Pattern and Determinants of Antimicrobial Resistance in Uropathogenic Extended Spectrum β-lactamase Producing *Escherichia coli*

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(Received: 21 April 2014; accepted: 29 May 2014)

This study aims to determine resistance pattern and the prevalence of extendedspectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL) among 250 Escherichia coli in Riyadh and to determine the antimicrobial resistance determinants for ESBL positive E. coli (ESBL-EC) which collected from urine during 2012. MICs were determined. Phenotypic and genotypic screening of ESBL were carried out. PCRs were used to detect resistance determinants in ESBL-EC for tetracycline, chloramphenicol, streptomycin and sulphonamides. The overall resistance for streptomycin and sulphamethoxazole was 100%, however the resistance rates for amoxicillin, tetracycline, chloramphenicol, amoxicillin/clavulante, trimethoprim, sulphamethoxazole/trimethoprim, gentamicin, amikacin, ciprofloxacin, cefotaxime, ceftazidime, aztreonam, cefepime and nitrofurantoin were 96%, 85%, 83%, 71%, 70%, 62%, 42%, 29%, 25%, 22%, 21%, 20%, 17% and 5% respectively. The whole collection was susceptible to fosfomycin, imipenem, tigecycline, cefoxitin, and colistin. Of 250 isolates, 21% were positive for ESBL. *bla*_{CTX-M-15-like} was detected in all ESBL-EC. Among ESBL-EC, the prevalence of tet(B), tet(A), tet(A), catI, cmlA, strA, strB, aadA, sul1, sul2, and sul3 was 89.9%, 8.2%, 2%, 88.9%, 51.11 %, 100%, 100%, 88.46%, 78.84%, 92.31%, 21.15%, respectively. The bla_{CTX-M-15}.like, bla_{TEM}.like catI, tet(B), sul2, strA, strB, and *aadA* genes were the most prevalent resistance determinants. This study provides baseline data regarding the molecular bases of antimicrobial resistance in ESBL-EC from Riyadh.

Key words: Escherichia coli, ESBL, Antimicrobial resistances.

Urinary tract infection (UTI) is one of the commonest infectious disease presentations in medical practice. The most common cause of UTI in both community and health care settings is *Escherichia coli* (Auer *et al.*, 2010). The choice of antibiotic for the treatment of UTI is limited by the rising rates of antibiotic resistance. The production of β -lactamases is the foremost mechanism of antibiotic resistance leading to treatment failure. Extended-spectrum β -lactamases

(ESBLs), which hydrolyze extended-spectrum cephalosporins and are inhibited by β -lactamase inhibitors such as clavulanic acid, are spreading among E. coli (Al-agamy et al., 2014). Multi-drug resistance to unrelated antimicrobial classes such aminoglycosides, chloramphenicol, as trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole, tetracycline, and fluoroquinolones is common among uropathogenic E. coli, leaving few therapeutic choices (Singh and Singh et al., 2014). The resistance to some antibiotics varies widely from one geographic location to another and also over time (Lagacé-Wiens et al., 2013; Al-Tawfiq and Anani, 2009; Karlowsky et al., 2006). The aims of this study were therefore to provide information

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regarding resistance patterns of 250 uropathogenic *E. coli* strains isolated in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, to determine the prevalence of ESBL and to investigate the molecular resistance mechanisms to chloramphenicol, streptomycin, sulphonamide and tetracycline in ESBL-producing strains. Prevalence of the resistance genes; *sul1*, *sul2*,*sul3*, *tet*(*A*), *tet*(*B*), *tet*(*C*), *tet*(*D*), *tet*(*E*), *tet*(*G*), *catI*, *catII*, *catIII*, *cmlA*, *strA-strB* and *aadA* was investigated.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains

A total of 250 non-duplicate E. coli strains were recovered from 465 mid stream urine samples from inpatients suffering from urinary tract infections (UTIs) in the Urology Department of a Hospital in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. The isolates were collected from January to June 2012. Urine samples were inoculated onto MacConkey agar and incubated at 35°C overnight. After the incubation period, any lactose-fermenting colonies were picked and identified through a battery of biochemical tests, including indole, methyl red, Voges-Proskauer, citrate utilization, urease, and motility tests. E. coli confirmation was performed using API-20E (bioMerieux, Inc.). The identified isolates were stored at - 70°C in tryptone soy broth containing 30% glycerol.

