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IDENTIFICATION OF THE PRESENCE OF ANTIBIOTIC GENES IN ESCHERICHIA COLI IN DRINKING WATER SAMPLES OBTAINED FROM THE MALABE REGION

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ABSTRACT

Antibiotic resistance is a threat that has manifested into a global crisis, causing several fatalities yearly. In developing countries, the prevalence of antibiotic resistance is rapidly increasing due to sub-standard disinfection and clearance protocols of hospital and household sewage and waste matter, and inadequate surveillance. Surface and ground waters are hot-spots for the dissemination of antibiotic resistance via horizontal and vertical gene transfer leading to the development of multidrug resistant bacteria capable of causing fatal infections. *Escherichia coli* is a known vector of antibiotic resistance and a commonly studied waterborne pathogen. For the isolation and differentiation of *E. coli* from other coliforms, initial membrane filtration and chromogenic culturing was carried to allow a non-specific size-based separation followed by colony colour based selection of potential *E. coli* isolates. The Simmon's citrate agar test was performed which showed negative results for 9 samples, followed by the indole test which showed positive results for 10 samples. Further, molecular analysis was performed wherein it was found that 10 samples were positive for the 16SrRNA gene, all samples possessed the uidA gene and 9 isolates carried the LacY gene. Disc-diffusion antibiotic sensitivity testing on the 9 isolates revealed samples 2, 5, 6, and 11 were resistant to tetracycline, however sulfonamide sensitivity was observed among all

samples. Molecular analysis of tetA and tetC genes showed that sample 6, collected from a lake showed positive results for tetA, whereas sample 2, collected from a tube well, and samples 5 and 11 from fishing site possessed the tetC gene.

Keywords: Antibiotic resistance, *Escherichia Coli*, Tetracycline resistance, Sulfonamide resistance.

INTRODUCTION

Antibiotic resistance

The discovery and development of antibacterial agents in the early 1900s was a breakthrough, which provided an effective treatment strategy and dramatically reduced the mortality rates due to bacterial infections (Davies and Davies, 2010). In modern times however, the term 'antibiotic resistance' which refers to the ineffectiveness of antibiotics to treat bacterial infections, has become increasingly common (Perry, 2019). Socioeconomic factors such as lack of education on the topic, poor surveillance, overuse and misuse in clinical and agricultural settings exacerbate the development and rapid spread of AR (Chokshi et al., 2019; Jayaweerasingham et al., 2019; Berglund, 2015). Antibiotics act as selection pressures on bacteria and organisms that develop or acquire resistance are selected. The organisms can then disseminate ARGs vertically and horizontally leading to several strains and species of AR and MDR organisms.

Infections by such organisms account for up to 700,000 fatalities annually (WHO, 2020; Aslam et al., 2018; Collington et al., 2018; Toner et al., 2015). Water bodies can be contaminated with ARB and ARGs from agricultural, household or hospital waste/sewage. Once consumed, ARB in the water can cause pathogenic effects and the ARGs can be further disseminated (Fig.1) (Watts et al., 2017).

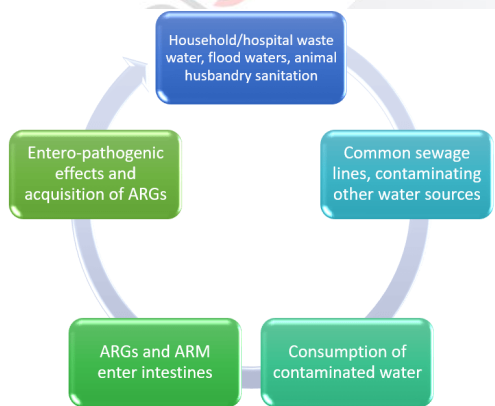


Figure 1: The dissemination mechanism of ARGs. ARGs contaminate water bodies and remain in surface or ground-water. Pathogenic effects and faecal contamination of water via sewage can occur following consumption (Adapted from: Sanganyado and Gwenzi, 2019).

Tetracycline resistance

Tetracyclines exhibit bacteriostatic effects on a wide range of gram negative and gram positive organisms by binding to the 30s domain of 70s bacterial ribosomes, inhibiting the binding of aminoacylated-tRNA molecules to the A-site. This inhibits protein synthesis, therefore arresting growth and metabolic processes of the bacterium (Nicolaou and Rigol, 2017; Nguyen et al., 2014).

A plethora of genes contribute to tetracycline resistance via mechanisms such as; efflux, ribosomal protection and

enzymatic degradation. Novel research has also revealed a TetU resistance gene, however, the mechanism of action remains unclear (Grossman, 2016; Roberts and Schwarz, 2017).

Tetracycline efflux mechanisms are mediated by the “Major Facilitator Superfamily” which are transmembrane proteins that actively transport tetracycline out of the bacterial cell, facilitated by the exchange of a proton into the cell (Fig.2). The *tetA* and *tetB* genes are more commonly found in the gram negative bacteria, whereas *tetK* and *tetL* are more prevalent in the gram positive bacterium (Roberts, 2020).

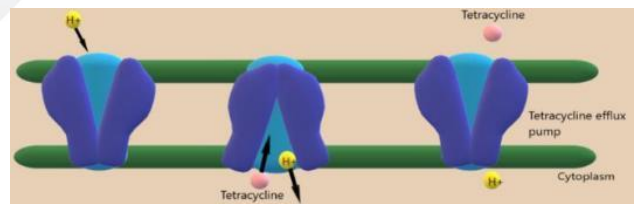


Figure 2: Mechanism of action of the tetracycline efflux pump. Influx of a proton can induce a conformational change to the channel, causing tetracycline molecules to be pumped out of the cell (Adapted from: Nguyen et al., 2014).

