Detection of colistin resistant Gram negative bacilli in intensive care unit patients admitted to Ain Shams University Hospitals


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ABSTRACT

Background: Colistin is the last choice for serious infections caused by multidrug-resistant Gram negative bacteria and one of the prominent causes for spreading the resistance is Plasmid-borne Mobile Colistin Resistance (mcr). Broth microdilution method (BMD) is the reference tool for colistin minimum inhibitory concentrations (MIC) determination, but it has many obstacles, so commercial BMD methods had been developed that are more user-friendly than the reference method and (Liofilchem® ComASPTM) is one of them, which we used to determine colistin MIC in this study. Objective: To detect colistin resistant Gram negative bacilli (GNB) by ComASPTM colistin (formerly Sensi Test™Colistin) among Intensive Care Units (ICUs) patients admitted to Ain Shams university hospitals and to screen the presence of mcr-1 gene by Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) in Colistin resistant isolates. Method: This Observational cross-sectional study was performed in the Medical Microbiology and Immunology Department, Faculty of Medicine, Ain Shams University between June 2019 to November 2019. One hundred isolates of Gram negative bacilli were obtained from patients admitted at different ICUs of Ain Shams University Hospitals. Full identification was done by conventional microbiological methods, Then MIC was measured for all isolated organisms by using commercial BMD ComASPTM colistin, PCR was done for colistin resistant isolates to detect mcr-1 gene. Results: 60% of the GNB isolates were K.pneumonia. Colistin resistance was 14% among 100 GNB, 35.7% of these colistin resistant were K.pneumonia obtained from urine samples. Prevalence of mcr-1 gene was 7.1%. Conclusion: Commercial BMD ComASPTM colistin is simple and uncomplicated method for detection colistin susceptibility.

Introduction

Today, antimicrobial resistance is one of the world's greatest health care problems, especially for gram-negative bacteria. Carbapenems were considered as effective and reliable antimicrobials for the treatment of β- lactamase (ESBL) extended-spectrum infections-Enterobacteriaceae. Currently, serious concerns were raised due to the global spread of carbapenem-resistant bacteria and doctors can "beam back" to the pre-antimicrobial era as there are only very few compounds available to treat infections with this multidrug-resistant microorganism [1,2].

This crisis has made colistin the last treatment option for infections caused by Enterobacteriaceae producing carbapenemase. That finding leads the World Health Organization (WHO) to classify colistin as an important drug for human’s medicine [3].
Colistin interacts with lipopolysaccharides on the outer membrane of Gram-negative bacteria and causes injury to the membrane leading to bacterial death. Multiple different mechanisms cause the loss or modification of the production of lipopolysaccharides in Gram-negative bacteria resulting in resistance to colistin [4].

Colistin resistance results from two mechanisms: chromosomal defects or plasmid resistance. The chromosomal mutations occur in the PmrA / PmrB and PhoP / PhoQ encoding genes leading either to lipid A molecule modifications or even losses. These mutations are related to colistin usage [5]. Though, colistin resistance is present without prior exposure to colistin, due to the presence of plasmid mediated mcr-1 gene encoding the phosphoethanolamine transferase enzyme leading to the transfer of phosphoethanolamine to lipid A; conferring colistin resistance [6].

The joint of Clinical Laboratory Standards Institute and the European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing (CLSI-EUCAST) recently recommended that the ISO standard broth microdilution method (BMD) be the reference tool for colistin MIC determination [7], but clinical microbiology laboratories rarely perform BMD reference as it requires freshly prepared or frozen antibiotic solutions.

So, it was mandatory to measure the presence of colistin resistance in our hospitals by more user-friendly tests. Few commercial BMD methods have recently become available as Liofilchem® ComASPTM colistin (formerly SensiTestTM Colistin) which contains antibiotic in 7 twofold dilutions (0.25 to 16 μg/L) and allowing simultaneous testing of four samples [8]. We used it to detect colistin resistant Gram-negative bacteria among ICU patients admitted to Ain Shams University Hospitals.

Methodology

This Observational cross-sectional study was performed in the Medical Microbiology and Immunology Department, Faculty of Medicine, Ain Shams University and was approved by the Research Ethics Committee at the Faculty of Medicine, Ain Shams University in the period between June 2019 to November 2019.

