

COLISTIN RESISTANCE IN *ENTEROBACTERIACEAE* THROUGH SEWAGE SAMPLES/WATERBODIES

¹AVISKAR PARHI, ²Dr. NAMITA BEDI

¹B.Tech+M.Tech BIOTECHNOLOGY (DUAL),

²Asst. Director & NTCC, (Internal Faculty Coordinator).

Abstract: Colistin is an antibiotic for treating various multidrug-resistant Gram negative bacteria. It is at present the last-line drug for infections caused by Gram negative bacteria. Colistin resistance is a concerning issue because of lack of development of new antibiotics. Bacteria like *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Enterobacteriaceae* members such as *Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella* spp. have an acquired resistance towards colistin. Due to the high occurrence of colistin-resistant *Enterobacteriaceae* in waste water and process waters from sources like slaughterhouses, hospitals were considered as the hotspot for the colistin resistances (*mcr*) genes. Clinicians should be aware about the possibility of the development of colistin resistance among many multidrug resistant bacteria via adaptations and mutation mechanisms. Rapid growth of bacterial resistance has made it quite tough for us to depend on the development of new antibiotics for which, logical approaches need to be used for utilizing old antibiotics like colistin, to deal with rising issues of colistin resistance.

Keywords: Colistin resistance, *Enterobacteriaceae*, Gram negative bacteria.

1. INTRODUCTION

Colistin is an antibiotic which is the ultimate drug for treating gram negative multidrug-resistant infections. Originally it is obtained from the spore forming soil bacteria, *Paenibacillus polymyxa*. Molecules which are present in this are the polymyxins, categorized into groups as A, B, C, D and E, from which only the polymyxin E (colistin) and the category polymyxin B are generally used exclusively in humans (Biswas,2012). Colistin is a combination of both E1 and E2 polymyxins. These are the two pentacationic lipopeptides which have bactericidal effects (Biswas, 2012). Colistin is very effective on a broad range of Gram-negative bacteria and is not effective on the Gram-positive bacteria. Colistin is generally used as medication in both humans and animals. In case of humans, colistin is usually used in order to treat infections that have developed the multidrug-resistant activity. It is manufactured so that it could be vein or muscle injected or could be inhaled too, i.e, is colistimethate sodium (Gurjar, 2015). In animals, colistin has broad applications in diverse animal food products like beef, dairy, milk- and meat-producing animals for effectively preventing and treating infections. It is caused by the *Enterobacteriaceae* and various other bacteria which are gram negative. The applications or usage of colistin in animals (used as food) is thought to have created this colistin resistance. With spreading of extremely resistant bacteria like *Enterobacteriaceae* producing carbapenemase, colistin at this phase is a last resort medication we have (Aghapour, et al., 2019). Lack of new gram negative antibiotics, have lead us to a reassessment of the present old antibiotics, so it becomes crucial to do research on this matter. The appearances of colistin resistance in bacteria have been a noteworthy medical and public health issue (El-Sayed, et al., 2020). Frequent side effects of these antibiotics comprise several problems of kidney and neurological issues too (Zafer, et al., 2019). Other grave side effects comprise muscle weakness, anaphylaxis, and diarrhea, bronchioles constriction etc. It is also not clear, whether it is safe or not during the pregnancy period (Loho, et al., 2015). The cytoplasmic membrane breaking normally results in the death of bacterial cells. Colistin was first derived and discovered in the year 1947 and the FDA approval of colistimethate sodium

2.2. Acquired resistance mechanisms in *Enterobacteriaceae*

The Acquired mechanism of colistin resistance have been seen in many associates of the members of *Enterobacteriaceae* like, *Klebsiella* and various other species of bacteria (Olaiton, et al., 2014). Mechanism of resistance is supposed to be linked to untransferable mutations in chromosomes by means of gene transfer horizontally. Only one resistance mechanism/process has been recognized as a mechanism of transfer. Quite a number of operons and genes are involved in the role of LPS modification, which leads to the resistance of colistin (Olaiton, et al., 2014).