Sulfonamide resistance

The bacteriostatic properties of the sulfonamides were first noted in the 1930s and its derivatives became widely used to treat bacterial pneumonia and UTIs by the 1940s. The enzyme DHPS catalyses the reaction between dihydropteroate diphosphate and PABA into tetrahydrofolate. Sulfonamides exhibit a similar structure to PABA (Fig.4(A)) allowing it to competitively inhibit DHPS, which inhibits the formation of tetrahydrofolate (Fig.4(B)), consequently arresting DNA synthesis (Yousef et al., 2018; Capasso and Supuran, 2020).

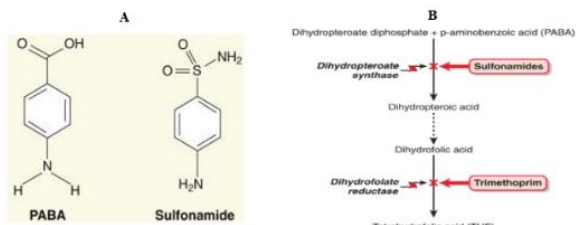


Figure 3: Sulfonamide structure and mechanism of action. A) The similarity between sulfonamides and PABA; B) The targets effects of sulfonamides (Bastal et al., 2011).

Research shows that bacteria acquire resistance to sulfonamides by either spontaneous mutation in the folP gene which codes for DHPS, or by acquisition of the plasmid genes; sul1, sul2, sul3, and the novel sul4 variant which code for structurally diverse forms of DHPS that have a low affinity for sulfonamides (Razavi et al. 2017; Jiang et al., 2019). Furthermore, the flavin-dependent monooxygenase SulX enzyme, coded by the sulX, gene causes resistance to sulfonamides by enzymatic degradation (Kim et al., 2019).

Escherechia Coli

Escherechia Coli is a bacterium of great interest in the modern world and several commensal, pathogenic and environmental strains exist. Though the organism exists within the intestinal flora, several pathotypes exist such as; Enterotoxic, Shigatoxic, Enteroaggravative, Enteroainvasive, diffusely adherent, Enteropathogenic, Enterohemorrhagic, Enteroaggravative shigatoxic (DEC) and the uropathogenic and neonatal meningitis E. Coli (ExpEC) strains which cause disease. E. Coli is also a common contaminant of waterbodies and is a known vector of ARG dissemination. (Barbau-Piednoir et al., 2018; Miotto et al., 2018; Larson et al., 2019; Pleguezuelos-Manzano et al., 2019).

Distinguishing features of Escherechia Coli

Though there are several variations (genetic and otherwise) within the species, there are multitudinous similarities that allow for the unique identification and analysis of E. Coli. This particular bacterium possesses a thin peptidoglycan cell wall, therefore, morphological analysis of Gram stained E. Coli would result in the visualization of pink, rod shaped bacteria. Regulated by the tnaL (leader peptide), tnaA (tryptophanase), and tnaB (tryptophan permease) genes of the tna operon, E. Coli utilize and ferment tryptophan for metabolic processes, which is an attribute that answers the indole test (Han et al., 2011; Orozco-Gómez et al., 2019). E. Coli also metabolize glucuronide using β -glucuronidase, coded by the uidA gene, which allows differential identification when cultured on glucuronide rich media (Sivri et al., 2016). Contrastingly, E.Coli is unable to metabolize citrate and therefore does not thrive on citrate rich media (Leon et al., 2018).

Significance of the study

Studies show that the presence of antibiotic resistant strains of E. Coli and other organisms are rising within Sri Lanka (Kumar et al., 2020; Liyanage and Manage, 2019; Priyadharshana et al., 2019). This study aims to analyse the conditions and contributors of antibiotic resistance in a selected population. Over the last decade a population increase of over 30% has been observed in the urbanized city of Malabe, which has been correlated with an increase in pollution and depletion in ground water quality (Fernando and Rathnayake, 2018). This archeo-ecological wet-zone receives a significant amount of groundwater from the Kelani river and villagers of the outskirts rely on the water from streams branching off the river and wells for consumption, fishing, sanitation and bathing purposes. Studies show that the Kelani river harbours several coliform contaminants of up to 500cells/mL, more

specifically, with *E. Coli* prevalence of up to 57CFUs/mL. Several strains isolated show multidrug resistance and a high prevalence of tetracycline and sulfonamide genes, among others, have been identified (Kumar et al., 2020; Kumar et al., 2020; Surasinghe et al., 2019). By analysing the presence of common antibiotic resistant genes in *E. Coli* present in these highly used water bodies, the prevalence of antibiotic resistance can be roughly determined within the region. Furthermore, the results obtained can potentially be coupled with other similar studies in order to assess the status of antibiotic resistance within the country and to educate the high risk populations about the dangers, and preventive measures of antibiotic resistance.

METHODOLOGY

Measurement of physicochemical parameters

The pH and temperature of the 10 water samples were measured using an electronic probe and chloride strips were used to estimate the chloride concentration.