Antimicrobial susceptibility testing

MIC of 24 different antibiotics was determined by using E test strip (AB Biodisk, Solana, Sweden). MICs were performed and interpreted according to the guidelines of CLSI (CLSI, 2013). *E. coli* ATCC 25922 was used as a control strain.

Phenotypic detection of ESBL

ESBL production was detected using the 2013 CLSI recommendations for ESBL screening and confirmation tests (CLSI, 2013). The combination disc synergy test and ESBL strip E-tests (bioMerieux, Marcy L'Etoile, France) were performed for the detection and confirmation of ESBLs, respectively. For the combination disc synergy test, two disks of ceftazidime ($30\mu g$) were used, each with and without clavulanate ($10\mu g$). The isolate is ESBL producer if the zone expansion diameter is ≥ 5 mm larger with clavulanate than without. For the E-test, an ESBL strip containing

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ceftazidime and ceftazidime–clavulanate was used to determine the MIC ratio according to the manufacturer's instructions. *E. coli* ATCC 25922 (negative control) and *K. pneumoniae* ATCC 700603 (positive control) were used as reference strains.

Identifications of antibiotic resistance genes

The primers used in this study are listed in Table 1. Total bacterial DNA was prepared via the whole-cell boiled lysate procedure. PCR amplification was used to identify genes responsible for the resistance to: extendedspectrum cephalosporins, tetracycline, chloramphenicol, streptomycin, and sulphonamide. In total, ten different PCR protocols were applied and 22 antibiotic resistance genes were investigated. PCR was conducted to determine the gene responsible for the ESBL phenotype in the ESBL-EC. The amplification of bla_{TEM} , bla_{SHV} and $bla_{CTX-M-I}$, $bla_{CTX-M-2}$, $bla_{CTX-M-8}$, $bla_{CTX-M-9}$, and $bla_{\rm CTX-M-25}$ genes was assessed via multiplex PCR using the primers and conditions described previously (Dallenne et al., 2010). ESBL-EC isolates (n=52) investigated in this study have been screened for the presence of tetracycline, chloramphenicol, sulphamethoxazole, and streptomycin resistance determinants. The The resistance genes; *tet*(A),-(B),-(C),-(D),-(E), -(G) (Ng et al., 2001) for tetracycline resistance, catI, catII, catIII (Vassort-Bruneau et al., 1996), cmlA (Keyes et al., 2000) for chloramphenicol resistance, sull, sul2, sul3 (Wu et al., 2010; Kerrn et al., 2002) for sulfonamide resistance, strA, strB (Tamang et al., 2007) and aad (Madsen et al., 2000) for streptomycin resistance. Positive and negative controls were included in all PCR assays. All PCR assays were done in Techne thermocycler (Techne, products UK). PCR were separated electrophoretically in a 1-2% agarose gel using 1xTBE, visualized by staining with 0.5 µg/ml ethidium bromide and examined in UV light and photographed using video documentation system.

RESULTS

Antimicrobial susceptibility

MICs of antimicrobial agents were determined for 250 uropathogenic *E. coli* isolates. The results of MICs are shown in Table 2. No resistance was recorded in this study to cefoxitin,