2.3 *mgrB* gene and *PhoPQ* and *PmrAB* regulators of two components systems

Several regulators and operons play a vital function in modifying the LPS through *PhoPQ* and *PmrAB*. The operon *pmrABC* in the form of regulator protein encodes *PmrA* (*BasR*) as a cytoplasmic membrane bound sensor kinase and the *PmrB* (*BasS*) and *PmrC* as a presumed membrane protein. The adding of the L-Ara4N or L-arabinoseamine to the 4-phosphate or 1-phosphate group causes the colistin resistance (Andrade, et al., 2020). Usually, L-Ara4N is joined to the 4'-phosphate and it changes it while PETN is linked to the 1-phosphate group (Olaiton, et al., 2014). The operon *pmrHFIJKLM* which is also termed as the *arnBCDADTEF* or the *pbgPE* and *PmrE* produce L-Ara4N from the acid uridine diphosphate glucuronic acid and then attaches it to the lipid A. The L-Ara4N biosynthesis is dependent on the operon *pmr* (*arn*) (Olaiton, et al., 2014). Furthermore, under various ecological stimulants, like the macrophagic phagosomes, the elevated concentration of iron or Fe^{3+} and aluminium exposure also subject to acidic pH. It causes the activation of *PmrB*. On the contrary, low Mg and Ca concentration causes the *phoQ* activation. Through phosphorylation *PmrB* activates *PmrA* and then *PmrA* in turn, further undertakes activation and regulation of the operons *pmrABC*, *pmrHFIJKLM* and the gene *pmrE*. Consequently, these genes and operons causes modification of LPS by adding both L-Ara4N and PETN to the lipid A (Olaiton, et al., 2014). Mutation of the *pmrB/pmrA* leads to the *pmrABC* and *pmrHFIJKLM* upregulation of operons. *pmrB* and *pmrA* mutations cause colistin resistance, which has been researched in both the *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and *Salmonella entericca*. On the contrary, the *PhoP* is encoded by the *phoPQ* TCS in the form of regulator protein and *PhoQ* in the form of a sensor kinase (Olaiton, et al., 2014). Under circumstances of quite low levels of both magnesium or calcium, or cationic antimicrobial peptide, acidic pH, the *PhoPQ* gets activated and it defends the bacteria. Activated *PhoPQ* causes the lipid A modification through two routes. First, activation of *PhoP* by *PhoQ* through its activity of kinase by phosphorylation process. It then activates the *pmrHFIJKLM* operon transcription, i.e, followed by lipidA modification and *PhoP* in some way that activates *pmrA* via bypassing the connector protein i.e, *PmrD*. Consequently it activates the *pmrHFIJKLM* operon transcription and synthesis of PETN, which moves it to lipid A (Olaiton, et al., 2014). Many PETN-coding genes, like the *eptA* (*pmrC*), *eptC* (*cptA*) and *eptB* (*pagC*) are quite able to add PETN to various sites of LPS. *phoP/Q* genes mutation has been recognized in *E.coli* and also in *K. pneumoniae* that causes acquired colistin resistance (Olaiton, et al., 2014). The transmembrane protein is encoded by the *mgrB* gene of 47 amino acids which gives negative feedback on the *PhoPQ* TCS. These proteins restrain the *PhoQ* kinase activity, which in return represses the *phoQ* gene expression. However, the *mgrB* mutation causes *phoPQ* operon upregulation and consequent activation of the operon *pmrHFIJKLM*. Lastly, L-Ara4N synthesis causes the lipid A modification and colistin resistance. (F. Andrade, et al., 2020)

2.4. *CrrAB* two-component system

The operon *crrAB* encodes two types of proteins: i.e, the regulatory protein *CrrA* and the sensor kinase protein *CrrB* (Aghapour, et al., 2019). Scientists described that the *CrrB* mutation causes colistin resistance in the *K.pneumoniae*. The *CrrB* mutated protein controls an adjacent *crrAB* gene which encodes a glycosyltransferase protein. It then causes lipid A modification (Aghapour, et al., 2019). In another study, it showed that the *crrB* gene mutation caused the *pmrHFIJKLM* operon activation and activation of the *pmrE* and *pmrC* genes via *pmrAB* operon over expression. Moreover, the L-Ara4N and PETN production and addition to lipid A caused attainment of colistin resistance. It was established that the *CrrC* created a connection between the *pmrAB* and *CrrAB* systems. The *crrB* gene Mutation led to elevated *crrC* transcription (Aghapour, et al., 2019).

