

Comparison of genome-derived and phenotypic AMR profiles of *Shigella* species isolated from patients with symptoms of GI disease in England, 2015-2020

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INTRODUCTION

Shigella are Gram-negative bacilli belonging to the family *Enterobacteriaceae*

- Composed of four species: *S. dysenteriae*, *S. flexneri*, *S. boydii* and *S. sonnei*^[1]
- Shigellosis is a gastrointestinal infection which causes bloody and/or mucoid diarrhoea (dysentery)^[1] and mainly causes more severe illness in infants and adults (>50 years of age)^[2]
- Shigellosis predominantly occurs in developing countries and is a cause of travellers' diarrhoea in the UK – a large number of *Shigella* cases in the UK are associated with foreign travel to Asia and Africa^[3]
- Infection is usually self-limiting and the standard recommended treatment for dysentery is oral rehydration therapy^[4]

Antimicrobial therapy for *Shigella* infection is recommended for infants and adults (>50 years of age) or for severe and prolonged infection^[4]

- The World Health Organisation Guidelines 2005 recommend use of ciprofloxacin as the first-line treatment for shigellosis
- Azithromycin is recommended as an alternative treatment for adults
- Treatment with ceftriaxone or meropenem is recommended for multi-drug resistant strains of *Shigella*^[1]

Surveillance of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) in *Shigella* species (particularly against ciprofloxacin) is necessary to:

- Monitor novel and emerging AMR mechanisms
- Monitor global transmission of emerging travel-associated AMR mechanisms
- Help guide the therapeutic management of shigellosis

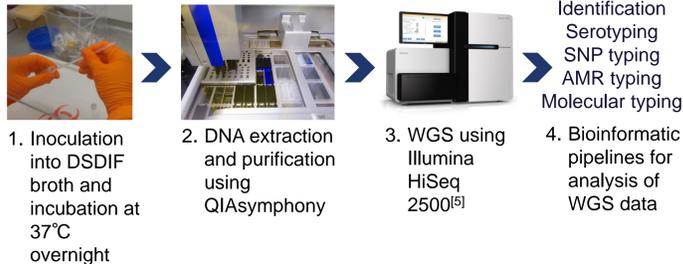
The aim of this study was to compare and evaluate genotypic and phenotypic methods for the detection of AMR in *Shigella* species.

METHODS

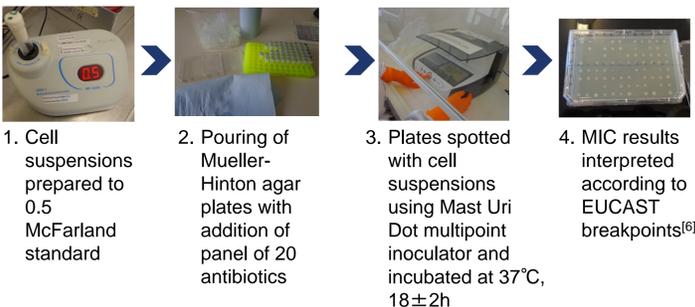
Shigella isolates (n=388) received from September 2015 to January 2020 were selected from the GBRU archive for analysis via antimicrobial susceptibility testing (AST).

Genotypic AST was performed on all 388 isolates. Phenotypic AST was performed retrospectively on all selected viable and pure isolates (n=358). Results from genotypic AST and phenotypic AST were then compared.

Genotypic AST: via whole genome sequencing (WGS) to determine resistance genes (see below)



Phenotypic AST: via agar dilution to determine minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) (see below)



RESULTS

Out of 358 isolates, 276 (77%) were associated with foreign travel (Figure 1)

- Highest association with Asia (51.8%), followed by Africa (10.6%)
- Top two travel destinations were India (n=83), Pakistan (n=56)
- Geographical distribution of each *Shigella* species varied globally
 - S. flexneri* and *S. sonnei* predominant in all continents – only two species associated with travel to Europe and South America
 - Much lower prevalence of *S. dysenteriae* and *S. boydii* – only observed in Asia, Africa and North America