PCR	Genes	Primer	Sequence (5'3')	Amplicons	Reference
Multiplex TEM. SHV	TEM variants	MultiTSO-T_for MultiTSO-T_rev	CATTTCCGTGTCGCCCTTATTC CGTTCATCCATAGTTGCCTGAC	800	Dallenne et al., 2010
	SHV variants	MultiTSO-S_for MultiTSO-S_rev	AGCCGCTTGAGCAATTAAAC ATCCCGCAGATAATCACCAC	713	
Multiplex CTX-M group 1. group 2	CTX-M group 1	MultiCTXMGp1_for MultiCTXMGp1-2 rev	TTA GGA ART GT GC GCT GYA CGATAT CGTT GGT GGT GC AT	688	
and group 9	CTX-M group 2	MultiCTXMGp2_for MultiCTXMGp1-2_rev	CGTTAACGGCACGATGAC CGATATCGTTGGTGGTBCCAT	404	
	CTX-M group 9	MultiCTXMGp9_for MultiCTXMGp9_rev	TCAAGCCTGCCGATCTGGT TGATTCTCGCCGCTGAAG	561	
CTX-M group 8/25	CTX-M-8, CTV-M-25	CTX-Mg8/25_for	A CRECK COCCCTCTAC A A CRECK G A G C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C	326	
Muliplex Sul1,	Sull	Sull-F	CGGCGTGGGGCTACCTGAACG	433	Kerrn et al. 2002
suld and sulf	Sul2	Sul 1- B Sul 2-F	GCCCFALCGCGI GAAGATGCATT GCGCTCAAGGCAGATGGCATT	293	Kerrn et al.2002
	Sul3	Sul3-F	GCG111GA1AUCGGCAATTGAGCATGCTCTGC	569	Wu et al., 2010
aadA-PCR	aadA	Sul3-B aad-F	AGAATGATTTCCGTGACACTGCAATCATT GTG GAT GGC GGC CTG AAG CC	525	Madsen et al. 2000
StrA-strB-PCR	strA-strB	aad-R Str-A-F	AAT GCC CAG TCG GCA GCG ATG GTG GAC CCT AAA ACT CT	893	Tamang et al.2007
		Str-B-R	CGT CTA GGA TCG AGA CAA AG)
Multilex tet genes	tet(A)	tetA-F tetA-R	GCT ACA TCC TGC TTG CCT TC CAT AGA TCG CCG TGA AGA GG	210	Ng et al., 2001
	tet(B)	tetB-F	TTG GTT AGG GGC AAG TTT TG GTA ATG GGC CAA TAA CAC CG	659	
	tet(C)	tetC-F	CTT GAG AGC CTT CAA CCC AG	418	
	<i>tet</i> (D)	tetC-R tetD-F	ATG GTC GTC ATC TAC CTG CC AAA CCA TTA CGG CAT TCT GC	787	
		tetD-R	GAC CGG ATA CAC CAT CCA TC		
	tet(E)	tetE-F	AAA CCA CAT CCT CCA TAC GC	278	
	tet(G)	tetG-F	GCT CGG TGG TAT CTC TGC TC	468	
		tetG-R	AGC AAC AGA ATC GGG AAC AC		
cmlA-PCR	cmlA	cmlA-F	CCG CCA CGG TGT TGT TGT TAT C	698	Keyes et al.
Multiplex-cat-PCR	catl	cmIA-K catI-F	CAU UTI GUU TGU UCA TUA TIA G GGCATTTCAGTCAGTTG	585	Vassort-Bruneau et al 1996
		catI-R	CCGCCCTGCCACTCATC		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
	catII	catl1-F	CCTGGAACCGCAGAGAAC	495	
		catII-R	CCTGCTGAAACTTTGCCA	4	
	catIII	catIII-F catIII-R	AITGGCTTCGCCGTGAGC AGTCTATCCCCTTCTTG	508	
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Table 1. Primers used in the study