2.5. Plasmid-mediated resistance to colistin

Plasmid mediated colistin is quite important issue and also concerning due to easy colistin resistance gene transfer to various strains. The *mcr* genes are accountable for colistin resistance horizontal transfer (Aghapour, et al., 2019). It is worth pointing out that the *mcr-1* production causes resistance to lysozymes. Documented findings of the, *mcrI* mediated

colistin resistance genes has been found in many regions, that is, Europe, America, Asia and Africa. Some of the plasmids possessing the *mcr1* gene carry several other genes which are resistant to other antibiotics, like, β -lactams, quinolones, aminoglycosides, tetracyclines, and fosfomycin, etc. The *mcr* gene has also been found in many isolates of *Enterobacteriaceae*, that carry carbapenemase genes as *bla_{NDM5}*, *bla_{NDM1}*, *bla_{NDM8}*, *bla_{OXA49}*, *bla_{KPC3}*, and *bla_{VIM2}*. Recently, scientists discovered a novel colistin resistance gene of the plasmid mediated ones, i.e, the *mcr2*, in *E. coli* (Aghapour, et al., 2019). Afterward the genes *mcr4* and *mcr3* genes were found. Further, three more varieties of colistin-resistance genes i.e, the *mcr6*, *mcr8* and *mcr7* were discovered in year 2018. Scientists suggested that origins of *mcr-7*, were from the species *Aeromonas*, and the structure was quite similar to *mcr3* (Aghapour, et al., 2019). Also it was noted that, *mcr7* showed 78% of the nucleotide identity to the gene *mcr3*. Ultimately, a new genetic factor was found in *K. pneumoniae*. It was recognized as the *mcr8* and its coexistence with the *bla* carbapenemase gene, was quite concerning. Both *mcr2* and *mcr1* genes origins were from the *Moraxella* spp. (Minarini, 2021)

2.6. Role of regulator RamA

The locus *ramA* has 3 genes i.e, *romA*, *ramA*, and *ramR*. The gene *ramR* has a crucial role as the *romA* and *ramA* repressor genes. Some members of the *Enterobacteriaceae* possess a regulator i.e, *ramA*, like the *K. pneumoniae*, *Enterobacter* spp., *Citrobacter* spp and *Salmonella* spp (Aghapour, et al., 2019). In the *Pneumonia* species this regulator regulates the synthesis of lipid A and is linked to several permeability barriers present in it. It has been pointed out that the alterations of *ramA* lead to colistin susceptibility reductions (Aghapour, et al., 2019) .

2.7. Role of capsule in colistin resistance

The function of the capsular polysaccharide or CPS has been confirmed to be defensive against various antimicrobial peptide cations. The capsule layer numbers is proportional to the resistance level. (Andrade, et al.2020) It has been seen that *pneumoniae* species with numerous layers were more colistin resistant than those isolates with less number of layers. Nevertheless, capsular biosynthesis gene upregulation gene caused a decrease in the frequency of colistin interaction with the pneumonia species target-site that was followed by increase in the colistin resistance. As a result, there are few regulators of the capsule formation, like Cpx or the conjugative pilus and Rcs or the regulator of capsule synthesis. Both the Cpx and Rcs also tend to appear in order to contribute for colistin resistance via activation of the KpnEF efflux pump and PhoPQ TCS regulation (Ahmed, et al., 2020).

2.8. Role of efflux pumps

A few reports have showed that these systems of efflux-pump are well involved in resistance against colistin. Many Efflux pumps, like the AcrAB and the Sap proteins, have been found in many species of *Enterobacteriaceae*. By the pump activation, colistin resistance is increased drastically. (Aghapour, et al., 2019)

