

# Multiple PMQR genes including the rare qepA detected in Ciprofloxacin non-susceptible Escherichia coli and Klebsiella isolated from children under five years at hospital discharge, Kenya.

Kevin Kariuki (✉ [mkevinkariuki@gmail.com](mailto:mkevinkariuki@gmail.com))

Kenya Medical Research Institute (KEMRI)

Mame Mareme Diakhate

University of Washington

Susan Musembi

Kenyatta University

Stephanie N. Tornberg-Belanger

University of Washington

Doreen Rwigi

Kenya Medical Research Institute (KEMRI)

Timothy Mutuma

Kenya Medical Research Institute (KEMRI)

Elizabeth Mutuku

Kenya Medical Research Institute (KEMRI)

Kirkby D. Tickell

University of Washington

Olusegun O. Soge

University of Washington

Benson O. Singa

Kenya Medical Research Institute (KEMRI)

Judd L. Walson

University of Washington

Patricia B. Pavlinac

University of Washington

Samuel Kariuki

Kenya Medical Research Institute (KEMRI)

---

## Research Article

**Keywords:** Ciprofloxacin, PMQR, Escherichia coli, Klebsiella spp, qepA, post-hospital discharge

**Posted Date:** January 4th, 2023

**DOI:** <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-2413866/v1>

**License:** © ⓘ This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License. [Read Full License](#)

**Additional Declarations:** No competing interests reported.

---

**Version of Record:** A version of this preprint was published at BMC Microbiology on May 13th, 2023. See the published version at <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12866-023-02849-2>.

## Abstract

**Background:** The increasing spread of fluoroquinolone resistant enteric bacteria is a global public health concern. Children recently discharged from the hospital are at high risk of carriage of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) due to frequent exposure to antimicrobials during inpatient stays. This study aimed to determine the prevalence, correlates of ciprofloxacin non-susceptibility, and distribution of plasmid-mediated quinolone resistance (PMQR) genes in *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) and *Klebsiella* spp isolated from children under five years being discharged from two Kenyan Hospitals.

**Methods:** *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* spp were isolated from fecal samples from children discharged from hospital and subjected to antimicrobial susceptibility testing by disc diffusion and E-test. Ciprofloxacin non-susceptible isolates were screened for seven PMQR genes using multiplex PCR. Poisson regression was used to determine the association between carriage of ciprofloxacin non-susceptible isolates and patient characteristics.

**Results:** Of the 280 ciprofloxacin non-susceptible isolates: 188 *E. coli* and 92 *Klebsiella* spp isolates identified among 266 discharged children, 195 (68%) were ciprofloxacin-resistant (MIC  $\geq 1 \mu\text{g/mL}$ ). Among these 195 isolates, 130 (67%) had high level ciprofloxacin minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) ( $\geq 32 \mu\text{g/mL}$ ). Over 80% of the isolates had at least one PMQR gene identified: *aac(6)-Ib-cr* (60%), *qnrB* (24%), *oqxAB* (22%), *qnrS* (16%), and *qepA* (6%), however *qnrA* was not identified in any isolates tested. Co-carriage of *qnrB* with *acc(6)-Ib-cr* was the most predominant accounting for 20% of all the isolates. Ceftriaxone use during hospital admission and the presence of ESBL production were significantly associated with the carriage of ciprofloxacin non-susceptible *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* spp.

**Conclusion:** Ciprofloxacin non-susceptibility is common among *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* spp isolated from hospital discharged children in Kenya. Carriage and co-carriage of PMQR, including the newly identified *qepA* gene, were frequently observed. These findings suggest that children leaving the hospital may serve as an important reservoir for transmission of resistant *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* spp to the community. Enhanced surveillance for AMR determinants is critical to inform interventions to control antimicrobial-resistant bacteria.

## Background

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is a global public health threat associated with morbidity, rehospitalization, longer hospital stays, and mortality [1, 2]. In sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), antibiotic-resistant pathogens are major drivers of morbidity and mortality in children under five years of age, fuelled by inappropriate antibiotic use and poor sanitation [3] leading to the selection and spread of antibiotic-resistant bacteria [4]. Estimates by the 2019 report on the Global Burden of Bacterial AMR identified SSA as the highest contributor to the global AMR burden [5].

