2	(mcr-1 to mcr-5) by real-time PCR in bacterial and environmental samples
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4	Running headline: RT-PCR detection of mcr genes.
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Rapid detection and quantification of plasmid-mediated colistin resistance genes

Abstract

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Aim: the aim of the study was to validate a rapid method to detect and quantify colistin resistance

25 genes (*mcr-1* to *mcr-5*) by real-time polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) in diverse matrices.

Methods and results: the detection limit of two newly designed SYBR Green real-time PCR

assays for mcr-4 and mcr-5 and of previously published protocols for mcr-1 to mcr-3 was assessed

using serial dilutions of reference strains. The assays could detect all five mcr genes with the lower

limit of 10² copy numbers. Escherichia coli isolates (n=1,062) and environmental samples (n=93)

were tested for the presence of mcr genes. The assays enabled the detection of colistin resistance

genes both in bacterial isolates and in complex environmental samples.

Conclusions: this method represents a set of sensitive, rapid and effective assays for the screening

of colistin resistance directly from the environment.

Significance and impact of the study: colistin is an antimicrobial commonly used in animals and

has recently emerged as a last-resort treatment in humans. Plasmid-mediated mcr genes confer

resistance to colistin and represent a major threat for public health since they can be easily

disseminated through horizontal gene transfer. The rapid and sensitive detection of mcr genes is of

utmost necessity.

Introduction

41 Colistin is a critically important antimicrobial and a last-resort treatment against human infections

caused by multi-drug resistant Gram-negative bacteria (WHO CIA List, 2017). Currently, the

clinical utility of colistin is facing a serious threat due to the emergence and dissemination of

plasmid-mediated colistin resistance. The first report of a mobile colistin resistance gene was dated

November 2015, and the discovered gene, identified in an Escherichia coli strain isolated from a

pig, was named mcr-1 (Liu et al., 2016). Since then, novel variants of plasmid-mediated colistin

resistance genes have been described, mcr-2 (Xavier et al., 2016), mcr-3 (Yin et al., 2017), mcr-4

(Carattoli et al., 2017), mcr-5 (Borowiak et al., 2017), mcr-6 (AbuOun et al., 2018), mcr-7 (Yang et

al., 2018), mcr-8 (Wang et al., 2018), mcr-9 (Carroll et al., 2019) and mcr-10 (Wang et al., 2020). 49 50 These additional mcr genes have been reported in different bacterial species isolated from multiple sources (i.e. human and livestock), raising concerns related to the emergence and spread of mobile 51 colistin resistance. Moreover, mcr genes are harboured on conjugative plasmids belonging to 52 various incompatibility groups, including IncI2, IncX4, IncFIA, IncFII and IncHI2 (Xavier et al., 53 2016; Yin et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2020). Although mcr 54 genes have been discovered only recently, retrospective studies testing isolates dating back to 1980s 55 identified bacteria harbouring mcr genes (Shen et al., 2016). Of notice, most mcr-positives were 56 detected in samples collected from 2009 onwards (Shen et al., 2016). In the past few years, mcr 57 58 genes have been identified in 47 different countries across six continents in human and animal associated bacteria (i.e. Salmonella, E. coli, Pseudomonas, etc.) (Nang et al., 2019). Livestock is 59 considered the main reservoir for mcr genes due to the use of colistin for prophylaxis, metaphylaxis 60 61 and therapeutic purposes (Kempf et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2016). More worryingly, mcr genes have been also identified in water sources (Petrillo et al., 2016; Zurfuh et al., 2016) and soil (Xia et al., 62 2019) suggesting that these resistance determinants might be transferred from the environment to 63 humans via food of both vegetal and animal origin (Salisbury et al., 2002; Hao et al., 2014). 64 Due to the emergence of multiple mobile colistin resistance genes in human, animal and 65 66 environmental samples (Osei Sekyere, 2019), an increased demand of rapid and reliable methods for their detection is warranted. Routine susceptibility testing is considered unreliable since colistin is a 67 large cationic molecule, diffuses poorly into media and adheres to common plastic labware (Kempf 68 et al., 2016), making the agreement of results between replicates and between laboratories difficult 69 (Poirel et al., 2017). A previous study proposed a molecular method for detection of mcr-1 to mcr-5 70 (Rebelo et al., 2018); however, this approach does not allow detection and quantification in 71 72 complex environmental matrices and, as a conventional method, it does not offer results in realtime. Recently, a real-time polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) method for mcr-1, mcr-2 and mcr-73 3 detection has been proposed (Li et al., 2017). In the present study we aimed to implement this 74