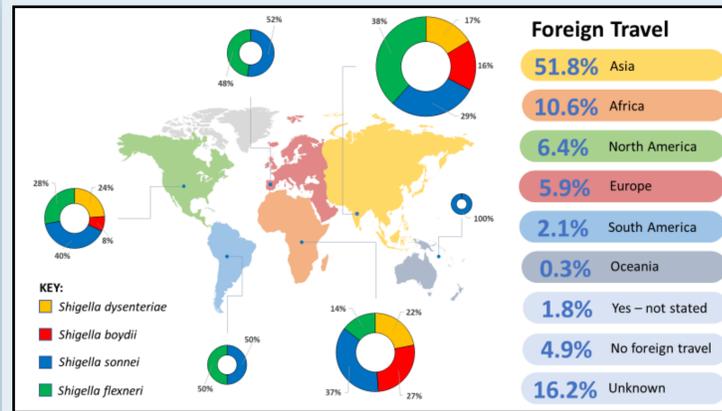


Figure 1. World map showing the geographical distribution of isolates associated with foreign travel (n=358)

Genotypic AMR and phenotypic AMR profiles were compared for 358 isolates (Table 2)

- Out of a possible 2864 isolate/antimicrobial class combinations, there were 147 (5.1%) discrepant results from 119 isolates
- Overall concordance was 94.9% between the two methods
- There were 54 major errors (isolates predicted to be genotypically resistant but were phenotypically susceptible)
 - 31/54 (57.4%) associated with tetracycline and trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole resistance
- There were 93 very major errors (isolates predicted to be genotypically susceptible but were phenotypically resistant)
 - 32/93 (34.4%) associated with isolates harbouring a single *gyrA* and/or *parC* mutation and exhibiting unexpectedly high MICs to ciprofloxacin
 - 37/93 (29.8%) associated with isolates with no identified AMR determinants but exhibiting high MIC values to fosfomycin

- 335/358 (93.6%) isolates were resistant to at least one antimicrobial
- 222/358 (62%) isolates were multi-drug resistant (resistant to three or more antimicrobial classes)

Table 2. Evaluation of genotypic analysis for the prediction of resistance phenotypes of all viable and pure isolates exhibiting resistance to at least one antimicrobial (n=358)

Antimicrobial	<i>S. dysenteriae</i> (n=81)				<i>S. boydii</i> (n=83)				<i>S. sonnei</i> (n=95)				<i>S. flexneri</i> (n=99)			
	P:S		P:R		P:S		P:R		P:S		P:R		P:S		P:R	
	G:R	G:S	G:R	G:S	G:R	G:S	G:R	G:S	G:R	G:S	G:R	G:S	G:R	G:S	G:R	G:S
Ampicillin	3 ^a	29	45	4	3 ^b	38	38	4	3 ^b	31	58	3	4 ^c	26	68	1
Azithromycin	1	80	0	0	0	78	5	0	0	4	33	58	0	42	19	38
Cephalosporins (CTX/CAZ/FEP/FOX)	3	69	9	0	1	74	8	0	4	49	42	0	1	78	20	0
Ciprofloxacin	0	81	0	0	0	80	3	0	0	43	37	15	0	43	39	17
Tetracycline	2	33	46	0	10 ^a	30	43	0	2	10	83	0	1	3	83	12
Ertapenem	0	81 ^d	0	0	0	83	0	0	0	95	0	0	0	99	0	0
Trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole	3 ^e	15 ^d	63	0	6 ^f	13	64	0	3	0	92	0	4 ^e	11	84	0
Fosfomycin	0	53 ^d	0	28	0	74	0	9	0	95	0	0	0	99	0	0

P:S, phenotype susceptible; P:R, phenotype resistant; G:R, genotype resistant; G:S, genotype susceptible. CTX, cefotaxime; CAZ, ceftazidime; FEP, cefepime; FOX, cefoxitin.

Breakpoints: ampicillin (>8 mg/L); azithromycin (>16 mg/L); cefotaxime (>2 mg/L); ceftazidime (>4 mg/L); cefepime (>4 mg/L); cefoxitin (>8 mg/L); ciprofloxacin (>0.5 mg/L); tetracycline (>8 mg/L); ertapenem (>0.5 mg/L); trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole (>4 mg/L); fosfomycin (>32 mg/L).