Patient selection and collection of samples

The samples (one hundred isolates of Gram-negative bacteria) were obtained from patients admitted at different ICUs of Ain Shams University Hospitals. The age of the patients ranged from 22 years to 82 years. Prior to obtaining the samples, a written informed consent was obtained from each patient or from guardians of the patients after explaining the study and its goals to them.

Collection and identification of bacterial isolates

One hundred Gram-negative bacterial isolates (100) were collected from clinical samples from different infection sites (blood, urine, sputum, wound, and endotracheal tube) from different ICUs of Ain Shams University Hospitals in Cairo, Egypt. Out of 100 isolates of Gram-negative bacteria, 56 urine samples, 25 respiratory specimens (12 sputum and 14 endotracheal aspirates (ETA)), 3 wound swabs specimens and 15 blood samples were collected under complete aseptic conditions. Samples were collected in sterile containers to be examined bacteriologically.

All bacterial isolates were identified using conventional methods depending on cultural and biochemical characteristics on MacConkey agar medium as described by Cheesbrough, 2006.

Antimicrobial susceptibility test (MIC) commercial BMD ComASPTM colistin

All Gram-negative isolates were tested for colistin resistance by commercial BMD ComASPTM colistin.

A. Steps

A suspension equivalent in density to the 0.5 McFarland standard (BioMérieux, France) was prepared by diluting approximately 3-5 well-isolated colonies in sterile saline and then diluting 1:20 in saline to form solution A.

Solution B was provided by adding 400μl of solution A to the tube of (Mueller Hinton Broth) MH II Broth supplied in the package using a multichannel pipette (100-1000μl). In each well in a row, 100 μl of solution B was added. The panel was coated with the lid and incubated for 20 hours in ambient air at 37.

B. Reading the results

At the end of the incubation period the growth was observed in the wells and the MIC was established, i.e. the lowest concentration of antibiotic that inhibits visible growth.

C. Results interpretation

The obtained MIC was interpreted according to interpretative criteria currently used by CLSI. According to CLSI, MIC of 2 μg/ml was considered susceptible and a MIC of 4 μg/ml was considered colistin-resistant [9].
Molecular detection of colistin resistance

DNA extraction
Pure colonies from resistant isolates were cultured for 24 hours on a nutrient broth at 37 °C. Later, 100 microns of broth were centrifuged for 5 minutes, and the deposit was resuspended for 20 minutes in 100 microns of sterile distilled water and heated in water bath at 95°C. The supernatant was installed in sterile eppendorf and kept frozen at -20°C until amplification [10].

Amplification and detection of mcr-1 gene
The primers of mcr-1 gene were summarized in table (1) [11][12]. Qiagen amplification master mix (Qiagen, Germany) was used for the amplification. The total volume of amplification was 25 microns, with 3 μl of extracted bacterial DNA and 0.5 μM of each primer. The amplification procedure was carried out with the following steps: 5 min at 94 °C, followed by 30 cycles of 45 s at 94 °C, 1 min at 60 °C (for mcr1), 1 min at 72 °C, and a final extension time of 7 min at 72 °C [6][13].

Electrophoresis with gel 2% was performed for 20 minutes. The products were visualized by UV and compared with DNA ladder.

Table 1. The primers sequence of mcr-1 gene.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gene</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>Bp</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mcr-1</td>
<td>F:5/- AGTCCGTTGTTCTTGTCGTC -3</td>
<td>R:5/- AGATCCTTGTCTCGTCTGT -3</td>
<td>320 bp</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statistical analysis
Data collected were analyzed using the Social Sciences Statistical Package (SPSS) V.20. Data was presented using standard deviation, mean, median, minimum and maximum quantitative data, and categorical data using frequency (count) and relative frequency (percentage).

Results
This study encased 100 GNB isolates, from patients admitted at different ICUs of Ain Shams University Hospitals. These 100 isolates consisted of: K. pneumoniae (60%), E.coli (18%), P.aeruginosa (15%) and Citrobacter (7%).

Regarding antimicrobial susceptibility test (MIC) by commercial BMD (ComASPMT colistin), there were 14 resistant isolates (14%) out of 100 Gram negative isolates (the resistant isolate was identified by turbidity or as a button at the bottom of the well as in figure (1) and their distribution is shown in figure (2).