method towards the detection and quantification of *mcr-4* and *mcr-5* by using newly designed *mcr*specific RT-PCR primers. Further, we optimised the *mcr-1* to *mcr-5* detection protocols and
validated their application in both bacterial isolates and complex environmental samples.

Materials and methods

Reference strains

The reference strains for *mcr-1* (*E. coli* 412016126), *mcr-2* (*E. coli* KP37), *mcr-3* (*E. coli* 2013-SQ352), *mcr-4* (*E. coli* DH5a harbouring the entire *mcr-4* gene in a pCR2 plasmid) and *mcr-5* (*Salmonella* Paratyphi B 13-SA01718) (Table 1) were kindly provided by the EU Reference Laboratory for Antimicrobial Resistance (DTU, Denmark) and were used for the optimization, the assessment of efficiency, sensitivity and specificity of the assays and as positive control when testing bacterial isolates and environmental samples. Briefly, reference strains were streaked onto nutrient agar (Microbiol, Uta, Italy) and incubated at 37±0.5 °C for 20±2h. Bacterial genomic DNA (gDNA) was extracted with the Invisorb Spin Tissue Mini Kit (Invitek Molecular, Berlin, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Quality and quantity of positive controls' DNA was assessed with NanoDrop spectrophotometer (ThermoScientific, Massachusetts, United States). Based on the assessment of the limit of detection of the assay, we used 0.4 ng/μl as cut-off value to select the sample to be tested.

mcr-4 and mcr-5 RT-PCR primers design and confirmation by end-point PCR

Primer BLAST software (Jian *et al.*, 2012) was used to design the specific RT-PCR primers for *mcr-4* and *mcr-5* genes and the specificity was checked *in silico* against the NCBI database (Table 1) (Johnson *et al.*, 2008). Primer specificity was confirmed by end-point PCRs, using reference strains DH5a and 13-SA01718 harbouring *mcr-4* and *mcr-5*, respectively. To avoid false positive results, together with the *in silico* evaluation, the assays for the detection of *mcr-4* and *mcr-5*

developed in the present study were tested against DNA extracted from bacteria not harbouring the respective *mcr* target gene, including the positive reference strains for *mcr-1* (412016126), *mcr-2* (KP37) and *mcr-3* (B 13-SA01718) genes. Following this experimental setting, we also evaluated the absence of cross-reactivity among the five assays. Both end-point PCRs were performed in a final volume of 25 μL amplification mix containing 12.5 μL of DreamTaq PCR Master Mix 2X (ThermoScientific), 0.5 μL of 10 pmol mL⁻¹ of each primer (Table 1), and 5 ng of gDNA as template. The thermal profile for the end-point PCR was initialised by holding 95 °C for 2 min, followed by 35 cycles of 95 °C for 30 s, 60 °C for 20 s, and 72 °C for 20 s, and a single final elongation at 72 °C for 7 min using an Applied Biosystems 2720 Thermal Cycler (ThermoScientific). The expected amplicon lengths (Table 1) were evaluated by agarose gel electrophoresis (2% agarose, 100 V, 60 min).