^a1 isolate MIC = 8 mg/L; ^b3 isolates MIC = 8 mg/L; ^c2 isolates MIC = 8 mg/L; ^d1 isolate nbg, no bacterial growth; ^e2 isolates MIC = 4 mg/L; ^f1 isolate MIC = 4 mg/L

In total, antimicrobial resistance profiles were analysed for 358 isolates (Table 1)

- Of 358 isolates, 348 (97.2%) carried resistance genes to one or more antimicrobial: *S. dysenteriae* (n=74/81; 91.4%), *S. boydii* (n=80/83; 96.4%), *S. sonnei* (n=95/95; 100%) and *S. flexneri* (n=99/99; 100%)
- A total of 40 different genes were detected conferring resistance to the antimicrobial classes in Table 1:
 - S. flexneri* isolates were observed to harbour the greatest variety of resistance genes, followed by *S. sonnei*, *S. boydii* and *S. dysenteriae* respectively:
 - S. flexneri* – 30 resistance genes
 - S. sonnei* – 27 resistance genes
 - S. boydii* – 25 resistance genes
 - S. dysenteriae* – 18 resistance genes

Table 1. Resistance genes identified in all four *Shigella* species, predicted resistance phenotype and prevalence

Resistance gene	Antibiotic Class	Resistance phenotype	<i>S. dysenteriae</i> (n=81)	<i>S. boydii</i> (n=83)	<i>S. sonnei</i> (n=95)	<i>S. flexneri</i> (n=99)
<i>bla</i> _{CTX-M-9}	β-lactams	AMP, CTX, CAZ, FEP, FOX	2 (2.47)	1 (1.20)	1 (1.05)	2 (2.02)
<i>bla</i> _{CTX-M-3}	β-lactams	AMP, CTX, CAZ, FEP, FOX	1 (1.20)		3 (3.16)	1 (1.01)
<i>bla</i> _{CTX-M-14}	β-lactams	AMP, CTX, CAZ, FEP, FOX			3 (3.16)	14 (14.14)
<i>bla</i> _{CTX-M-25}	β-lactams	AMP, CTX, CAZ, FEP, FOX	10 (12.35)	7 (8.43)	37 (38.95)	4 (4.04)
<i>bla</i> _{CTX-M-37}	β-lactams	AMP, CTX, CAZ, FEP, FOX			3 (3.16)	3 (3.16)
<i>bla</i> _{CTX-M-55}	β-lactams	AMP, CTX, CAZ, FEP, FOX			1 (1.05)	
<i>bla</i> _{CTX-M-120}	β-lactams	AMP, CTX, CAZ, FEP, FOX			1 (1.05)	
<i>bla</i> _{OXA-1}	β-lactams	AMP	13 (16.05)	7 (8.43)	3 (3.16)	44 (44.44)
<i>bla</i> _{TEM-1}	β-lactams	AMP	25 (30.86)	28 (33.73)	14 (14.74)	34 (34.34)
<i>bla</i> _{TEM-137}	β-lactams	AMP	2 (2.47)	1 (1.20)		
<i>bla</i> _{TEM-180}	β-lactams	AMP	3 (3.70)			
<i>mph</i> (A)	Macrolides	AZM	1 (1.23)	5 (6.02)	33 (34.74)	19 (19.19)
<i>erm</i> (B)(v)	Macrolides	AZM	1 (1.20)	1 (1.20)	10 (10.53)	9 (9.09)
<i>gyrA</i> _EC2(69-V-I)	Fluoroquinolones	CIP				1 (1.01)
<i>gyrA</i> _EC2(83-S-A)	Fluoroquinolones	CIP				12 (12.12)
<i>gyrA</i> _EC2(83-S-L)	Fluoroquinolones	CIP	17 (20.99)	25 (30.12)	48 (50.53)	45 (45.45)
<i>gyrA</i> _EC2(83-S-X)	Fluoroquinolones	CIP	1 (1.20)	1 (1.20)		
<i>gyrA</i> _EC2(87-D-G)	Fluoroquinolones	CIP	3 (3.70)	5 (6.02)	26 (27.37)	8 (8.08)
<i>gyrA</i> _EC2(87-D-N)	Fluoroquinolones	CIP		3 (3.61)	12 (12.63)	27 (27.27)
<i>gyrA</i> _EC2(87-D-V)	Fluoroquinolones	CIP	7 (8.64)	6 (7.23)	23 (24.21)	14 (14.14)
<i>parC</i> _EC2(57-S-N)	Fluoroquinolones	CIP				24 (24.24)
<i>parC</i> _EC2(80-S-I)	Fluoroquinolones	CIP				29 (29.29)
<i>parC</i> _EC2(80-S-R)	Fluoroquinolones	CIP				1 (1.01)
<i>parC</i> _EC2(84-E-K)	Fluoroquinolones	CIP				6 (6.06)
<i>parC</i> _EC2(96-R-L)	Fluoroquinolones	CIP				1 (1.01)
<i>qepA</i> -[v]	Fluoroquinolones	CIP				2 (2.02)
<i>qnrB</i> -4	Fluoroquinolones	CIP	2 (2.41)			
<i>qnrB</i> -19	Fluoroquinolones	CIP	1 (1.20)		11 (11.58)	4 (4.04)
<i>qnrS</i> -1	Fluoroquinolones	CIP	30 (37.04)	29 (34.94)	36 (37.89)	34 (34.34)
<i>tetA</i>	Tetracyclines	TET	48 (59.26)	53 (63.86)	85 (89.47)	84 (84.85)
<i>dfpA</i> -1	Combination - trimethoprim, sulphamides	SXT, TMP	35 (43.21)	35 (42.17)	91 (95.79)	75 (75.76)
<i>dfpA</i> -5	Combination - trimethoprim, sulphamides	SXT, TMP	5 (6.02)	1 (1.05)	1 (1.05)	1 (1.01)
<i>dfpA</i> -7	Combination - trimethoprim, sulphamides	SXT, TMP	6 (7.41)	8 (9.64)		
<i>dfpA</i> -8	Combination - trimethoprim, sulphamides	SXT, TMP			1 (1.05)	
<i>dfpA</i> -12	Combination - trimethoprim, sulphamides	SXT, TMP			2 (2.11)	
<i>dfpA</i> -14	Combination - trimethoprim, sulphamides	SXT, TMP	25 (30.86)	26 (31.33)	5 (5.26)	22 (22.22)
<i>dfpA</i> -17	Combination - trimethoprim, sulphamides	SXT, TMP	5 (6.17)	2 (2.41)	18 (18.95)	9 (9.09)
<i>sul</i> -1	Combination - trimethoprim, sulphamides	SXT, SMX	5 (6.17)	8 (9.64)	20 (21.05)	9 (9.09)
<i>sul</i> -2	Combination - trimethoprim, sulphamides	SXT, SMX	53 (65.43)	56 (67.47)	89 (93.68)	62 (62.63)
<i>sul</i> -3	Combination - trimethoprim, sulphamides	SXT, SMX			1 (1.05)	1 (1.01)