For K.pneumoniae, 10 isolates (16.6%) were resistant, P.aeruginosa, 3 isolates (20%) were resistant, E.coli, only one isolate (5.5%) was resistant and Citrobacter all isolates were sensitive (7%). Proteus species were excluded from this result due to its intrinsic resistance to colistin.

The distribution of colistin resistant strains in different samples (Figure 3) is:

According to urine samples: 9 isolates (6.1%) out of 56 isolates are resistant, they include 5 isolates K. pneumoniae (55.6%), 3 isolates P. aeruginosa (33.3%) and one isolate for E.coli (11.1%).

For blood samples: 2 isolates (13.4%) out of 15 isolates are resistant, they include 2 isolates (100%) K. pneumoniae. For sputum samples: one isolate (7.4%) out of 12 isolates is resistant, which is K. pneumoniae (100%).

For wound exudate samples: one isolate (33.3%) out of 3 isolates is resistant, which is K. pneumoniae (100%). For tracheal aspirate: one isolate (7.14%) out of 14 isolates is resistant, which is K. pneumoniae (100%)

In the present study, history of Colistin intake was positive for only one patient (55 years old, male) admitted to ICU for pneumonia.

The prevalence of mcr-1 gene was 7.1% and was referred to K. pneumoniae isolated from urine of 70 years male patient admitted to ICU for stroke and it is shown in figure (4).
Figure 1. ComASPTM Colistin showing resistant isolate in the second row.

Figure 2. The distribution of sensitive and resistant strains of Gram –ve isolates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>K. Pneumoniae</th>
<th>P. aeruginosa</th>
<th>E. Coli</th>
<th>Citrobacter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>resistant</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sensitive</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3. The distribution of colistin resistant strains in different samples.
Figure 4. Gel electrophoresis of \textit{mcr-1} gene (320 bp) encoding for colistin resistance (strain no 12 is the resistant strain), Pc: positive control and NC: (negative control).

Discussion

Increased use of inappropriate antimicrobials has resulted in the emergence of MDR bacteria, which are extremely hard to treat [14]. Colistin recently returns to use as an effective antibiotic, particularly for treating severe health care associated infections with multiple antibiotic resistances [15].

Colistin resistance detection currently relies on MIC determinations using BMD, and routine Colistin resistance detection using traditional methods such as PCR-based tests.

In this study, the isolates were \textit{K. pneumoniae} (60%), \textit{E. coli} (18%), \textit{P. aerogenosa} (15%), and \textit{citrobacter} (7%). Similar studies in Egypt [16] found that \textit{K. pneumoniae} (43.4%), \textit{E. coli} (29.1%), \textit{P. aeruginosa} (13.5%), \textit{A. baumannii} (5.3%), \textit{Enterobacter spp.} (2%), \textit{Citrobacter} (0.8%), \textit{Proteus} (4.9%), \textit{Serratia} (0.4%) and \textit{Morganella morgagni} (0.4%), and in India ML and Raja [17] found that the most prevalent organisms isolated were \textit{K. pneumoniae} (37.4%) followed by \textit{E. Coli} (24.5%) and \textit{Pseudomonas} species (13.6%). In contrast, Moosavian and Eman [18] reported that the percentage of \textit{E. coli} was (74.7%) and \textit{K. pneumoniae} was (25.3%).

Such disparity in outcomes can be explained by variance in sample form and number of cases, differences in patient overall health, or discrepancy between countries. The important differing aspects is compliance with measures to control infections.

The prevalence rate of colistin resistance by commercial BMD ComASPPTM colistin in our study was (14%), while (86%) of Gram –ve isolates were sensitive to colistin. Similarly, in Egypt, Emara et al. [16] disclosed that only 10 (16.4%) isolates were resistant to colistin and in Iran Moosavian and Eman [18] reported colistin resistant isolates were 13.6% (64 out of 470 isolates) but by disk diffusion method. On the contrary, Kandee [19] reported that colistin resistance against \textit{A. baumannii} (2.8%) and for \textit{P. aeruginosa} (7.9%) by agar dilution method in Egypt. In Hungary [20] the rate of colistin resistance was 0.6%, 1.3% and 2.6% in \textit{Enterobacteriaceae}, \textit{Pseudomonas spp.} and \textit{Acinetobacter spp.}, respectively.