Optimization of RT-PCR conditions for mcr-1 to mcr-5 assays

The optimisation steps were conducted for both novel (mcr-4, mcr-5) and previously published (mcr-1 to mcr-3) primers (Li et al., 2017) in order to acquire a unique protocol for detection and quantification of genes. RT-PCR amplification was performed in a LightCycler®480 Roche (Basel, Switzerland), using a final volume of 10 µL. Two different reactions were carried out using either 2.5 μL of DNA template at different concentrations (2.0-0.2-0.002 ng μL⁻¹) or 2.5 μL of previous end-point PCR amplicons diluted at 0.0001 ng μ L⁻¹, to assess respectively the optimal DNA concentration to analyse bacterial and environmental samples and the highest dilution to create a standard curve. The PowerUpTM SYBR[®] Green Master Mix (ThermoScientific) was used together with different concentrations of each primer (i.e. 300/300 pmol mL⁻¹, 300/600 pmol mL⁻¹, 600/300 pmol mL⁻¹, 600/600 pmol mL⁻¹, 600/900 pmol mL⁻¹, 900/600 pmol mL⁻¹ and 900/900 pmol mL⁻¹ for forward and reverse primer, respectively). The cycling conditions were as follows: initial incubation at 50 °C for 2 min, followed by 2 min at 95 °C, and 45 cycles at 95 °C for 10 s and 60 °C for 40 sec. A

melting curve between 40 and 95 °C was determined by adding a dissociation step after the last amplification cycle at a temperature transition rate of 4.4 °C/s. RT-PCR data analysis was performed using LightCycler®480 software version 1.5 (Roche). For each sample, the crossing point (Cp) was used to determine the amount of target gene. Specificity of RT-PCR products was determined by the analysis of amplification profiles and melting curves. Furthermore, positive RT-PCR products were purified using the SPRIselect purification kit (Beckman Coulter, Pasadena, United States) and templates were sent to Macrogen Inc. (Madrid, Spain) for direct Sanger sequencing. The visualization, analysis and editing of chromatograms were performed with FINCHTV 1.4.0 software. Standard BLAST search against the CARD (Comprehensive Antibiotic Resistance Database) (Jia *et al.*, 2017) reference sequences was performed. All RT-PCR reactions were performed in duplicate.

Efficiency, sensitivity and specificity of mcr-1 to mcr-5 RT-PCR assays

To evaluate the efficiency and the dynamic range of each primer pair, serial dilutions (1:4 and 1:5) were prepared for each DNA template. Standard curves were constructed to evaluate the efficiency and the sensitivity of *mcr* primer sets using serial dilutions of gDNA. The assays' sensitivity was further tested by pooling five *E. coli* DNA samples with different concentrations and combinations of positive and negative samples (median concentration: 11.9 ng μ L⁻¹, min: 0.4 ng μ L⁻¹, max: 23.4 ng μ L⁻¹). Melting profile analysis was used to assess the specificity of the amplification plots.

Validation of mcr-1 to mcr-5 RT-PCR assays

To validate the assays, DNA was extracted from *E. coli* isolates and environmental samples. Samples were stored at -80°C up to DNA isolation, while extracted DNAs were stored at -20°C up to processing. A total of 1,062 *E. coli* isolated from various stages of the broiler production pyramid (i.e. breeders, broilers and carcasses) and assessed for the presence of extended-spectrum β-lactamase (ESBL)- and plasmid-mediated AmpC β-lactamase (pAmpC) genes (n=587 positive)

(Apostolakos *et al.*, 2019) were tested. gDNA was extracted by suspending 1-2 bacterial colonies in a solution of 5% Chelex (BioRad, Hercules, United States) and boiling for 10 min. Debris in the Chelex suspension was removed by centrifugation at 12,000 ×g for 5 min. Bacterial isolates were analysed by pooling five DNA samples; when a pool tested positive, each sample was analysed individually to detect the positive sample(s) within the pool. No 16S amplification of *E. coli* isolates was performed because the aim of the study was to assess the diagnostic performance of the assays, i.e. their ability to identify rather than quantify *mcr* genes, and to optimize the assays with pooled isolates. DNA was extracted also from 93 environmental samples, namely agricultural soil (62 samples) and manure from dairy (11 samples), swine (10 samples) and chickens farms (10 samples), using the PowerSoil® DNA Isolation kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). In each RT-PCR round, a positive (*mcr*+) and negative (*mcr*-) control for each gene was used. When testing the environmental samples, the 16S rRNA gene was used (Nadkarni *et al.*, 2002) as internal process control and to normalize the *mcr-1* to *mcr-5* gene copy numbers.