Membrane filtration

25.00mL of chromogenic agar was poured into 24 petri plates and allowed to solidify. A 0.45µm pore membrane filter was placed in a Buchner funnel and 100mL of the first water sample was filtered. The filter was then placed on the corresponding chromogenic agar and the plate was parafilmmed. This was repeated for the same sample to create a duplicate and the process was repeated for the remaining samples, positive (ATCC25922 *E. coli*) and negative (autoclaved distilled water) controls. All plates were inverted and incubated at 37°C for 24hours and CFUs were counted the next day.

Colony isolation

Into 12 falcon tubes, 5.00mL of LB broth was poured and allowed to cool. Colonies of interest from each chromogenic culture were selected with a sterilized inoculation loop and transferred into the corresponding falcon tube and the tubes were incubated at 37°C for 24hours.

The next day, the falcon tubes were observed for turbidity. Into 11 petri plates, 25.00mL of nutrient agar was poured and allowed to cool. Quadrant streaking of each inoculum was carried out onto the corresponding plate. The plates were sealed, inverted and incubated at 37°C for 24hours.

Into 12 labelled falcon tubes, 5.00mL of LB broth was poured and allowed to cool. Isolated colonies from each plate were selected and inoculated into the corresponding tube, which were incubated at 37°C for 24hours and then refrigerated.

Biochemical (Citrate and Indole test) and morphological (Gram staining) analysis

Into 14 autoclaved test tubes, 5.00mL of Simmon's citrate agar was poured and allowed to solidify at a slant. A sample of each sub-culture, the ATCC25923 *S.Aureus* and ATCC25922 *E.Coli* mother-cultures, was swabbed onto the corresponding citrate agar. The tubes were sealed with cotton and foil and incubated at 37°C for 24hours and visualized the next day.

Consecutively, into 13 autoclaved test tubes, 5.00mL of tryptophan broth was poured. Each tube was inoculated with the corresponding sub-culture and controls. The tubes were covered with foil and incubated at 37°C for 24hours. The next day, 0.5mL of Kovack's reagent was added to each tube and the interface was observed.

Grams-staining was carried out for S1-S11 and 40x and 100x microscopic observations were performed.

Genomic DNA Extraction and visualization

An overnight sub-culture of all samples and positive control was prepared. Genomic DNA was extracted from all samples using the Promega kit. 5.00µL of each extracted sample was mixed with 2.00µL of loading buffer and subjected to 0.8% agarose gel electrophoresis at 60V for 25 minutes, and then visualized using UV trans-illumination. The extracted samples were stored at 4°C.

Polymerase Chain Reaction (16SrRNA, uidA and LacY) and product visualization

Primers for 16SrRNA (F: 5'-GTTGTAAGCACTTTGAGTGGTGA GGAAGG-3'; R: 5'-GCCTCAAGGGCACAACCTCCAAG-3') (Gao et al., 2012), uidA (UALF: 5'-TGGTAATTACCGACGAAAACGG-3'; UAR: 5'-ACGCGTGGTTACAGTCTTGCG-3') (Molina, et al., 2015) and LacY (F: 5'-ACCAGACCCAGCACCAGATAAG-3'; R: 5'-TTCTGCTTCTTTAAGCAACTGGC-3') (Lobersli et al., 2016) were diluted into 2.5µM solutions.

Separate PCR mixtures were prepared for and 16SrRNA, uidA and LacY. Each mixture consisted of 5.00µl of 5x PCR buffer, 0.625µl of 10.00mM dNTPs, 2.50µl of 2.5µM forward and reverse primers, and 1.50µl of 25.00µM MgCl₂. This was followed by adding 1.50µL of the corresponding extracted DNA, and 1.50µL of distilled water for the blank control.

The PCR mixtures for the identification of the 16SrRNA gene were placed in the thermal cycler and run at 94°C for 2 minutes (initial denaturation), 35 repetitions of 94°C for 30 seconds (denaturation), 55°C for 45 seconds (annealing), 72°C for 90 seconds (extension), and 72°C for 10 minutes (final extension) (adapted from He et al., 2007). The PCR mixtures for the identification of the uidA gene were placed in the thermal cycler and run at

95°C for 3 minutes (initial denaturation), 35 repetitions of 95°C for 30 seconds (denaturation), 58°C for 30 seconds (annealing), 72°C for 60 seconds (extension), and 72°C for 10 minutes (final extension) (adapted from Fatemeh et al., 2014). For the identification of the LacY gene, the mixtures were placed in the thermal cycler and run at 94°C for 3 minutes (initial denaturation), 35 repetitions of 94°C for 60 seconds (denaturation), 58°C for 30 seconds (annealing), 72°C for 60 seconds (extension), and 72°C for 5 minutes (final extension) (adapted from Lobersli et al., 2016).

Samples were then subjected to 2.0% agarose gel electrophoresis at 50V for 20 minutes and 45V for 40 minutes and visualized using UV trans-illumination.

Antibiotic Disk Diffusion

Selected samples and positive control cultures were inoculated in fresh LB broth and incubated at 37°C. Following 24 hours, 20 petri plates were labelled, segmented into three divisions; T-tetracycline, S-Sulfonamide, N-Negative, and filled with 25.00mL of MHA. Standard solutions of each overnight culture were prepared by inoculating the culture drop-wise into 5.00mL of autoclaved, distilled water while turbidity was compared with a 0.5McFarland solution against a Wickerham card. Following the Kirby-Bauer disc diffusion protocol each standard culture was swabbed on to the corresponding plate, and 30µg tetracycline, 300µg sulfonamide and autoclaved distilled water discs were placed appropriately. The plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 hours. The following day, the zones of inhibition were measured and compared with CLSI standards (Table 6).

