profile of 30 Salmonella strains and 5 Shigella strains was determined using the Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations in liquid medium of Mueller Hinton and the results were interpreted in accordance with the standards of the European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing Epidemiological cut-off 2020 version 10.0. Finally, the mcr1 and mcr2 genes were detected by a conventional PCR. Overall, a phenotypic resistance rate of 20% was recorded for Salmonella-Shigella pathogens, with a frequency of 17.1% for Salmonella and 2.9% for Shigella. Molecular screening of these isolates revealed a lack of detection of the mcr1 and mcr2 genes in their genetic heritage.

Conclusion and application of results: this study shows that Salmonella and Shigella strains are resistant to colistin, however the mcr 1 and 2 genes have not been amplified. To this end, the rational use of colistin must be applied in the human and animal field in order to curb the increase and spread of resistance to this molecule.

Keywords: Colistin, Gabon, mcr, resistance, Salmonella-Shigella

INTRODUCTION

Antimicrobial resistance is a topic of particular interest due to the widespread of serious infectious caused by enterobacteria such as, Escherichia, Salmonella, Shigella, Klebsiella, Enterobacter, Serratia, Proteus, Morganella and Yersinia (Dortetet al,, 2010). Among these enterobacteriaceae infections, Escherichia, Salmonella and Shigella cause severe forms of the digestive tract (e.g., gastroenteric) (Ayalu A et al., 2011; Lamberti et al., 2014). In addition, Salmonella is responsible for over 200 million cases of diarrhoea worldwide and over 3 million deaths. Whereas Shigella is responsible for over 650,000 deaths (Ayalu A et al., 2011). In this context, both Salmonella and Shigella represent a real worldwide concern, particularly in developing countries (Mohammadmahdi et al., 2020). β-lactams are the first-line molecules in the treatment of enterobacteriaceae infections due to their low toxicity and bactericidal potency (Robin, Gibold and Bonnet, 2012). However, the massive use of antibiotics has largely contributed to the emergence of enterobacteria resistance. addition, several strains of enterobacteriaceae family are reported to have an extended spectrum of antibiotic resistance, in part due to the acquisition of genes of resistance and by their own resistance (Nordmann et al., 2012). Moreover, the production of β -lactam inactivating enzymes (β -lactamases) contributed to the emergence and expansion of extended-spectrum **B-lactamase** producing enterobacteriaceae (EBLSE) or carbapenemase that are known as multi-strain resistant (Cattoir, 2013; Doit, 2015). This multi-resistance has been also reported recently from Shigella isolates (Mohammadmahdi et al., 2020). The widespread of carbapenemase-producing Enterobacteriaceae limits the therapeutic approaches against serious infections caused by enterobacteria strains. This phenomenon is responsible of the significant reduction in the effectiveness of new molecules

available (Cattoir, 2013). To face this problem. colistin antibiotic has been proposed as the lasttherapy against Enterobacteriaceae Producing Carbapenemase (ECP) infections (L. Dortet et al., 2016; Yi et al., 2019). However, the great adaptability of these bacteria also favoured the selection of colistin-resistant mutants (Zhang et al., 2018). Globally, the frequency of resistance to colistin remains relatively low although its impact is increasingly reported (Kim et al., 2019). The most common enterobacteria strains are from E. coli, Klebsiella pneumoniae and Enterobacter cloacae (Mezghani Maalej et al., 2012). Additionally, E. coli resistance rates were found between 0.1% to 2% in North America, 0.3% in Europe (Gales, Jones and Sader, 2011; L Dortet et al., 2016). Strains of Klebsiella spp showed rates of 1.8%, 1.5%, 2.1% and 0.8% respectively for North America, Europe, Latin America and Asia Pacific (Gales, Jones and Sader, 2011). In African areas, the few studies carried out in Nigeria, Egypt and Tunisia show extremely low prevalence of colistin resistance in enterobacteriaceae (L. Dortet et al., 2016). In Tunisia, strains of E. coli, K. pneumoniae and Enterobacter cloacae showed prevalence of resistance to colistin of 0.09%, 1.2% and 1.5%, respectively (Mezghani Maalej et al., However, studies in Nigeria and Egypt did not identify any resistant strains (Adelowo et al., 2014; Hasanin et al., 2014). In Gabon, while little is known, however, a recent study from 20 isolates of E. coli from childhood diarrheal faeces showed 40% of resistance to colistin (Mabika Mabika et al., 2019; Yala et al., 2020). The main objective of this study is to evaluate the sensitivity of Salmonella and Shigella strains isolated from diarrheal faeces to colistin. This will be determined using their minimum inhibitory concentrations (MIC) and a conventional PCR for the detection of the *mcr*-1 and *mcr*-2 genes.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Bacterial strains: Salmonella and Shigella strains isolated from diarrheal faeces in children aged 0 to 5 years in the city of Koula-Moutou were screened in this study at the phenotypic and genotypic levels.