3. OVERVIEW OF COLISTIN RESISTANCE ENTEROBACTERIACE IN NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL SCENARIO

In a report, the water samples from medical centres and ecological sources that belong to densely populated areas of state West Bengal(India) were studied and *Escherchia coli* was found to be a dominant colistin resistant microbe (Bardhan, et al. ,2020). In second report, colistin resistant microbial strains from the river Funan(located in Chengdu in China) were studied and the microbe was *Enterobacter cloaca* (Tuo, et al.,2018). In third report, in Germany the data were studied from various poultry and slaughterhouses. The bacteria showing colistin resistant was *K.pneumoniae* (Bierbaum, et al. ,2020). In fourth report, in Abboitrs in Germany, the waste water and slaughter house water sources were studied for colistin-resistant genes, the bacteria was *K.pneumoniae* (Bachmann, et al. ,2021). In the fifth report, throughout the years 2014–2016, from a worldwide study on the *Enterobacteriaceae* included samples from labrotories present in Europe, Asia, Latin America , Middle East including Africa region and laboratories from United States were studied. The dominant colistin resistant bacteria was *Escherchia coli*(Wise, et al. ,2018). In the sixth report, data were studied from several water sources from Nigeria, i.e, Kano, Abuja, Nnewi, Yola , Akwa, Ibadan and Ibom, and the colistin resistant was only found in the *Enterobacteria colaecece*(Terriera, et al.,2020). In seventh report, from ão Paulo state of Brazil, the data on microbial resistant Enterobacteriace from medical sewage were studied. It was found that the microbe *Staphylococcus aureus* was dominant (Zagui, et al., 2020) in it. In eighth report, village Nguyen Xa (present in province of Thai Binh, country-Vietnam) the waste water from household and clinics were studied and the bacterial culture was,

Escherichia coli. It was also studied that a great fraction of the individuals living in households had members carrying bacteria (with colistin resistant) (Yamamoto, et al., 2018). In ninth report from Africa (North Africa), the Colistin resistance was seen in isolates of *Escherichia coli* which were studied from various clinical samples (Okere, et al., 2020). In tenth report, reports from sea food and un-chlorinated water sources of Nepal were studied and the colistin-resistance was found in *Escherichia coli* (Young, 2019). The tabular format of the case studies is given below (table-1)

Table 1: case studies

Sl. No.	Description	Resistance Microbes	Scientist names
1	Hospital wastewater and ecological sources of west Bengal	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	(Bardhan, et al., 2020)
2	Funan River near Residential areas, China	<i>Enterobacter cloacae</i>	(Tuo, et al., 2018)
3	Sewage from poultry and pig slaughter houses, Germany	<i>K.pneumoniae</i>	(Bierbaum, et al., 2020)
4	Wastewater of Abattoirs, Germany	<i>K.pneumoniae</i>	(Homeier-Bachmann, et al., 2021)
5	Exposed wounds of patients infected by infected water, Thailand Malaysia, Spain, Italy, Argentina, Germany, Colombia, Brazil, Poland, Hong Kong, Russia Portugal, Taiwan, South Africa and Venezuela,	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	(Wise, et al., 2018)
6	From water areas in Nigeria (i.e, Kano, Abuja, Nnewi, Yola, Akwa, Ibadan and Ibom)	<i>Enterobacter cloacae</i>	(Terriera, et al., 2020)
7	Sewage from hospitals, Brazil	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	(Zagui, et al., 2020)
8	Stool specimens of infected individuals working in infected water of agricultural areas, Vietnam	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	(Yamamoto, et al., 2018)
9	Human clinical samples, Africa (mainly from North Africa)	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	(Olowo-Okere, et al., 2020)
10	unchlorinated water and sea-food like shellfish in Nepal	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	(Young, 2019)

The graphs below show the frequency of microbial occurrence (the graphs show the number of times these colistin resistant microbes appeared in the study) in percentage are given below in figure-2 and figure-3, with *Escherichia coli* 50% followed by *Enterobacter cloacae* (20%), *K.pneumoniae* (20%) and *Staphylococcus aureus* (10%)