Table 1:CLSI standards for zones of inhibition

Antibiotic	Tetracycline 30µg (mm)	Sulfonamide 300µg (mm)
Sensitive	≥15	≥16
Intermediate	12 -14	11-15
Resistant	≤11	≤10

PCR (tetA and tetC) and product visualization

Primers for tetA (F: 5'-GCTACATCCTGCTTGCCTTC-3'; R: 5'-CATAGATCGCCGTGAAGAGG-3') and tetC (F: 5'-TGCGTTGATGCAATTTCTATGC-3'; R: 5'-GGAATGGTGCATGCAAGGAG-3') (Chen et al., 2013) were diluted into 2.5µM solutions.

Separate PCR mixtures were prepared for tetA and tetC gene identification using the same volumes and concentrations previously stated.

The PCR mixtures for the identification of the tetA gene were placed in the thermal cycler and run at 95°C for 5 minutes (initial denaturation), 40 repetitions of 95°C for 20 seconds (denaturation), 60°C for 30 seconds (annealing), 72°C for 30 seconds (extension), and 72°C for 10 minutes (final extension) (Chen et al., 2013). The PCR mixtures for the identification of the tetC gene were placed in the thermal cycler and run at 95°C for 5 minutes (initial denaturation), 40 repetitions of 95°C for 20 seconds (denaturation), 64°C for 40 seconds (annealing), 72°C for 30 seconds (extension), and 72°C for 10 minutes (final extension) (Chen et al., 2013).

Samples were then subjected to 2.0% agarose gel electrophoresis at 50V for 20 minutes, then 45V for 40 minutes and visualized using UV trans-illumination.

RESULTS

Sample collection data and physiochemical parameters of the water samples

Table 2: Sources and physiochemical parameters of each sample

Location	Source	pH	Avg. pH	Temperature (°C)	Avg. temperature (°C)	Chlorine concentration (ppm)
1	Tap water	6.95	6.984	28.00	28.30	5
2	Filtered water	7.02		28.00		5
3	Stream	7.03		28.00		<5
4	Fishing site	6.82		29.00		<5
5	Tube well	7.05		28.00		<5
6	Lake	7.02		29.00		<5
7	Stream	6.92		28.00		<5
8	Lake	6.89		28.00		<5
9	Well (unprotected)	7.02		28.00		<5
10	Well (protected)	7.12		29.00		<5

Membrane filtration and chromogenic culture

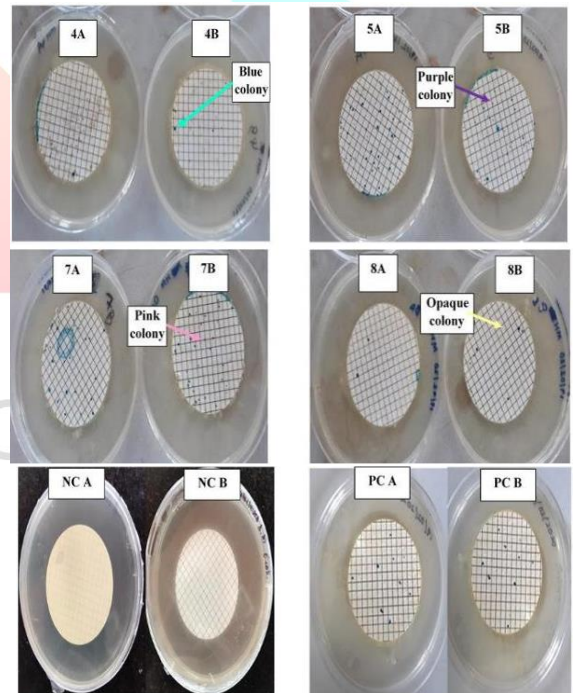


Figure 4: Results obtained from membrane filtration and culture on chromogenic agar. Samples from locations 1-10 and negative (Autoclaved distilled water) and positive (ATCC25922 *E.Coli*) controls in duplicates.

Table 3: Colonies observed on chromogenic agar (X-Colonies absent, ✓-Colonies present with exact count within brackets, highlighted-selected for sub-culturing).

Sample location	Purple	Pink	Opaque	Blue-green
1A	X	X	✓	X
1B	X	X	✓	X
2A	X	X	X	X
2B	X	X	X	X
3A	X	X	✓	✓(7)
3B	X	X	✓	✓(12)
4A	X	X	✓	✓(8)
4B	X	✓(2)	✓	✓(9)
5A	✓(6)	X	✓	✓(30)
5B	✓(4)	X	✓	✓(6)
6A	X	X	✓	✓(9)
6B	X	X	✓	✓(10)
7A	X	✓(1)	✓	✓(40)
7B	X	X	✓	✓(30)
8A	X	✓(1)	✓	✓(3)
8B	X	✓(3)	✓	✓(10)
9A	X	X	✓	X
9B	X	X	✓	X
10A	X	X	✓	X
10B	X	X	✓	X

Table 4: CFUs of blue green colonies

Sample	CFUs
3A	0.07
3B	0.12
4A	0.08
4B	0.09
5A	0.3
5B	0.06
6A	0.09
6B	0.1
7A	0.4
7B	0.3
8A	0.03
8B	0.1

Biochemical and morphological analysis
Simmon's Citrate test

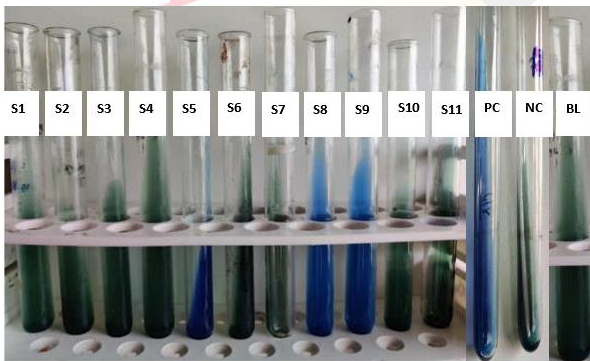


Figure 5: Simmon's citrate test observations. Green indicates a negative result and blue indicates a positive result.