The most resistant isolate in this study was \textit{P. aeruginosa} (20%), followed by \textit{K. pneumoniae} (16.6%), while (5.5%) of \textit{E. coli} was resistance, and all isolates of \textit{Citrobacter} were sensitive (7%). In contrast, another study in Egypt by Emara et al. [16] reported that the most common isolated organisms were \textit{K. pneumoniae} (80%), followed by \textit{E. coli} (10%) and \textit{P. aeruginosa} (10%) but in Iran previous study[18] reported that \textit{E. coli} colistin resistant strains were 59.4% and \textit{K. pneumoniae} colistin resistant strains were 40.6%.

In this study, Prevalence of \textit{mcr-1} gene resistant isolates was (7.1%) and referred to \textit{K pneumoniae} isolated from urine of 70 years male patient admitted to ICU for stroke. This finding go in accordance with the results of a study carried out in Egypt by Zaki et al. [21] who found that \textit{mcr-1} gene...
was detected in 2 isolates (4%) (One E. coli strain and in one K. pneumoniae strains) and study carried out in the Arabian Peninsula by Sonnevend et al. [22] found 4 (5.3%) E. coli strains carrying the mcr-1 gene, 2 from Bahrain, one from Saudi Arabia and one from the UAE were detected in this collection, respectively. Two E. coli were isolated from blood in 2012 and in 2013, a urine and a wound isolate were recovered in 2015. On the contrary, in Iran, Moosavian and Emam [18] found that 1.7% (n=8 out of 470) of E. coli and K. pneumoniae strains carried mcr-1 gene. And studies carried out in China [23] found that 16 E coli isolates (1%) of 1322 samples from inpatients with infection have mcr-1 gene, in Hungary Juhász et al. [20] reported only one strain, E. coli isolated from the blood sample of a hemato-oncology patient in 2011 was positive for mcr-1. Meanwhile [18], mcr-1 gene was not detected in any of the tested colistin-resistant isolates. All this low prevalence may be related to a ban on the use of colistin in agriculture and good practice of colistin intake.

At the other hand, the prevalence of [24] mcr-1 genes in Assiut and Minia University Hospital was (20.8%) and (23.1%). This discrepancy can be explained by the fact that all isolates were multidrug resistant E. coli collected from urine samples. This coincides with our study, where urine samples were the most common source of resistant isolates.

The distribution of colistin resistant strains in different samples in this study as following: Urine samples: (9%) resistant, including 5 isolates K. pneumoniae, 3 isolates P. aerogenosa and one isolate for E.coli, for blood samples: (2%) resistant, they include 2 isolates K. pneumoniae, for sputum samples: (1%) resistant, which is K. pneumoniae, for wound exudate samples: (1%) resistant, which is K. pneumoniae, for tracheal aspirate:(1%) resistant, which is K. pneumoniae.

In contrary, resistant isolates in urine were (37.5%), blood resistant isolates were (25%), in sputum samples (20.8%) were resistant and in wound isolates (16.7%) were resistant [25].

In the present study, history of colistin intake was positive in 1 case (10%) for 55 years male patient admitted to ICU for pneumonia, similar result was reported in Egypt [18] where the history of colistin intake was (20%). In Brazil, [26] 252 colistin-resistant Gram-negative bacteria have emerged independently (without colistin therapy) from this city. On the other hand, in Pennsylvania [27] (95%) of cases had received colistin before colistin-resistant isolates were identified.

Conclusion
Colistin resistance Gram-ve isolates is increasing even without history of colistin intake. in this study, we used Commercial BMD ComASPTM colistin and it was easy to perform and simple method for detection colistin susceptibility.

Recommendations
Strict application of infection control and antibiotic policies to control spread of antibiotic resistance

Conflict of Interest: None declared.

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Authorship
Each author listed in the manuscript had approved the submission of this version of the manuscript and takes full responsibility for it.

Ethical approval
The study was approved by the Research Ethics Committee at the Faculty of Medicine, Ain Shams University, Egypt.

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