Commensal resident gut bacteria such as *E. coli* and *Klebsiella pneumoniae* play a critical role in antimicrobial resistance as they act as reservoirs for the carriage of AMR determinants [6, 7]. These enteric bacteria can become pathogenic or may transfer AMR genes to other pathogenic Enterobacterales, such as *Salmonella* and *Shigella* [8]. The acquisition of AMR and virulence factors by commensal *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* spp is mediated by mobile genetic elements (MGEs), such as plasmids and transposons, via horizontal gene transfer [9]. Antibiotic resistance in commensal enteric bacteria, such as *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and *E. coli*, has been reported in 85–90% of WHO member state regions [10].

Fluoroquinolones such as ciprofloxacin (CIP) are effective broad-spectrum antibiotics used for the treatment of bacterial infections making them a recommended choice of therapy for enteric infections such as salmonellosis and shigellosis [11]. The emergence of fluoroquinolone resistance has reduced therapeutic options, especially for Enterobacterales infections [12]. Fluoroquinolone resistance is mediated by two mechanisms: chromosomal mutations in DNA gyrase and topoisomerase IV enzymes and plasmid-mediated quinolone resistance (PMQR). Mutations in fluoroquinolone binding sites during DNA replication mediate high-level fluoroquinolone resistance [13]. Mechanisms of PMQR genes include protection of DNA gyrase and topoisomerase IV from quinolone activity mediated by *qnr* genes: *qnrA*, *qnrB*, *qnrC*, *qnrD*, and *qnrVC* [14]. The aminoglycoside-modifying enzyme encoded by *aac(6)-Ib-cr* is involved in the acetylation of fluoroquinolones leading to reduced

susceptibility to ciprofloxacin and norfloxacin [14]. The final mechanism is enhanced efflux pump activity mediated by quinolone efflux pump (*qepA*) and *oqxAB* associated with reduced susceptibility to fluoroquinolone and increased MICs [15].

There is paucity of data available on fluoroquinolone resistance and PMQR determinants in commensal bacteria, especially in children under five years in Kenya. In this study, we sought to determine the prevalence and the distribution of PMQR determinants mediating ciprofloxacin non-susceptibility in *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* spp isolates from children being discharged from the hospital. In addition, we identified correlates of carriage of ciprofloxacin non-susceptible isolates. This in-depth analysis will help inform the burden of ciprofloxacin resistance carriage in children under five years being discharged from hospitals in SSA.

## Results

### Participant population and baseline characteristics

Six hundred and fifty-one isolates (406 *E. coli* and 245 *Klebsiella* spp) were isolated from 568 children and subjected to AST (**Figure 1**). Among the 568 children, 343 (60.4%) were discharged from Kisii Teaching and Referral Hospital (KTRH) and 103 (39.6%) were discharged from Homabay County Referral Hospital (HCRH), 348 (60%) were less than two years of age and 348 (61.3%) were female (**Table 1**). Prior to discharge, the median duration of hospitalization was 3 days [IQR 2,6 days] with 203 (35.7%) children being hospitalized for  $\geq 5$  days, 12 (2.1%) were HIV infected while 70 (12.3%) were HIV exposed. There were more HIV-exposed children in HCRH 51 (22.7%) compared to KTRH 19, (5.5%). Common diagnoses at discharge were pneumonia 164 (28.9%), malaria 155 (27.3%), and diarrhoea 108 (19%) (**Table 1**). The majority of the children 502 (88.4%) had an antibiotic prescribed during their hospitalization with penicillins 359 (63.2%) being the most prescribed antibiotic followed by gentamicin 316 (55.6%) and ceftriaxone 187 (32.9%). Fluoroquinolones were rarely administered during hospitalization with ciprofloxacin being prescribed to only 2 (0.9%) children in HCRH and none among children from KTRH. Children at KTRH 328 (95.6%) compared to HCRH 174, (88.4%) were more likely to be prescribed an antibiotic. Nearly half of the children, 266 (46.8%) had ciprofloxacin non-susceptible isolates (46.3% *E. coli* and 37.6% *Klebsiella* spp). Of the 83 children who had both *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* isolated, 14 (2.46%) had ciprofloxacin non-susceptibility in both isolates.