Indole test

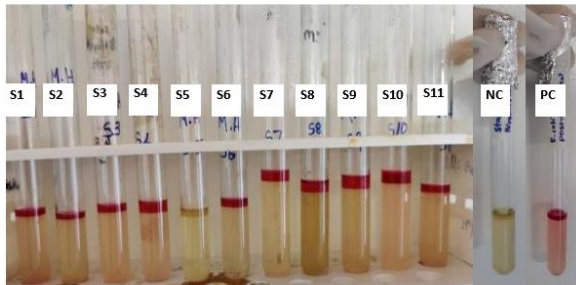


Figure 6: Indole test observations. Cherry red ring at interface indicates a positive result and yellow ring at interface indicates a negative result.

DNA extraction and detection of 16SrRNA, uidA, LacY genes

S1 S2 S3 S4 S5 S6 S7 S8 S9 S10 S11 PC Blank

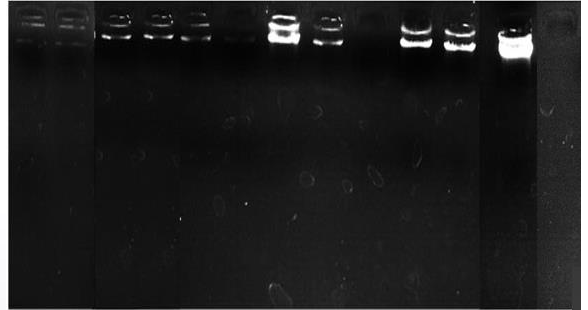


Figure 7: Gel image obtained for extracted genomic DNA (0.8% agarose gel).

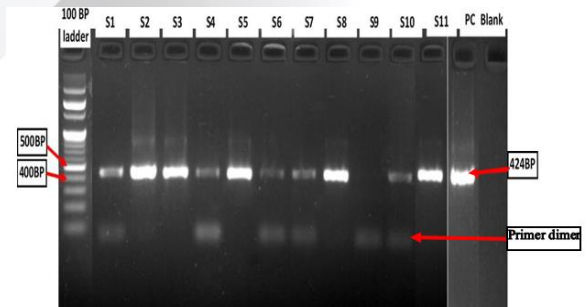


Figure 8: Gel image obtained for 16SrRNA PCR product (424bp) visualization (2% agarose gel).

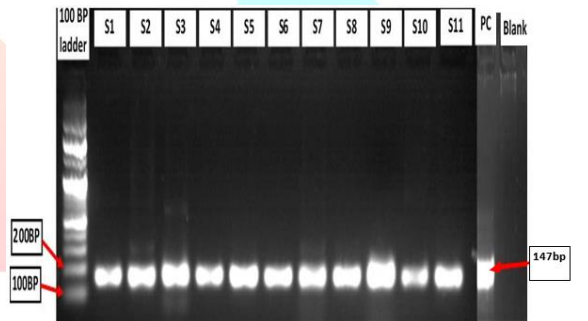


Figure 9: Gel image obtained for uidA PCR product (147bp) visualization (2% agarose gel).

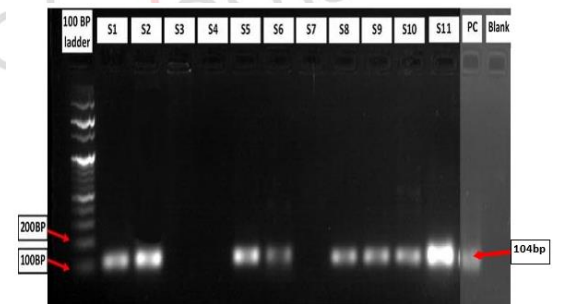


Figure 10: Gel image obtained for LacY PCR product (104bp) visualization (2% agarose gel).

Table 5: Summary of results obtained for biochemical and morphological testing

Sample	Selected colony	Citrate utilization	Indole production	Gram staining identification
S1	5A Blue	Negative	Positive	Gram negative rods
S2	5B Blue	Negative	Positive	Gram negative rods
S3	5B Purple	Negative	Positive	Gram positive cocci
S4	3B Blue	Negative	Positive	Gram negative rods and cocci
S5	4B Pink	Positive	Negative	Gram negative rods and cocci
S6	8B Opaque	Negative	Positive	Gram negative rods
S7	7B Blue	Negative	Positive	Gram negative rods
S8	6A Blue	Positive	Positive	Gram negative rods
S9	8B Blue	Positive	Positive	Gram negative rods
S10	7A Pink	Negative	Positive	Gram negative rods
S11	4B Blue	Negative	Positive	Gram negative rods
E. Coli ATCC25922	Mother culture	Negative	Positive	Gram negative rods
S. Aureus ATCC25923	Mother culture	Positive	Negative	Gram positive cocci

Table 6: Summary of molecular identification results obtained for all samples (X-no band observed, ✓-Bands observed and intensity elaborated within brackets where necessary, highlighted samples were selected for ABST).