The strains of *Salmonella* genus consisted of 17 strains of *Salmonella* spp, 6 of *Salmonella enterica*, 4 of *Salmonella Typhi* and 3 of *Salmonella Paratyphi* A. The *Shigella* genus consisted of 3 strains of

Shigella spp and 2 of Shigella sonnei. These strains have been cryopreserved in the strain library of the Laboratory of Cell and Molecular Biology at Masuku University of Science and Technology.

Evaluation of strain sensitivity to colistin: The determination of minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) was carried out using the reference method to characterize the phenotypes of Salmonella and *Shigella* with colistin. Briefly, geometric dilution ranges of reason 2 between 8μg/ml-0.625μg/ml were carried out and standardised inoculi were inoculated at 37°C for 18-24h incubation. The MIC values of the European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing epidemiological cut-off (EUCAST ECOFF) were used for the interpretation of the MIC values obtained (EUCAST, 2020).

Detection of *mcr*-1 and *mcr*-2 genes in Salmonella-Shigella strains: The search for the *mcr*-1 and *mcr*- 2 genes was carried out by conventional PCR on all 35 Salmonella-Shigella isolates. The specific primer sequences used were mcr-1 forward (5'-AGTCCGTTTGTTGTGGC-3'), mcr-1 reverse (5'-GGGGCTTGATGCTCACT-3'); mcr-2 forward (5'-CAAGTGTTGCGCAGTT-3') and mcr-2 reverse (5'-CAAGTGTGTGTGCGCAGTT-3') (Zhang et al., 2018). The different amplification conditions were an initial denaturation at 95°C for 15 minutes followed by 35 denaturation cycles at 94°C for 15 seconds, a hybridization of 57°C of 30 seconds, an elongation of 68°C of 70 seconds and finally, the final elongation step at 72°C for 5 minutes. The amplicons obtained were separated on a 1.5% (m/v) agarose gel by electrophoresis and visualized under ultraviolet light.

RESULTS Phenotypic prevalence of colistin resistance strains and of the *mcr*-1 and *mcr*-2 genes.

Table 1: Minimum inhibitory concentration values for strains of *Salmonella* and *Shigella*.

	Effective N	Break point CMI (μg.mL-¹)		Percentage of resistance	Frequency of genes detected	
		Sensitivity ≤2 n (%)	Resistant >2 n (%)	n (%)	<i>mcr-1</i> n (%)	mcr-2 n (%)
Salmonella enterica	6	5 (83.3)	1 (16.7)		-	-
Salmonella Paratyphi A	3	3 (100.0)	-	6 (17.1)	-	-
Salmonella spp	17	13 (76.5)	4 (23.5)	. ,	-	-
Salmonella Typhi	4	3 (75.0)	1 (25.0)		-	-
Total	30	24 (80.0)	6 (20,0)		-	-
Shigella sonnei	2	2 (100.0)	-	1 (2.9)	-	-
Shigella spp	3	2 (66.7)	1 (33.3)		-	-
Total	5	4 (80.0)	1 (20.0)		-	-
Global Total	35	28 (80.0)	7 (20.0)	7 (20.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)

The results in Table I show that 80.0% of *Salmonella* and *Shigella* strains are sensitive to colistin compared to a resistance rate of 20.0%. Specifically, 17.1% of *Salmonella* isolates are resistant to colistin, while only 2.9% of *Shigella* has this phenotype. Among the 4 species of *Salmonella*, *Salmonella* spp show the highest resistance rate

(23.5%) followed by *Salmonella Typhi* (25.0%) and *Salmonella enterica* (16.7%). In contrast, only the *Shigella* spp strain is resistant to colistin (33.3%) and all *Shigella sonnei* isolates are susceptible. In addition, molecular screening of the 35 target isolates revealed the absence of the *mcr*-1 and *mcr*-2 genes, which are carried by the plasmids