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		-	Table 2. An	timicrobial r	esistance pa	atterns and M	IICs of 250	E. coli strains				
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Antimicrobial		Total isolâ	ttes (n=250)			ESBL-E	C (n=52)			Non-ESBL-	EC (n=198)	
agents	Suscel	ptible	Resist	tant	Susc	eptible	Res	istant	Susce	ptible	Resist	ant
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Amikacin	177	70.8	73	29.2	29	55.8	23	44.2	148	74.7	50	25.3
Amoxicillin	10	4.0	240	96.0	0	0.0	10	100.0	10	100.0	0	0.0
Amoxicillin/	72	28.8	178	71.2	L	13.5	45	86.5	65	32.8	133	67.2
clavulanate												
Aztreonam	200	80.0	50	20.0	2	3.85	50	96.15	198	100.0	0	0.0
Cefepime	208	83.2	42	16.8	10	19.2	42	80.8	198	100.0	0	0.0
Cefotaxime	195	78.0	55	22.0	0	0.0	52	100.0	195	98.5	б	1.5
Cefotaxime/	250	100.0	0	0.0	52	100.0	0	0.0	198	100.0	0	0.0
clavulanate												
Cefoxitin	250	100.0	0	0.0	52	100.0	0	0.0	198	100.0	0	0.0
Ceftazidime	198	79.2	52	20.8	0	0.0	52	100.0	198	100.0	0	0.0
Chloramphenicol	42	16.8	208	83.2	L	13.5	45	86.5	35	17.7	163	82.3
Ciprofloxacin	187	74.8	63	25.2	25	48.1	27	51.9	162	81.8	36	18.2
Doxycycline	41	16.4	209	83.6	с	5.8	49	94.2	38	19.2	160	80.8
Fosfomycin	250	100.0	0	0.0	52	100.0	0	0.0	198	100.0	0	0.0
Gentamicin	146	58.4	104	41.6	21	40.4	31	59.6	125	63.1	73	36.9
Imipenem	250	100.0	0	0.0	52	100.0	0	0.0	198	100.0	0	0.0
Minocycline	50	20.0	200	80.0	4	7.7	48	92.3	46	23.2	152	76.8
Nitrofurantoin	237	94.8	13	5.2	49	49.2	ε	5.8	188	94.95	10	5.05
Streptomycin	0	0.0	250	100.0	0	0.0	52	100.0	0	0.0	198	100.0
Sulfamethoxazole	0	0.0	250	100.0	0	0.0	52	100.0	0	0.0	198	100.0
Sulfamethoxazole/	95	38.0	155	62.0	9	11.5	46	88.5	89	44.95	109	55.05
Trimethoprim												
Tetracycline	38	15.2	212	84.8	Э	5.8	49	94.2	35	17.7	163	82.3
Tigecycline	250	100.0	0	0.0	52	100.0	0	0.0	198	100.0	0	0.0
Trimethoprim	75	30.0	175	70.0	11	21.15	41	78.85	64	32.3	134	67.7

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colistin, fosfomycin, imipenem, and tigecycline. Of the examined E. coli isolates, 96% (240/250) were resistant to amoxicillin, whereas 71.2% (178/250) were resistant to amoxicillin/clavulanic acid. The percentage of resistance to extended-spectrum cephalosporins: cefotaxime, ceftazidime, aztreonam and cefepime were 22%, 21%, 20% and 17% respectively. Resistance to gentamicin, amikacin and ciprofloxacin was exhibited by 42%, 29% and 25% of the tested E. coli, respectively. All of the isolates were completely resistant to aminoglycoside streptomycin. 85% of the isolates were resistant to tetracycline; 83% were resistant to doxycycline; and 80% were resistant to minocycline. Furthermore, the uropathogenic E. coli isolates showed the following levels of resistance to antifolate antibacterial: 100% of the isolates were resistant to sulfamethoxazole, and 70% were resistant to trimethoprim, whereas 62% of the isolates showed resistance to a combination of sulfamethoxazole/trimethoprim. Chloramphenicol resistance was observed in 83% of the E. coli isolates. Nitrofurantoin, which is the most commonly used drug for the treatment of uropathogenic E. coli, 5% of the isolates exhibited resistance. The antimicrobial resistance rates were higher for ESBL-EC than non-ESBL-EC isolates (Table 2). The MIC of ESBL-EC is illustrated in Table 3.