### Table 1: Participant Baseline Characteristics

	Kisii		Homa Bay		Total	
<i>n</i>	N:343		N:225		N:568	
<b>Sociodemographic</b>						
<b>Age(months)</b>						
1 to 5	53	15.5%	20	8.9%	73	12.9%
6 to 11	73	21.3%	44	19.6%	117	20.6%
12 to 23	87	25.4%	71	31.6%	158	27.8%
24 to 59	130	37.9%	90	40%	220	38.7%
<b>Sex</b>						
Male	205	59.8%	133	59.1%	338	59.5%
Female	138	40.2%	92	40.9%	230	40.5%
<b>Duration of Hospitalization(days)</b>						
0 to 2	100	29.2%	66	29.3%	166	29.2%
2 to 4	121	35.3%	73	32.4%	194	34.2%
>5	117	34.1%	86	38.2%	203	35.7%
Unknown <sup>a</sup>	5	1.5%	0	0	5	0.9%
median (25%, 75%)	3	(2, 6)	4	(2, 6)	3	(2, 6)
<b>HIV Status</b>						
HIV unexposed	309	90.1%	164	72.9%	473	83.3%
HIV exposed, uninfected	19	5.5%	51	22.7%	70	12.3%
HIV infected	6	1.7%	6	2.7%	12	2.1%
HIV-uninfected/exposure status unknown	9	2.6%	4	1.8%	13	2.3%
<b>Diagnosis at Discharge <sup>b, c</sup></b>						
Diarrhea	65	19%	43	19.1%	108	19%
Lower respiratory tract infection	117	34.1%	47	20.9%	164	28.9%
Malaria	68	19.8%	87	38.7%	155	27.3%
Malnutrition	24	7%	18	8%	42	7.4%
Pneumonia	117	34.1%	47	20.9%	164	28.9%
Upper respiratory tract infection	36	10.5%	10	4.4%	46	8.1%
<b>Any antibiotic used during admission (enrollment visit)</b>						
Any antibiotics used	328	95.6%	174	77.3%	502	88.4%
Azithromycin	2	0.6%	2	0.9%	4	0.7%
Ceftriaxone	102	29.7%	85	37.8%	187	32.9%
Penicillin	268	78.1%	91	40.4%	359	63.2%
Gentamicin	241	70.3%	75	33.3%	316	55.6%

	Kisii		Homa Bay		Total	
Ciprofloxacin	0	0	2	0.9%	2	0.4%

<sup>a</sup> Missing either admission or discharge dates (n=5)

<sup>b</sup> Diagnosis are not mutually exclusive

<sup>c</sup> No documented diagnosis at discharge (n=23)

### Correlates for carriage of fluoroquinolone non-susceptible *E. coli* or *Klebsiella* at Hospital discharge.

Children who received an antibiotic during hospitalization were 69% more likely to have a ciprofloxacin non-susceptible *E. coli* isolate (PR 1.69, [95%CI=1.09, 2.63], p=0.01) and over two times more likely to have a ciprofloxacin non-susceptible *Klebsiella* spp isolate (PR 2.61, [95%CI=1.05, 6.53], p=0.01). The presence of ESBL carriage was also associated with the presence of either a ciprofloxacin non-susceptible *E. coli* or *Klebsiella* spp isolate. Length of hospital stay was associated with ciprofloxacin non-susceptible *E. coli* and children with hospitalizations extending 4 or more days were nearly 40% more likely to have ciprofloxacin non-susceptible *E. coli* (PR 1.38 [95%CI 1.07, 1.78] p= 0.01). The use of either ciprofloxacin or ceftriaxone were equally associated with ciprofloxacin non-susceptible *Klebsiella* or *E. coli*. Children hospitalized for diarrhoea were 27% less likely to have a ciprofloxacin non-susceptible *E. coli* compared to those who did not present with diarrhea (PR 0.73 [95%CI 0.53, 1.0] p=0.03). Similar magnitudes of association for hospital length and diarrhea diagnosis were observed in *Klebsiella* isolates but were not statistically significant. (Table S1)

### Distribution of ciprofloxacin non-susceptible isolates.

Among the 266 children included in this study, we isolated 188 and 92 ciprofloxacin-susceptible *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* spp, respectively, totaling 280 ciprofloxacin non-susceptible isolates. Of the 266 children, 14 had both a ciprofloxacin non-susceptible *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* spp isolated. Among the 92 *Klebsiella* spp, 86 were *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and 6 were *Klebsiella oxytoca* (Figure 1).