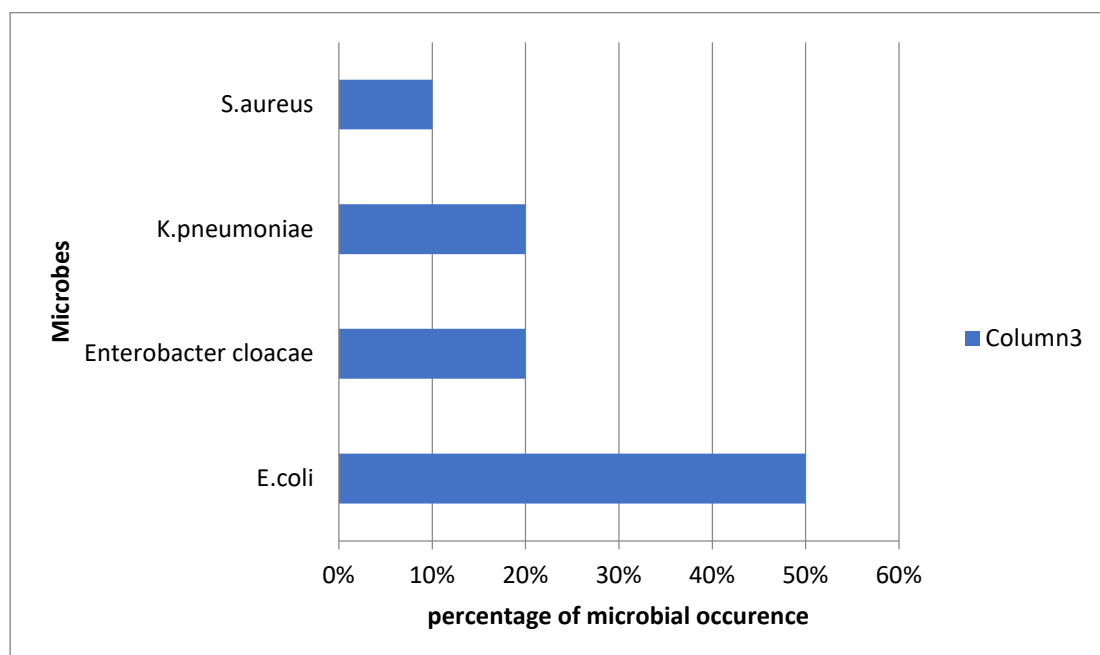


Figure 2: showing frequency of microbial occurrence (in percentage) in bar graph

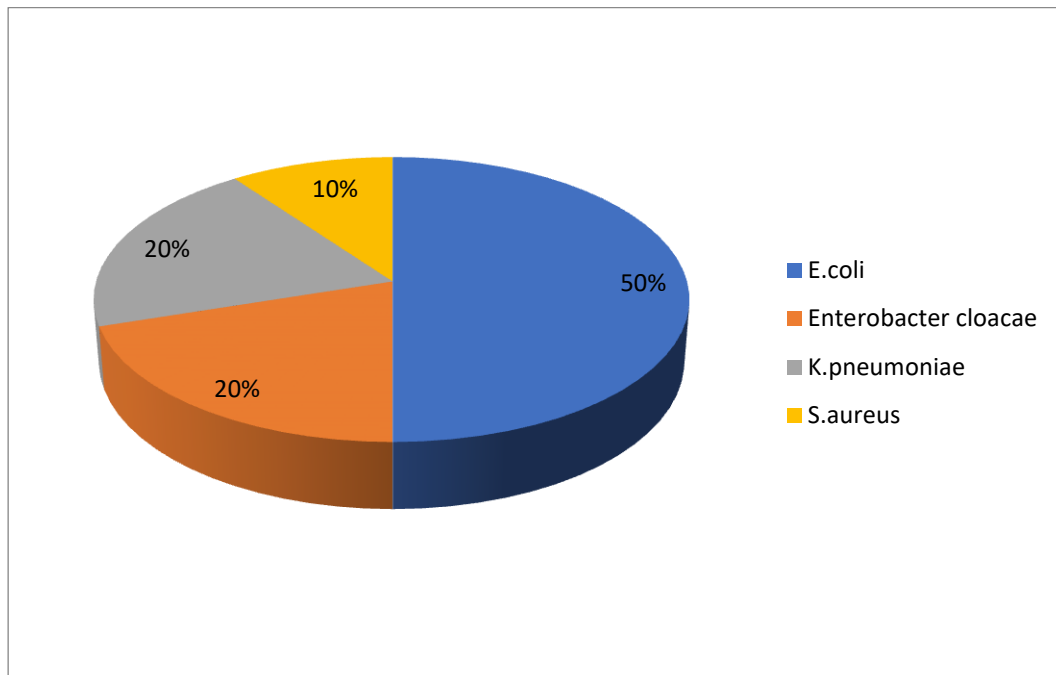


Figure 3: shows the frequency of microbial occurrence(in percentage) in pie-chart