Prevalence of ESBL and PCR characterization

ESBL production was determined by combination disk test and E test strip method. According to the phenotypic detection, the prevalence of ESBL-EC was 20.8% (52/250). The PCR experiments revealed that the prevalence of $bla_{\text{CTX-M-15-}}$ like, $bla_{\text{TEM-}}$ like and $bla_{\text{SHV-}}$ like in ESBL-EC was 100% (52/52), 98.07% (51/52), and 11.53% (6/52).

Prevalence of the resistance determinants

Fifty two ESBL-EC strains were chosen for molecular characterization of resistance genes. The results of this characterization are summarized in Table 3. Forty nine (94.23%) out of 52 ESBL-EC were resistant to tetracycline and *tet* genes were detected in all of the resistant ESBL-EC. The presence of six different tetracycline resistance genes was investigated through multiplex PCR. Among the tested *tet* genes, tet(B), tet(A) and tet(C) were detected. tet(B) gene was the most prevalent of these genes being found in 89.8% (44/49) of the tested isolates. The prevalence of tet(A) and tet(C) were 8.16% (4/49) and 2.04% (1/ 49) respectively. Forty five (86.54%) out of 52 ESBL-EC were resistant to chloramphenicol. Four different chloramphenicol resistance genes, catI, catII, catIII and *cmlA* genes were checked by PCR. Among the tested chloramphenicol resistance genes, catI and *cmlA* were detected with prevalence of 88.89% (n=40/45) and 51.11% (n=23/45) respectively. The catI and cmlA genes were detected in combination in 20/45 (43.18%). The resistance rate to streptomycin and sulphamethoxazole was 100% (52/52). The *strA*+*strB* genes were detected in the whole streptomycin resistant ESBL-EC while aadA was detected in 46/52 (88.46%). Multiplex PCR were sought to detect three different sul genes. The sul genes were detected in 100% of the investigated ESBL-EC strains. The prevalences of sul1, sul2 and sul3 were 78.84% (41/52), 92.31% (48/52) and 21.15% (11/52), respectively. sull and sul2 were found in combination in 36/52 (69.32%) of ESBL-EC. sul2 was concomitant with sul3 in six isolates (11.54%). sull was concomitant with sul3 in three ESBLEC (5.77%). All three sul genes were found in two isolates (2.35%). sul2 and sul3 were found alone in four and one ESBL-EC isolates, respectively. However sull was always found concomitant with sul2 gene.

DISCUSSION

UTI is a common disease in the community, and a matter of concern due to the increasing resistance of microorganisms to first line antibiotics and the emergence of multiresistant strains producing ESBL in the community (Leal et al., 2013). The available data on antimicrobial resistance and the mechanisms underlying this resistance are limited, especially in most developing countries (Chuanchuen and Padungtod, 2009). Nitrofurantoin and ciprofloxacin are widely used to treat UTI, and resistance to these drugs was found to be lower (5% and 25%, respectively) in the present study than reported in a previous study (67.5% and 46.7%, respectively) (Al-Tawfig and Anani, 2009). Amikacin showed considerable activity against the isolates, as only 29% of the tested E. coli isolates were resistant, whereas 42% of the isolates were resistant to gentamicin. Sulfonamide and trimethoprim were not effective

in the treatment of the uropathogenic *E. coli*. The resistance rates to sulfamethoxazole and trimethoprim were 100% and 70%, respectively, although resistance decreased to 62% when sulfamethoxazole was combined with trimethoprim. This finding is in agreement with a previous study that examined the antimicrobial susceptibility patterns of *E. coli* causing UTIs in Saudi Arabia (Al-Tawfiq and Anani, 2009), in which the authors reported that 57.8% of the examined uropathogenic *E. coli* isolates from nosocomial infections were resistant to sulfamethoxazole/trimethoprim.