**Table 2: Distribution of MIC (µg/mL) per organism**

MIC values (µg/mL)	Frequency of isolates with indicated MIC value									CIP MIC <sub>50</sub> (µg/mL)	CIP MIC <sub>90</sub> (µg/mL)
	0.25	0.5	1	2	4	8	16	32			
Bacterial species											
<i>E. coli</i>	2	51	9	7	10	2	5	102	32	32	
<i>K. oxytoca</i>	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	32	32	
<i>K. pneumoniae</i>	1	10	23	23	2	1	2	24	2	32	
No. of occurrences(%)	4 (1.4)	61 (21.8)	32 (11.4)	30 (10.7)	12 (4.3)	4 (1.4)	7 (2.5)	130 (46.4)			

CIP MICs values for the 280 ciprofloxacin non-susceptible isolates (188 *E. coli* and 92 *Klebsiella* [86 *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and 6 *Klebsiella oxytoca*) ranged between 0.25 – 32 µg/mL with CIP MIC<sub>50</sub> (µg/mL) of 32 µg/mL. Of the 280 isolates, 214 (76.4%) were resistant while 61 (21.8 %) were intermediate. Among the resistant isolates, high-level CIP resistance (MIC ≥32µg/mL)

was common in almost half of the isolates (46.4%) most commonly among *E. coli* 102 (54.3%) and slightly less in *Klebsiella* spp (28/92, 30.4%). The CIP MIC distribution and MIC<sub>50</sub> among the isolates are shown in **Table 2**.

### Distribution of PMQR determinants

Six different PMQR determinants: *qnr* (*qnrB*, and *qnrS*), enzyme modifying *aac(6′)-Ib-cr*, and efflux pumps (*qepA*, *oqxA*, and *oqxB*) were detected (**Table 3**). At least one of the PMQR genes was detected in nearly all (224/280, 80%) of the screened isolates. Most *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* spp (40%) isolates had at least one *qnr* determinant detected. Of the *qnr* genes, *qnrB* was the most commonly detected *qnr* gene (20/188, 11%) and 47/92(51%) in *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* spp, respectively. In *E. coli*, *qnrS* was the most detected *qnr* gene (27/188, 14%). *qnrA* was not detected in any of the *E. coli* or *Klebsiella* spp isolates.

**Table 3: Distribution of PMQR determinants per organism**

	<i>E. coli</i>	<i>K. oxytoca</i>	<i>K. pneumoniae</i>	Total
PMQR genes	N=188	N=6	N=86	N=280
<i>qnrB</i>	20 (11%)	2 (33%)	45 (52%)	67 (24%)
<i>qnrS</i>	27 (14%)	1 (17%)	18 (21%)	46 (16%)
<i>aac(6′)-Ib-cr</i>	89 (47%)	5 (83%)	73 (85%)	167 (59%)
<i>qepA</i>	16 (9%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	16 (6%)
<i>OqxA</i>	2 (1%)	4 (67%)	83 (97%)	89 (32%)
<i>OqxB</i>	0 (0%)	3 (50%)	59 (69%)	62 (22%)
<i>OqxAB</i>	0 (0%)	3 (50%)	58 (67%)	61 (22%)

The most predominant plasmid-mediated quinolone resistance gene was *aac(6′)-Ib* (167/280, 59%) identified in more than half of all fluoroquinolone non-susceptible isolates. *Klebsiella* spp had more *aac(6′)-Ib* positive isolates with (78/89, 85%) *Klebsiella* compared to (89/188, 47%) of *E. coli* isolates. All isolates carrying the *aac(6′)-Ib* gene were positive for the *cr* variant. *qepA* was only detected in (16/188, 9%) *E. coli* fluoroquinolone non-susceptible isolates (**Figure 2**). The *oqxAB* complex was the most dominant efflux pump detected (61/92, 66.3%) in *Klebsiella*, however, none were detected in *E. coli*. Only (2/188, 1%) *E. coli* isolates had the *oqxA* gene, however, both of these isolates lacked the *oqxB* gene therefore none of the *E. coli* isolates carried the *oqxAB* complex.