DISCUSSION

The main objective of this study was to evaluate the sensitivity of Salmonella and Shigella strains isolated from diarrheal faeces to colistin, using their MIC and a conventional PCR for the detection of the mcr-1 and mcr-2 genes. Colistin is a cyclic cationic peptide that inhibits the growth of Gram-positive bacteria by disrupting the integrity of the outer membrane of these bacteria through the interaction of its positive electrostatic charges with the negative charges of the outer lipopolysaccharide membrane (Sun et al., 2009). The evaluation of the sensitivity of Salmonella and Shigella to colistin revealed an average prevalence (20%) of resistance. These results are consistent with the work of (Morales et al., 2012), in which the authors showed that colistin resistance prevalence ranged from 10.52% to 21% for the genus Salmonella. for the genus Shigella, the authors showed a colistin resistance rate of 20-27% (Morales et al., 2012). However, these results are higher than those obtained in Europe and Asia where the authors found prevalence around 3%(Gales et al., 2011; L Dortet et al., 2016). A recent study in Gabon revealed a high prevalence (40%) of E. coli strains to colistin (Yala et al., 2020). The average rate of resistance of colistin resistance recorded in this study would be justified by the fact that colistin, although considered as the last line of defense against severe infections, is not yet misused abused in Gabon. Indeed, previous studies showed a relationship between the emergence of the colistin resistance gene (mcr-1/2) and the overuse of colistin in the veterinary field (L. Dortet et al., 2016). This low use in rural areas could be an outcome of the limited access to colistin or polymixins for treatment of patients (L. Dortet et al., 2016). In addition, this could also be correlated with the small sample sizes of this study. Clearly, it has been shown that the overall number of strains tested could potentially impact the prevalence of antimicrobial resistance (Frye and Jackson, 2013). As a major component of the outer membrane of Gramnegative bacteria, LPS is the primary target of polymixins. Colistin resistance could be justified by the addition of positive charges to lipid, which is a component of the LPS, since these covalent changes in the lipid A fraction by cationic substitution are the most common mechanism of colistin resistance by enterobacteriaceae (Kim et al., 2019). These changes in the charges of lipid A lead to a reduction in the negative charge and consequently, a decrease in affinity or electrostatic interaction with colistin. On the other hand, these modifications of lipid A by phosphoethanolamine transferase (pEtN) can be encoded by an Epta

chromosomal gene (pmrC) or a plasmid gene, mcr (Nang et al., 2019). Furthermore, the modification of lipid A by 4-amino-4-deoxy-L-arabinose (L-Ara4n) is due to an exclusively chromosomal arnT (pmrk) gene (Nang et al., 2019). Indeed, it has been shown in the literature that cationic sugars such as L-Ara4n at lipid A in S. enterica reduce the negative charge of the outer membrane (Zhang et al., 2019). In addition, resistance in Salmonella and Shigella strains may be a consequence of specific mutations in the pmrAB and phoPQ genes (Kim et al., 2019). In addition to the changes in lipid A by the addition of phosphate, phosphoethanolamine (pEtN) or 4-amino-4-deoxy-L-arabinose (L-Ara4n) groups, some studies highlight the deacylation or hydroxylation of lipid chains (L. Dortet et al., 2016). Other studies highlighted also that specific mutations in two-component systems such as Pmrab and Phopg and their regulators Mgrb and Pmrd are associated with colistin resistance in Enterobacteriaceae, including Klebsiella pneumoniae, K. aerogenes and Salmonella Enterica, as well as P. aeruginosa and A. baumanni (Poirelet al., 2017). The resistance observed in this study could be due to the acquisition of the plasmid mcr genes. Indeed, enterobacteriaceae have a great ability to easily acquire genetic material by horizontal inter- and intra-species transfer, the process of which most often involves mobile genetic elements and particularly concerns antibiotics resistance genes (Dortetet al., 2013). The results of the search for plasmid resistance genes in Salmonella and Shigella strains indicate the absence or non-detection of the mcr-1 and mcr-2 genes in this work. These results may have several explanations. The first explanation would the fact that colistin resistance in Gram-negative bacteria is mainly due to the acquisition of mutations in two-component systems (Poirel et al., 2017). Investigation of the origin of colistin resistance in 30 E. coli mcr-1 negative strains found that 22 strains carried amino acids in Pmrb, Phop, Phog, Mgrb and/or Pmrd, while no mutation in any of these genes were found in the remaining eight isolates (Kim et al., 2019). In addition, several studies showed that the acquisition of mcr plasmid genes is more prevalent in clinical E. coli strains (Sperandeo et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2019). In addition, the prevalence of mcr-1 strains is low at 1.4% and 0.7% for clinical strains of E. coli and K. pneumoniae respectively (Yu et al., 2015). The prevalence of mcr-1 strains is low in humans compared to animals (Haenni et al., 2016). These bacteria (Padilla et al., 2010) would likely use other colistin resistance mechanisms such as synthesis or expression of efflux pumps. Ultimately, a

decrease in the net negative charge of the outer membrane, lipid A loss or efflux pumps cause colistin resistance.

CONCLUSION AND APPLICATION OF RESULTS

This study showed that *Salmonella* and *Shigella* isolated from diarrheal faeces were resistant to colistin, a molecule of the last therapeutic line. This resistance to colistin in the city of Koula-Moutou is thought to be mediated by chromosomal and non-plasmid alterations. For better discrimination of molecular resistance, it

would be appropriate to screen all variants of the *mcr* gene as well as the determinants of chromosomal resistance. The results of this study provide a strong signal for monitoring the emergence of colistin resistance of enteric pathogens in Gabon.

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