Results

Analytical performances of mcr-1 to mcr-5 RT-PCR assays

We established optimal amplification conditions for all *mcr* genes with 600 pmol mL⁻¹ concentration of each primer. Assays' efficiencies ranged from 90.7% to 92.9%, and all R² values were >0.98 (Fig. 1). The limit of quantification copies was 13.7, 31.8, 82.4, 60.5 and 149.1 for *mcr*-1, *mcr*-2, *mcr*-3, *mcr*-4 and *mcr*-5 assays, respectively. No primer-dimers or non-specific peaks were observed in any of the assays. In detail, no increase in fluorescence associated with a sigmoidal amplification curve was observed for none of the template controls or when *mcr* primer pairs were used against non-target *mcr* genes. Pooling of bacterial DNA enabled fast screening of multiple samples in a single assay, since detection of positive controls was possible in all tested concentrations and combinations.

SYBR Green RT-PCR followed by melting curve analysis enables the detection of *mcr-1* to *mcr-5* from bacterial isolates and environmental samples

Two different matrices were screened in this study: bacterial (i.e. *E. coli* cultures) and complex environmental (i.e. manure and soil) samples. Starting from 1,062 pure cultures, seven samples were found positive for *mcr* genes. In particular, two samples were positive for *mcr-3* (one breeder, one broiler), one for *mcr-4* (breeder) and four for *mcr-5* (broilers). Three of the *mcr*-carrying isolates were also harbouring ESBL/pAmpC genes. Out of 93 environmental samples, 43 (46.2%) were positive for *mcr* genes; 20 (eight manure, twelve soil) for *mcr-1*, three (manure) for *mcr-2*, eleven (seven manure, four soil) for *mcr-3*, four (three manure, one soil) for *mcr-4* and five (two manure, three soil) for *mcr-5* (Fig. 2). The RT-PCR assays showed that copies number in the environmental samples for *mcr-1*, *mcr-3* and *mcr-5* ranged from below the limit of quantification to 21.0, 2072.68 and 30.6 copies, respectively. The copies number for *mcr-2* and *mcr-4* was below the limit of quantification in all positive samples.

Discussion

The aim of this study was to develop a fast, sensitive and reliable method for detection and quantification of colistin mobile resistance genes (*mcr-1* to *mcr-5*). We extended and optimized the method of Li *et al.* (2017) by constructing two novel assays for *mcr-4* and *mcr-5*. The method, based on a SYBR Green RT-PCR paired with melting curve analysis, enables the rapid and confident detection and quantification of *mcr-1* to *mcr-5* genes in bacterial isolates and environmental samples.

In recent years, end-point PCR, real-time PCR, loop-mediated isothermal amplification and microrray-based methods have been developed to detect colistin resistance genes. Although these methods proved to be sensitive and effective, they present some limitations, such as detection of only one to three *mcr*-genes (Chabou *et al.*, 2016; Irrgang *et al.*, 2016; Xavier *et al.*, 2016;