### *QepA* sequence analysis

DNA sequencing of the *qepA* gene from 16 *E. coli* isolates revealed amino acid substitutions at codons 95 and 134. Double amino acid substitutions F95L and V134I were common in 9/16 (56.3%) *E. coli* isolates. Six *qepA* positive *E. coli* isolates carried had no amino acid substitution while one isolate had only V134I amino acid substitution (**Table 4**). Assigned accession numbers for the *qepA* gene from 8 representative isolates submitted to GenBank are as follows: ACC.No:OP918677, and ACC.No OQ031499-OQ031505 (sequences awaiting processing by NCBI). Additional details (See **Additional file 4**)

**Table 4: MICs and amino acid changes in *qepA* *E. coli* isolates**

Isolate ID	Accession No.	Site	Organism	CIP MIC	INTER	<i>qepA</i> Variants	Amino acid variation	
							F95	V134
E24	OQ031502	Kisii	<i>E. coli</i>	32	R	-	F95	V134I
E28	OQ031503	Kisii	<i>E. coli</i>	2	R	<i>qepA1</i>	F95	V134
E40	OQ031504	Kisii	<i>E. coli</i>	2	R	<i>qepA1</i>	F95	V134
E42	OQ031505	Kisii	<i>E. coli</i>	32	R	<i>qepA1</i>	F95	V134
E49	OQ031499	Homabay	<i>E. coli</i>	32	R	<i>qepA4</i>	F95L	V134I
E66	OP918677	Kisii	<i>E. coli</i>	32	R	<i>qepA4</i>	F95L	V134I
E79	OQ031500	Homabay	<i>E. coli</i>	32	R	<i>qepA4</i>	F95L	V134I
E80	OQ031501	Homabay	<i>E. coli</i>	32	R	<i>qepA4</i>	F95L	V134I

### Distribution of co-carriage of PMQR determinants per organism

A total of 225/280 (80%) isolates had at least one PMQR gene including; all 92 *Klebsiella* spp and most *E. coli* 133/189 (70.37%). Interestingly, *qnrB* and *qnrS* co-occurred in two *Klebsiella* spp (0.71%) isolates. Co-carriage of *qnrB* with *acc(6')-lb-cr* was present in 12/188 (6.4%) *E. coli* and *aac(6')-lb-cr* with *oqxAB* detected in 47/92 (51%) *Klebsiella* spp were the most prevalent combination of PMQR gene combinations. *E. coli* isolates had three notable combinations of different PMQR determinants with *qnr* combination being predominant in the co-existence of genes. On the other hand, *Klebsiella* spp had as many as nine different combinations and similarly, *qnr* gene combinations were predominant in the different combinations of determinants. The most common co-carriage in both bacterial species was *qnrB* with *acc(6')-lb-cr* found in 56/280 (20%). Additionally, *acc(6')-lb-cr* co-existed with a majority of PMQR genes in both *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* spp isolates (Table 5).

**Table 5: Co-carriage of PMQR determinants per organism**

PMQR genes present	Organism		No. of occurrences
	<i>E. coli</i>	<i>Klebsiella</i> spp	
At least one PMQR	133/188	92/92	225/280
<i>qnrB</i> + <i>qnrS</i>	0	2	2
<i>qnrB</i> + <i>qnrS</i> + <i>aac(6')-lb-cr</i>	0	1	1
<i>qnrB</i> + <i>qnrS</i> + <i>aac(6')-lb-cr</i> + <i>oqxAB</i>	0	1	1
<i>qnrB</i> + <i>aac(6')-lb-cr</i>	12	44	56
<i>qnrB</i> + <i>acc(6')-lb-cr</i> + <i>oqxAB</i>	0	25	25
<i>qnrB</i> + <i>oqxAB</i>	0	13	13
<i>aac(6')-lb-cr</i> + <i>oqxAB</i>	0	47	47
<i>qnrS</i> + <i>aac(6')-lb-cr</i>	6	15	21
<i>qnrS</i> + <i>aac(6')-lb-cr</i> + <i>oqxAB</i>	0	10	10
<i>qepA</i> + <i>qnrS</i>	3	0	3
<i>qepA</i> + <i>aac(6')-lb-cr</i>	3	0	3



## Discussion

Fluoroquinolone resistance in Enterobacteriales in children under five years recently discharged from the hospital is of great public health concern due to the risk of transmission of these bacteria to the community, and treatment failure, which may require re-hospitalization during the post-hospital discharge period. This study sought to determine the prevalence, correlates of ciprofloxacin non-susceptibility, and distribution of PMQR genes in *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* spp, isolated from children under five years recently discharged from hospitals. We observed a high level of ciprofloxacin resistance among children being discharged from two hospitals in western Kenya and multiple fluoroquinolone resistance genes in *Klebsiella* spp and *E. coli*. Our findings show high levels of MICs to ciprofloxacin in a majority of the ciprofloxacin non-susceptible isolates, which is disturbing due to the relationship between increasing MICs leading to fluoroquinolone non-susceptibility and fluoroquinolone treatment failure [16]. This is particularly important given that fluoroquinolones are recommended therapies for the treatment of enteric infections such as shigellosis and salmonellosis [17, 18].