The rates of resistance to aztreonam, cefotaxime, and ceftazidime were 20, 21, 22% respectively in this study ranged All isolates were susceptible to cefotaxime, and ceftazidime when combined with clavulanic acid. This result indicates that the resistance to extended spectrum cephalosporins was due to ESBLs and suggests that the prevalence of ESBL-EC is increasing in Saudi Arabia. In the present study, the results revealed that 20.8% of 250 E. coli isolates produced ESBL. The prevalence of ESBLs among enterobacterial clinical isolates has increased significantly over the past two decades (Peirano and Pitout, 2010). Regardless of this increase in ESBLs worldwide, there is a rarity of local reports on the prevalence of ESBL positive E. coli (Al-Otaibi and Bukhari, 2013, Marie et al., 2013, Hassan and Abdalhamid, 2014, Al agamy et al., 2014). In the recent previous studies in Saudi Arabia, the prevalence of ESBLs positive E. coli was 20.4% (Al-Agamy et al., 2014), 33.3% (Al-Otaibi and Bukhari, 2013), 35.8% (Hassan and Abdalhamid, 2014). In the present study, the results revealed that 52 (20.8%) of 250 E. coli isolates produced ESBL. On other hand the early previous local studies were found that the prevalence rates of ESBL-EC were 6.5% and 10.3% in 2002 and 2004, respectively (Kader and Kumar, 2005), and were 15.7% and 4.8% from inpatients and outpatients, respectively (Khanfar et al., 2009). After determination of ESBL by phenotypic method, PCR was used to determine the genotypic of ESBL. In the present study, CTX-M-type was the most prevalent ESBL in ESBL-EC isolates followed by TEM and SHV. The prevalence rate of CTX-M-15like, TEM, and SHV was 100% (52/52), 98.07% (51/ 52), and 11.53% (6/52) respectively. This finding is in agreement with a previous study in Saudi Arabia and worldwide that stated that CTX-M-15-like is a dominate ESBL in ESBL-EC (Al-Agamy *et al.*, 2014; Hassan and Abdalhamid, 2014; D'Andrea *et al.*, 2013; Shibl *et al.*, 2012).

Antibiotic resistant determinants for tetracycline, chloramphenicol, streptomycin, and sulfonamide were amplified in 52 ESBL-EC isolates. Tetracycline-specific efflux pump proteins are the leading causes of tetracycline resistance in E. coli (Nguyen et al., 2014; Mullany et al., 2012; Mirzaagha et al., 2011 Roberts, 1996). The tet efflux genes *tet*(A), *tet*(B), *tet*(C), *tet*(D), *tet*(E) and *tet*(G) have previously been identified (Mirzaagha et al., 2011; Wilkerson et al., 2004). Screening for resistance determinants showed that the majority of tetracycline-resistant isolates harboured the *tet*(B) efflux gene, followed less frequently by *tet*(A) and *tet*(C). These findings are consistent with other previous studies (Mirzaagha et al., 2011; Ahmed et al., 2010; Mirzaagha et al., 2009; Walk et al., 2007; Wilkerson et al., 2004; Blake et al., 2003) who reported that most tetracycline-resistant isolates possessed tet(B) followed by tet(A)and *tet*(C) determinants. The *tet*(B) gene exhibits a wide host range because it resides in highly mobile genetic elements that readily undergo transfer between bacterial genera (Mirzaagha et al., 2011; Mirzaagha et al., 2009; Blake et al., 2003).

In the developed world, chloramphenicol is virtually irrelevant clinically and has been banned in the U.S. and other countries for use in humans or food animals due to its potential toxic effects on humans. In most of the developing world, its use is also limited by high levels of resistance likely due to the low-cost of the antimicrobial and unregulated, widespread over use (Frye and Jackson, 2013). In the current study, an enzymatic chloramphenicol resistance gene was more prevalent than non-enzymatic resistance gene. As shown in Table (3) enzymatic chloramphenicol resistance gene, *catI*, was more tied with high chloramphenicol resistance phenotype (MIC e"96 mg/ml), whereas non-enzymatic chloramphenicol resistance gene, cmlA, might link to intermediate resistance to chloramphenicol (MIC £48 mg/ml). The present results are in agreement with many reports that enzymatic mechanism is more common than non-enzymatic mechanisms (Ahmed et al., 2010; Al-Agamy, 2006). Among the genes involved in the enzymatic inactivation mechanism, only catI was identified with prevalence of 88.89%. The nonenzymatic efflux mechanism, *cmlA*, plays an important role in the chloramphenicol resistance with prevalence of 51.11%. The *cmlA* gene was alone in five out of 45 chloramphenicol resistant ESBL-EC isolates which showed chloramphenicol MICs of d"48µg/ml. However, *cmlA* accompanied *catI* in 18 ESBL-EC isolates that displayed chloramphenicol MICs of ³ 128 µg/ml. Chloramphenicol acetylating gene, *catI*, was detected alone in 48.88% of chloramphenicol resistant ESBL-EC isolates.