Bernasconi *et al.*, 2017; Donà *et al.*, 2017; Li *et al.*, 2017) and/or requirement of specific and

expensive equipment (Bernasconi et al., 2017; Zhong et al., 2019). A multiplex PCR for the detection of mcr-1 to mcr-5 has been also recently developed (Rebelo et al., 2018); however, this method is a standard end-point PCR, hence it is time consuming as it has to rely on gel electrophoresis to visualize the results of the amplification and more prone to contamination. By comparison, SYBR Green based assays are faster and less expensive, making our set of assays an ideal tool for mcr-1 to mcr-5 genes detection, in particular when testing large number of samples including complex matrices such as those from the environment. The set of assays described here supports samples pooling, allowing the screening of five individual samples in a single reaction tube, further decreasing time and cost of the analyses. Due to its cost-effectiveness, our method might also have wide employment in developing countries, where financial limitations represent a huge issue toward antimicrobial resistance gene surveillance studies. The method proposed here is not itself deprived of limitations, as it cannot detect all five mcr genes in a single reaction, unlike the multiplex PCR developed by Rebelo et al. (Rebelo et al., 2018), nor emerging mcr genes. However, SYBR Green RT-PCRs are relatively easy to implement, and the detection of emerging *mcr* genes might be easily achieved via designing new specific primer pairs. The detection and quantification of colistin resistance genes are crucial because they are considered an emerging risk for public health (Poirel et al., 2017), since colistin is employed as a last-resort antimicrobial for the treatment of multidrug-resistance Gram-negative bacterial infection in humans. Non-prudent use of colistin in human medicine but also in farming settings contributed to the spread and persistence of resistance genes in the natural environment. The simultaneous presence of mcr and ESBL/pAmpC genes in three E. coli isolates is notable given the importance of 3rd generation cephalosporins and colistin in human health. The novel set of RT-PCR primers and the optimised mcr-1 to mcr-5 assays developed in the present study represent a useful method for future surveillance studies for determination of mcr genes prevalence in human, animal and environmental samples in a fast, sensitive and reproducible way.

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Table 1. Primers and positive controls used for the detection of *mcr-1* to *mcr-5* and 16S genes in RT-PCR assays.

Primer	Target gene	Sequence (5' - 3 ')	Product length (bp)	Reference	Positive control strains	
name					Strain ^a	Origin ^b
mcr1-qf mcr1-qr	mcr-l	AAAGACGCGGTACAAGCAAC GCTGAACATACACGGCACAG	213	(Li et al., 2017)	E. coli 412016126	Poultry
mcr2-qf mcr2-qr	mcr-2	CGACCAAGCCGAGTCTAAGG CAACTGCGACCAACACACTT	92	(Li et al., 2017)	E. coli KP37	Swine faeces
mcr3-qf mcr3-qr	mcr-3	ACCTCCAGCGTGAGATTGTTCCA GCGGTTTCACCAACGACCAGAA	169	(Li et al., 2017)	E. coli 2013-SQ352	Sewage
mcr4-qf mcr4-qr	mcr-4	AGAATGCCAGTCGTAACCCG GCGAGGATCATAGTCTGCCC	230	This study	E. coli DH5a (harbouring the entire mcr-4 gene in a pCR2 plasmid)	Swine faeces
mcr 5-qf mcr 5-qr	mcr-5	CTGTGGCCAGTCATGGATGT CGAATGCCCGAGATGACGTA	98	This study	Salmonella Paratyphi B 13- SA01718	Poultry
16S-qf 16S-qr	16S	TCCTACGGGAGGCAGCAGT GGACTACCAGGGTATCTAATCCTGTT	467	(Nadkarni <i>et al.</i> , 2002)		

^a Reference strains were kindly provided by the EU Reference Laboratory for Antimicrobial Resistance (DTU, Denmark).

^b Origin of the initially isolated strains carrying the respective *mcr* genes.

Figure 1. Real-time PCR amplification curves, standard curves and melting curves. (A-E) Show real-time PCR amplification and standard curves for *mcr*-1, *mcr*-2, *mcr*-3, *mcr*-4 and *mcr*-5. For each standard curve R², efficiency and slope are reported (F). Shows melting curves for each *mcr* gene.

Figure 2. Detection of *mcr* genes in soil and manure samples.