Ciprofloxacin non-susceptibility was detected in commensal *E. coli* (46%) and *Klebsiella* spp (38%) isolated from children being discharged from hospital and there was concomitant high carriage of PMQR genes (80%) among the isolates. This is despite less than 1% of the hospitalized children receiving fluoroquinolone antibiotics during hospitalization. The high fluoroquinolone non-susceptibility observed could be attributed to co-selection pressure mediated by non-fluoroquinolone antibiotics especially cephalosporins such as ceftriaxone, facilitating the selection and carriage of PMQR genes as previously reported [19]. This situation is further exacerbated by resistance pressure mediated by *ESBL* production which is evident in this study; the presence of *ESBL* production is highly associated with ciprofloxacin non-susceptibility carriage [20]. Almost all children in the study population received an antibiotic during their in-patient stay with penicillin, gentamicin, and ceftriaxone being the most prescribed antibiotics consistent with other findings in Kenya [21, 22]. Antimicrobial usage has been associated with selective pressure for AMR in gut bacteria [23]; our findings show that there is a strong correlation between antibiotic use and the carriage of ciprofloxacin non-susceptible bacteria.

PMQR genes facilitate low-level fluoroquinolone resistance, however, they select for higher-level resistance mediated by mutations on genes encoding gyrase and topoisomerase enzymes [24]. In this study, we detected six (*qnrB*, *qnrS*, *aac(6')Ib-cr*, *qepA*, *oqxA*, and *oqxB*) PMQR genes mediating fluoroquinolone resistance in both *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* spp. One of the six PMQR genes (*qepA*) had not previously been detected in clinical isolates in Kenya. The *qepA* gene has been reported in very few studies within the SSA region: Chad, Malawi, Egypt, Sierra Leon, and Nigeria [25–29]. Other PMQR determinants that have been identified in Kenya are *aac(6')Ib-cr*, *qnrB*, *qnrS* in *E. coli* [30, 31], *qnrS*, and *oqxAB* in *K.pneumoniae* [32, 33]. Intestinal carriage of PMQR genes in these bacteria has been reported in several studies in SSA and globally [34–38]. This is particularly worrying due to their potential transfer of these genetic determinants through MGEs to pathogenic bacterial species, thereby mediating the transmission of resistant bacteria that may result in treatment failure.

The *aac(6')Ib-cr* gene was the most commonly detected PMQR determinant. Most of the *Klebsiella* spp (84.78%) harboured the gene aminoglycoside modifying enzyme while almost half of the *E. coli* isolates (90/188, 48%) harbored the gene which is consistent with findings from previous studies [39]. The aminoglycoside acetyltransferase enzymes have not only been associated with reduced susceptibility to fluoroquinolones but also to aminoglycosides, thus limiting effective antibiotic treatment [40]. *Qnr* genes were the second most widely detected PMQR determinants associated with resistance to fluoroquinolones with prevalence rates of 40%. The prevalence of *qnr* genes (40%) was higher compared to previous studies from Kenya which reported (2%) and (8.4%) [33, 41]. The *qepA* gene, one of the most recently identified PMQR determinants, has been associated with decreased susceptibility to fluoroquinolones and increased MIC levels [24]. This determinant was detected in (16/188, 8.5%) *E. coli* isolates which was slightly lower compared to previous studies in Nigeria (18.5%) and Sierra Leon (23%) [27, 29]. DNA sequencing confirmed the existence of the *qepA* gene among *E. coli* isolates in Kenya with F95L and V134I amino acid substitution consistent with amino acid substitution reported in the *qepA4* allele [42]. To our knowledge, this is the first report of the detection of *qepA* in Kenya; this is worrisome for public health and calls for more active fluoroquinolone resistance surveillance.