4. CONCLUSION

To conclude, from 10 case studies on *Enterobacteriaceae* with colistin resistant microbes collected, it was seen that the *Escherichia coli* was mostly seen i.e. 50% followed by *Enterobacter cloacae* (20%), *K.pneumoniae* (20%) and *Staphylococcus aureus* (10%). In recent years, the growing use of the colistin in various fields, has caused the surfacing of colistin resistance. Studies have revealed that the cases of colistin- resistance has increased in *Enterobacteriaceae*. Clinicians should be aware about the likelihood of colistin resistance in MDR bacteria and the colistin resistance development via adaptations or mutation mechanism (Shen, et.al.,2020). Rapid emergence of the bacterial resistance has made it tough for us to depend on development of new antibiotics. In this context, we need to take correct approaches for using older antibiotics, like colistin, in order to deal with bacterial resistance.

REFERENCES

- [1] Savin, M., Bierbaum, G., Blau, K., Parcina, M., Sib, E., Smalla, K., Schmithausen, R., Heinemann, C., Hammerl, J.A and Kreyenschmidt, J (2020) Colistin-Resistant *Enterobacteriaceae* Isolated From Process Waters and Wastewater From German Poultry and Pig Slaughterhouses. *Front. Microbiol*,11, 2699. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2020.575391>
- [2] Terrier ,C.L., Amandine, M., Nkolika, S.U., Chinagozi P. Edwin, Agantem, E. E., Folake, O., Shuwaram, S., Simon, U., Laurent, P., Patrice, N., (2020) Wide spread of carbapenemase-producing bacterial isolates in a Nigerian environment, *Journal of Global Antimicrobial Resistance*, 21, 321-323 <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S2213716519302681>
- [3] Aghapour, Z., Gholizadeh, P., Ganbarov, K., Bialvaei, A. Z., Mahmood, S. S., Tanomand, A., Yousefi, M., Asgharzadeh, M., Yousefi, B., & Kafil, H. S. (2019). Molecular mechanisms related to colistin resistance in *Enterobacteriaceae*. *Infection and drug resistance*, 12, 965–975. <https://doi.org/10.2147/IDR.S199844>
- [4] Loho T., & Dharmayanti, A. (2015). Colistin: an antibiotic and its role in multiresistant Gram-negative infections. *Acta medica Indonesiana*, 47(2), 157–168. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26260559/>
- [5] Olutayo I. Falodun, Abimbola O. Adekanmbi (2016).Antibiogram of *Escherichia coli* and *Pseudomonas* Strains Isolated from Wastewater Generated by an Abattoir as It Journeys into a Receiving River. *Advances in Microbiology*, 6, 303-309. <https://www.scirp.org/journal/paperinformation.aspx?paperid=65596>
- [6] Tuo, H., Yang, Y., Tao, X., Liu, D., Li, Y., Xie, X., Li, P., Gu, J., Kong, L., Xiang, R., Lei, C., Wang, H., & Zhang, A. (2018). The Prevalence of Colistin Resistant Strains and Antibiotic Resistance Gene Profiles in Funan River, China. *Frontiers in microbiology*, 9, 3094. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2018.03094>