AMP, ampicillin; CTX, cefotaxime; CAZ, ceftazidime; FEP, cefepime; FOX, cefoxitin; AZM, azithromycin; CIP, ciprofloxacin; TET, tetracycline; SXT, trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole; TMP, trimethoprim; SMT, sulfamethoxazole

DISCUSSION

There was a good correlation between genotypic and phenotypic AMR profiles with 94.9% overall concordance between the two methods

- 119 isolates exhibiting 147 discrepant results:
 - 39 isolates with 54 major errors – possible reasons include:
 - 15 of the major errors for ampicillin, tetracycline and trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole had MIC values just below the EUCAST breakpoint – technical variation in agar dilution method is a possible cause
 - EUCAST breakpoints used for interpretation are non-specific to *Shigella* species – accuracy of interpretation of phenotypic data may be affected
 - AMR determinant present but not expressed/poorly expressed (silent resistant genes)
 - Loss of plasmids contributing to plasmid mediated resistance genes during storage and subculture (retrospective testing)
 - 86 isolates with 93 very major errors – possible reasons include:
 - AMR determinants not included in the reference database used for WGS analysis
 - Presence of novel, unknown AMR mechanisms, where resistance has not yet been identified
 - Mixed with another resistant organism due to contamination of isolate during storage (retrospective testing)
 - 32 very major errors associated with ciprofloxacin resistance
 - Strains with triple mutations or more in *gyrA* and *parC* genes typically confer high levels of ciprofloxacin resistance
 - Strains with double mutations or fewer in *gyrA* and *parC* genes and/or plasmid mediated AMR determinants typically result in reduced susceptibility instead of conferring full resistance
 - Different mutations in QRDR genes do not necessarily confer same level of resistance – some may have greater/lesser effect than others
 - Isolates harbouring the same combinations of resistance genes have showed variable MICs to ciprofloxacin, resulting in some strains classified as either susceptible or resistant
 - Shows analysis and interpretation of genomic data is complex in terms of predicting genotypic expression and resistance

CONCLUSIONS

- High concordance between the two methods indicates that genotypic AMR profiles are a robust and accurate approach for predicting resistance in *Shigella* species
- WGS should be used for continuous monitoring and public health surveillance to monitor emerging AMR
- However, data is complex and requires careful analysis – results can be difficult to interpret in terms of phenotypic expression
- Regular phenotypic monitoring is required to identify novel AMR mechanisms and allow updating of the reference database used for WGS analysis

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