Sample	Genomic DNA (Promega)	16SrRNA	uidA	LacY
S1	✓	✓	✓	✓
S2	✓	✓	✓	✓
S3	✓	✓	✓	X
S4	✓	✓	✓	X

S5	✓	✓	✓	✓
S6	✓(faint)	✓	✓	✓
S7	✓	✓	✓	X
S8	✓	✓	✓	✓
S9	✓(faint)	X	✓	✓
S10	✓	✓	✓	✓
S11	✓	✓	✓	✓

ABST observations following overnight incubation

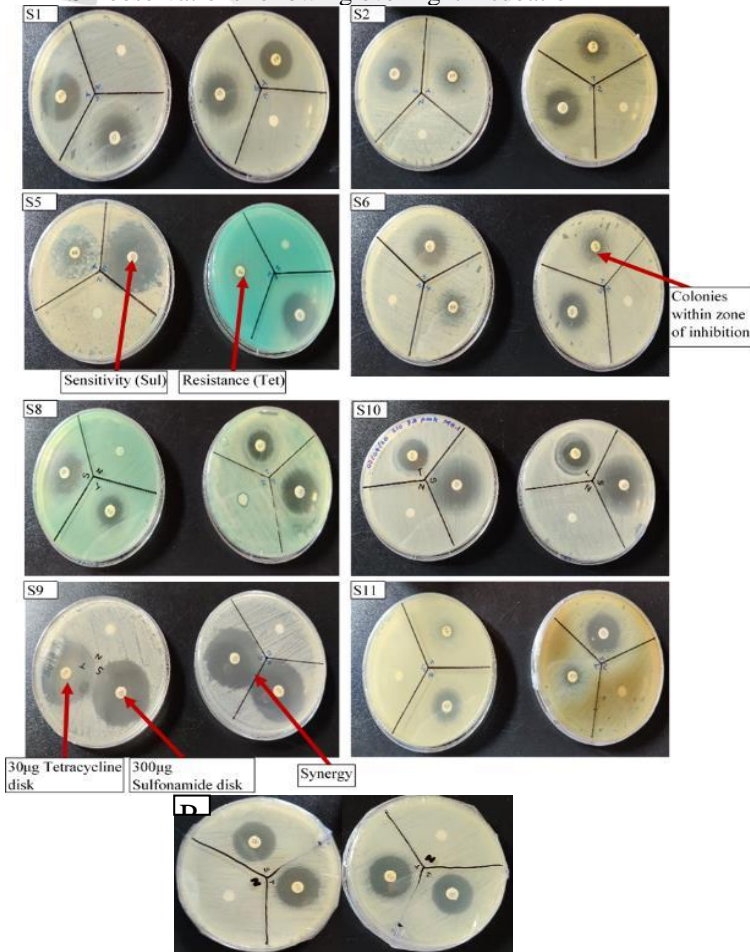


Figure 11: Observations of ABST following

Table 7: Results of the ABST in accordance with CLSI guidelines (highlighted samples were selected for downstream analysis).

Sample	Tetracycline 30µg		Sulfonamide 300µg	
	Average (mm)	Interpretation	Average (mm)	Interpretation
S1	22.00±2.83	Sensitive	18.00±0.00	Sensitive
S2	9.25±0.35	Resistant	19.00±0.00	Sensitive
S5	9.00±0.71	Resistant	25.25±3.89	Sensitive
S6	9.50±0.71	Resistant	18.25±1.06	Sensitive
S8	17.50±0.00	Sensitive	20.00±1.41	Sensitive
S9	35.75±1.77	Sensitive	36.50±0.71	Sensitive
S10	19.25±1.06	Sensitive	30.00±0.00	Sensitive
S11	8.00±0.00	Resistant	20.25±1.06	Sensitive
PC	22.75±0.35	Sensitive	22.50±0.00	Sensitive

Molecular detection of antibiotic resistance genes

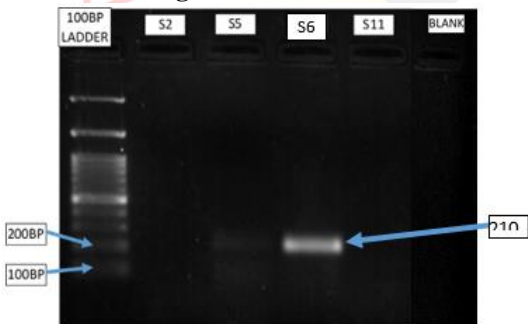


Figure 12: Gel image obtained for tetA PCR product (210bp)

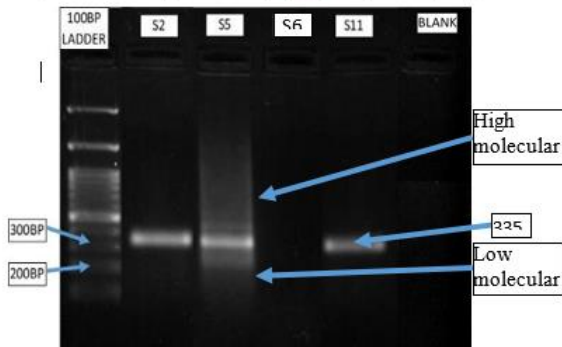


Figure 13: Gel image obtained for tetC PCR product (335bp)