- [7] Bardhan, T., Chakraborty, M., & Bhattacharjee, B. (2020). Prevalence of Colistin-Resistant, Carbapenem-Hydrolyzing Proteobacteria in Hospital Water Bodies and Out-Falls of West Bengal, India. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 17(3), 1007. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17031007>
- [8] Zagui K G., Tonani K., Fregonesi B., Machado G., Silva T., Andrade L., Andrade D. & Segura-Muñoz S. (2022). Tertiary hospital sewage as reservoir of bacteria expressing MDR phenotype in Brazil, 82, <https://doi.org/10.1590/1519-6984.234471>
- [9] Olowo-Okere, A., & Yacouba, A. (2020). Molecular mechanisms of colistin resistance in Africa: A systematic review of literature. *Germs*, 10(4), 367–379. <https://doi.org/10.18683/germs.2020.1229>
- [10] Wise, M. G., Estabrook, M. A., Sahm, D. F., Stone, G. G., & Kazmierczak, K. M. (2018). Prevalence of mcr-type genes among colistin-resistant Enterobacteriaceae collected in 2014-2016 as part of the INFORM global surveillance program. *PLoS one*, 13(4), e0195281. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0195281>
- [11] Yamamoto, Y., Kawahara, R., Fujiya, Y., Sasaki, T., Hirai., Khong, Diep., Thi, N, T, N., Nguyen, B, X., (2019). Wide dissemination of colistin-resistant *Escherichia coli* with the mobile resistance gene *mcr* in healthy residents in Vietnam, *Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy*, 74(2), 523–524, <https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dky435>
- [12] Young Cristin Cowles Weekley (2019). Antimicrobial Resistance from a One Health Perspective in Nepal, *ProQuest*, 27540039, <https://www.proquest.com/openview/7f5b07462d4af93430c94df06f0e19d6/1?pq-origsite=gscholar&cbl=18750&diss=y>
- [13] Isabelle ,K, Eric J, Claire (2016). Colistin use and colistin resistance in bacteria from animals, *International Journal of Antimicrobial Agents*, 48(6), 598-606, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2016.09.016>.
- [14] Gurjar, M. (2015). Colistin for lung infection: an update. *Journal of intensive care*, 3(1), 3. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40560-015-0072-9>
- [15] Homeier-Bachmann T, Heiden SE, Lübcke PK, Bachmann L, Bohnert JA, Zimmermann D, Schaufler K.(2021), Antibiotic-Resistant *Enterobacteriaceae* in Wastewater of Abattoirs. *Antibiotics*, 10(5),568. <https://doi.org/10.3390/antibiotics10050568>
- [16] Olaitan A, O., Morand, S., Rolain, J.M. (2014). Mechanisms of polymyxin resistance: acquired and intrinsic resistance in bacteria, *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 5, 643. <https://www.frontiersin.org/article/10.3389/fmicb.2014.00643>
- [17] Minarini, R., Andrade LeonardoN, De Gregorio Eliana, Grosso Filipa, Naas Thierry, Zarrilli Raffaele, Camargo Ilana L. B. C. (2020) Antimicrobial Resistance as a Global Public Health Problem: How Can We Address It?, 8, 768. <https://www.frontiersin.org/article/10.3389/fpubh.2020.612844>
- [18] El-Sayed, A. M., Zhong, L. L., Shen, C., Yang, Y., Doi, Y., & Tian, G. B. (2020). Colistin and its role in the Era of antibiotic resistance: an extended review (2000-2019). *Emerging microbes & infections*, 9(1), 868–885. <https://doi.org/10.1080/22221751.2020.1754133>
- [19] Biswas, S., Brunel, J. M., Dubus, J. C., Reynaud-Gaubert, M., & Rolain, J. M. (2012). Colistin: an update on the antibiotic of the 21st century. *Expert review of anti-infective therapy*, 10(8), 917–934. <https://doi.org/10.1586/eri.12.78>
- [20] Shen, Y., Zhang, R., Schwarz, S., Wu, C., Shen., Walsh, T. R., Wang, Y., (2020). Farm animals and aquaculture: significant reservoirs of mobile colistin resistance genes. *Environmental Microbiology* 22(7), 2469-2484. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1462-2920.14961>
- [21] Andrade, F., Silva, D., Rodrigues, A and Pina-Vaz Cidália (2020). Colistin Update on Its Mechanism of Action and Resistance, Present and Future Challenges. *Microorganisms*. <https://www.mdpi.com/2076-2607/8/11/1716/pdf>
- [22] Zafer, M.M., El-Mahallawy, H.A., Abdulhak, A. et al.(2019). Emergence of colistin resistance in multidrug-resistant *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and *Escherichia coli* strains isolated from cancer patients. *Ann Clin Microbiol Antimicrob* 18, 40 <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12941-019-0339-4>