Sulfonamides are some of the most frequently used antimicrobials for treating uncomplicated UTI, and they are widely administered in Saudi Arabia (Al-Tawfiq and Anani, 2009). The rate of resistance to sulfamethoxazole was observed to be 100% in the present study, thus suggesting that sulfonamide is not effective in the treatment of uropathogenic E. coli. Interestingly, the prevalence of sulfonamide resistance among uropathogenic E. coli remains high in the UK, despite an almost complete withdrawal of the antibiotic from human medical use in that country (Enne et al., 2001; Kerrn et al., 2002). Three sul genes (sul1, sul2 and sul3) that confer resistance to sulfonamides have been identified to date. sul2 (92.31%; 48/52) was the most prevalent sul gene identified in the present study, followed by *sul1* (8.84%; 41/52) then *sul3* (21.15%) (11/52), in accordance with previous observations (Wu et al., 2010; Trobos et al., 2008; Hammerum et al., 2006; Kerrn et al., 2002).

Despite the fact that the use of streptomycin in Saudi Arabia has been restricted to the treatment of Mycobacterium tuberculosis and enteric Gram-negative bacteria, in addition to veterinary medicine, this study found that the level of streptomycin resistance was 100% among the examined E. coli isolates. Three aminoglycosidemodifying enzyme genes, *aadA*, *strA* and *strB*, were investigated via PCR. strA and strB conferred resistance to streptomycin, whereas aadA conferred resistance to streptomycin and spectinomycin. The high prevalences of the strA and strB genes (100%) as well as the aadA gene (88.46%) detected in the ESBL-EC isolates suggests that these genes play a major role in conferring resistance to streptomycin in E. coli. The *aadA+strA+strB* genes were detected in

88.46% of the investigated isolates, whereas 11.54% of isolates contained only strA+strB. Kikuvi *et al.* (2007) also detected isolates containing only the strA+strB genes (24%), whereas the majority of the isolates they examined (72.4%) contained all three genes (strA+strB+aadA1). Thus, the current study is in accordance with the findings of Kikuvi *et al.* (2007), who determined that the prevalence of strA+strB was higher than that of *aadA* and that strA was always accompanied by strB (Kikuvi *et al.*, 2007), similar to the present results. Isolates harboring the strA, strB and aadA genes showed higher streptomycin MICs than those harboring strA and strB alone.

CONCLUSION

To my knowledge this is the first study to genetically characterize resistance to tetracycline, chloramphenicol, streptomycin and sulphamethoxazole in ESBL-EC from Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. The whole collection of isolates was sensitive to cefoxitin, colistin, fosfomycin, imipenem, and tigecycline. Nitrofurantoin is still effective against uropathogenic E.coli. This study provides useful information regarding the dissemination of antimicrobial resistance genes among uropathogenic E. coli isolates. Prevalence of ESBL-EC was intermediately high in Riyadh. CTX-M-15-like gene is the dominant ESBL genes in ESBL-EC. CTX-M-15-like, tet(B), sul2, cat1 and *strA* and *strB* were found to be the most prevalent resistance genes, encoding extended-spectrum cephalosporin, tetracycline, sulphamethoxazole, chloramphenicol and streptomycin resistance, respectively.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by a grant from the College of Pharmacy Research Center, College of Pharmacy, King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

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