Table 8: Summary of the identification of tetA and tetC genes

Sample	TetA	TetC
S2	X	✓
S5	X	✓
S6	✓	X
S11	X	✓

DISCUSSION

Membrane filtration is an effective technique to separate contaminants from water as large volumes can be filtered, and molecules and microorganisms larger than 0.45µm remain in the filtrate (Madsen, 2014; Hajj and Newman, 2015). Canonically, the HiMedia E. Coli chromogenic media is selective for E. Coli, which is ideal, since the filtrate would consist of various organisms (if any) due to its non-specific size based isolation. The chromogenic agent, X-Glucuronide, gives a bluish-green

appearance to colonies when the bond between the chromogen and glucuronide is cleaved by β -Glucuronidase, the product of the uidA gene. This gene is known to be approximately 97% specific among *E. Coli*, however, *Salmonella*, *Shigella* and *Klebsiella* spp. have also acquired this gene, allowing such colonies to appear bluish-green (HiMedia Labs, 2018; Little et al., 2017). Further, shigatoxic *E. Coli* (O157:H7) does not express the uidA gene due to evolutionary frameshift mutations, causing such colonies to have an off-white/opaque appearance (Monday, et al., 2001; Ogura et al., 2018). Moreover, the chromogenic compound found in the X-Glucuronide is an indolyl derivative, and the presence of the 5-bromo-6-chloro-indoxyl isoform can give rise to magenta/purple coloured colonies when the bond is cleaved. This therefore can possibly account for the presence of various coloured colonies observed on the chromogenic agars observed (Perry and Freydiere, 2007). Further possibilities relating to the presence of various coloured colonies is that certain species of bacteria express pigmentation when cultured. These include common gram negative contaminants of water such as *Chromobacterium violaceum* which produces purple 'violacin', and astaxanthin producing organisms which are pink (Kumar et al., 2015; Usman et al., 2017).

Due to such limitations, colony colour based identification of *E. Coli* isolates is inconclusive, therefore, testing biochemical parameters of the samples provides further insight into the identities of each colony. Testing the citrate utilization capability relies on the principle of citrate metabolism occurring simultaneously with ammonia production. Ammonia increases the pH of the medium which can result in bromophenol blue changing colour from green to blue, which is observed in the Simmon's citrate test (HiMedia Labs, 2018). However, organisms such as *E. Coli* and *Shigella*

spp. are incapable of citrate utilization, therefore, the agar will remain green. This test requires highly regulated conditions as slight alterations of pH change the colour of the agar. Since the isolated colonies were sub-cultured in LB broth and stored for days, accumulation of waste metabolites in the culture can create an alkaline pH, therefore, when swabbed on the agar, this can induce a false positive result (Stancik et al., 2002; Sezonov et al., 2007; Sánchez-Clemente et al., 2018). Further, the *E. Coli* K-12 strains possess citT citrate/succinate-antitransporter genes which can be expressed under anaerobic conditions to utilize citrate (Finn et al., 2017). Furthermore, citrate utilization under aerobic conditions can be achieved in some strains due to point mutations in the *rnk* promoters and the *dctA* genes which induce the expression of citrate transporters. Such strains can give rise to positive results as seen in samples S5, S8 and S9 (Hofwegen et al., 2016).

The indole test can differentiate coliforms based on the ability of the organism to catabolize tryptophan into indole, which is mediated by the *tnaA* and *tnaB* genes of the *tna* operon which code for tryptophanase and tryptophan permease, respectively. The Kovack's reagent can react with indole at the interface, giving a cherry-red ring which can indicate the presence of *E. Coli* which is capable of tryptophan utilization (HiMedia Labs, 2018). Some strains of *E. Coli* may have non-functional or mutated *tna* operons which are incapable of tryptophan utilization. Due to lack of tryptophan utilization, this can give a negative result upon addition of Kovack's reagent as S5 shows (Li and Young, 2015; Han et al., 2011). Serotypes of *Shigella* have variable indole test results where some strains are positive for indole production, whereas others are incapable due to mutational insertions into the *tna* operon, leading to inactive translational products (Rezwan et al., 2004).

Morphologically, *E. Coli* appear as gram negative bacilli (Percival and Williams, 2015). The process of Gram staining involves an initial heat fixing step which is prone to errors, as high heat is capable of inducing morphological variances potentially causing bacilli to appear as cocci or diplococci. Further, Gram staining is a test of low specificity and has approximately a 40% chance of giving false Gram positive results. These factors contribute to some variances seen in the results where cocci and Gram positive organisms were observed (S3, S4, S5) (Samuel and Pelbani, 2017; Samuel et al., 2017).

The differentiation between *Shigella* and *E. coli* is challenging as they express similar morphological and biochemical profiles, therefore, the use of molecular detection techniques in amalgamation with biochemical test results provides a distinctive confirmation of the presence of isolated *E. Coli*. Identification of the 16SrRNA gene is an effective determinant of the presence of bacteria, which can confirm that no fungal contaminants from the initial chromogenic plate were sub-cultured. This gene is conserved in all bacterial species, however, hypervariable regions within the gene and DNA recombination can show species based differentiation (Wang et al., 2015). Since variations are common within the 16SrRNA gene, the absence of an apparent 424bp 16SrRNA gene amplicon band following PCR (as seen in S9) can result primer-target mismatches due to mutations in the primer target region. Further, this can result from a low amplicon number due to insufficient cycle numbers due to a low concentration of template DNA (Witzke et al., 2020). Varying copies of the 16SrRNA gene may also exist within the organism, therefore, the primer target may be varied or absent, thus amplification may not occur (Winand et al., 2020). The *shigella* and *E. Coli* strains express less than 1% 16SrRNA

sequence variance, therefore it is not possible to differentiate the species without further genetic analysis (Edwards et al., 2012; Jenkins et al., 2012). As aforementioned, the *uidA* gene is highly specific to *E. Coli* but due to evolutionary variation, certain *shigella* spp. also possess the gene (Molina et al., 2017). In order to conclusively confirm the isolation of *E. Coli*, the *LacY* gene was subjected to PCR amplification. This is effective in differentiating *E. Coli* from *Shigella* since the latter does not possess certain genes of the *lac* operon (Ragupathy et al., 2018; Din and Wahid, 2015; Pavlovic et al., 2011; Løbersli et al., 2016; Horakova et al., 2008).

The possibilities of inactive *uidA* genes, indole negative reactions and 16SrRNA primer-target mismatching due to mutations are also supported by the possibility of DNA damage due to bile salts in the initial chromogenic culture. Bile salts can induce the *dinD*, *micF* and *osmY* genes of *E. Coli* which are indicators of DNA damage from oxidative stress (Bernstein et al., 1999; Merritt and Donaldson, 2009; Urdaneta and Casadesus, 2017). Additionally, prior to DNA extraction and molecular testing, the samples were stored in 5.00mL of LB broth for 3 months during the quarantine period, therefore, pH variations of the culture may have induced DNA damage or mutations that affected molecular testing. The pH of LB can potentially increase up to 9.0 during prolonged cultures (Sezonov et al., 2007; Mueller, 2007). Further, surface water coliforms are exposed to environmental stresses such as pH and temperature variations, UV radiation exposure, exposure to pesticides and synthetic contaminants, all of which can induce mutagenesis and lead to up/down regulations of several genetic elements (Hughes, 2003; Krishna et al., 2007; Durham et al., 2016; Pullerits et al., 2020).

To test resistance of the selected samples to tetracycline and sulfonamides,

an initial screening by using disc diffusion is an effective technique. The CLSI standard is one of the most commonly used guidelines for ABST using the disc diffusion technique on MHA. The uniform growth of organisms on the agar relies on organisms being in the log phase, therefore overnight cultures ensure that all cells were in the appropriate growth phase (Christenson et al., 2018). Additionally, to ensure uniform concentration and cell abundance, the cultures were diluted and compared with the 0.5McFarland standard. MHA is a non-specific medium, ideal for ABST as it allows uniform diffusion of antibiotics and the simultaneous growth of the organism of interest. The medium does not contain sulfonamide and tetracycline inhibitors such as PABA or thymidine ensuring no interference with results. The non-selectivity of the medium, however, allows the possibility of fungal contaminations and the growth of mixed cultures with both resistant and sensitive strains which can be observed as dispersed colonies growing within the zone of inhibition in S2, S5, S6 (Jorgensen and Hindler, 2006; Hudziki, 2009; Pencheva et al., 2018; Cusack et al., 2019; Mahboob et al., 2019).

E.Coli isolates from the Kelani river have been found to show greater resistance to older antibiotics including tetracycline, however, seasonal variances in the prevalence of genes have been observed. This can account for the absence of sulfonamide resistance and the higher prevalence of tetC genes (S2, S5, S11) in comparison to tetA (S6). Further, the prevalence of *sulI* has been found to decrease downstream in the Kelani river (Kumar et al., 2020; Kumar et al., 2020). The *tetA* is highly prevalent in Sri Lanka and worldwide, however, both *tetA* and *tetC* are commonly found in E. Coli (Liyanage and Manage, 2020; Shin et al., 2015). It is possible for organisms to possess multiple resistance genes against

the same or varying drugs, therefore, it is possible that the samples also possessed various tetracycline resistance genes (Kumar and Varela, 2012). Further, variations in the zones of inhibition between resistant samples can relate to mutations in *tet* genes resulting in varying efficacy of the efflux pumps (Linkevicius et al., 2016).

The PCR technique was used several times in the experiment as it is a tool of high specificity and sensitivity, however, if not optimized, anomalies such as smears, primer dimers, faint bands and non-specific amplicons may be present. These can occur due to several parameters, such as high primer or Mg²⁺ concentrations, impurities in dNTP solutions, non-targeted Taq polymerase activity or degraded DNA due to repetitive thawing. These can be rectified by optimization and troubleshooting techniques such as lowering primer and Mg²⁺ concentrations, using new dNTP mixtures, using the hot-start PCR technique, keeping DNA samples on ice during PRC mixture preparations (Roux, 2009; Lorenz, 2012; Spibida et al., 2017; Biorad, 2020; Thermofischer Scientific, 2020).

CONCLUSION

It was found that E. Coli isolates obtained from the tube well (S2), and the fishing site (S5 and S11) possessed the *tetC* resistance gene, whereas the sample obtained from the lake (S6) possessed the *tetA* resistance gene. This information provides partial evidence of the presence of antibiotic resistant bacteria within the Malabe region, and can be amalgamated with other studies and investigations to assess the prevalence of antibiotic resistance within Sri Lanka, and can be further used provide information to the public regarding the overall quality of water and safety measures to be taken.

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