Co-carriage of PMQR plays a critical role in multidrug resistance as it influences increased MICs leading to decreased susceptibility to fluoroquinolone antibiotics that may lead to treatment failure. We observed high multiple co-carriage in both *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* fluoroquinolone non-susceptible isolates with co-existence of *aac(6')Ib-cr* and *qnrB*, or *qnrS* genes, being the most predominant co-carriage in both bacteria. The prevalence of co-carriage between *qnrB* and *aac(6')Ib-cr* (20%) was found to be higher compared to findings from previous studies in SSA [43]. We observed co-carriage of *qnrB* with *qnrS* in two *K. pneumoniae* isolates, a phenomenon that has previously been reported in *Klebsiella* spp, however, its prevalence in this study was much lower compared than 18.75% reported in Togo [20]. This co-carriage could be attributed to multiple plasmids carrying the different *qnr* genes within the same genetic environment as has been previously demonstrated [44]. Notably, 12 isolates with the rare *qepA* co-existed with other PMQR genes (*qnrS* or *aac(6')Ib-cr*) which was consistent with findings from other previous studies [45, 46]. Interestingly, one *K. pneumoniae* isolate co-harboured all determinants detected in this study except *qnrA* and *qepA*. This is concerning as the co-existence of multiple PMQR genes has been linked to resistance to multiple antibiotic classes due to the carriage of multiple plasmids carrying resistance determinants to other classes of antibiotics.

This is one of the few studies that has characterized AMR determinants in children post-hospital discharge in SSA settings, including screening for a wide range of PMQR genetic determinants, highlighting the greater diversity and distribution of FQ resistance genes. In addition, the focus on commensal *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* spp, two commonly isolated Enterobacteriales associated with the carriage of AMR determinants as indicator organisms for AMR carriage rather than pathogenic bacteria was important due to their ability to transfer AMR genetic elements.

This study had some limitations. Ciprofloxacin non-susceptibility was determined in a subset of isolates from children after discharge, which means there could be more non-susceptible isolates that were not screened. Only two children in this study received ciprofloxacin or rather a fluoroquinolone during admission, this may not be sufficient to clearly show the role of fluoroquinolone resistance in poor patient outcomes during the post-discharge period. Limiting the analysis to PCR detection only, other mechanisms mediating resistance such as point mutations which could be detected by comprehensive whole-genome sequencing analyses were not captured. Being a cross-sectional study, we were unable to determine when AMR was acquired, either at the community level or hospital-acquired. Having analyzed isolates at discharge, this may not reflect the resistance at admission (which is when treatment decisions need to be made) and therefore unable to tease out whether children had resistance at admission or whether it developed during the hospitalization.

## Conclusion

This study detected multiple PMQR genes and the first report of the *qepA* gene among ciprofloxacin non-susceptible clinical *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* spp. The study observed high levels of ciprofloxacin non-susceptibility and fluoroquinolone resistance carriage which could form a reservoir for the community spread of resistance, thus posing a great challenge in the effective treatment during hospital stays and subsequently during the post-hospital discharge period. We recommend enhanced surveillance for fluoroquinolone resistance carriage which will be vital to inform interventions to control antimicrobial-resistant bacteria and antimicrobial stewardship in rural and peri-urban populations.

## Materials And Methods

### Study Design

This was a cross-sectional nested study from the Toto Bora trial [47] that utilized *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* spp isolates recovered from fecal samples of children under five years discharged from two hospitals in western Kenya. Children being discharged from Kisii Teaching and Referral Hospital (KTRH) and Homabay County Referral Hospital (HCRH) aged between 1–59 months were recruited in the parent study [47] to assess the effects of Azithromycin on mortality and rehospitalization in children under five years. The nested study used clinical, sociodemographic, and health history information collected during physical examination from children enrolled in the parent trial or interviews with their caregivers at hospital discharge. Faecal or rectal swab samples were collected before Azithromycin administration was done. The swabs were cultured, isolates recovered and biochemically identified as previously described [47].

## Parent trial

### Bacterial isolation, identification, and Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing.

After laboratory culture, *E. coli* and *Klebsiella* spp isolates were identified and AST was performed by disc diffusion as previously described [48]. Briefly, a rectal swab or whole stool was collected from the enrolled child and was inoculated on MacConkey Agar and incubated at 37°C for 24 hours within 24 hours of specimen collection time. Lactose fermenting colonies suspected to be *Escherichia coli* or *Klebsiella* spp were isolated and the API 20E (bioMérieux, Inc, Durham, NC, United States) system confirmed the species of bacteria. A total of 568 children were randomly selected in the parent study, from whom 406 *E. coli* and 245 *Klebsiella* spp isolates were recovered and selected to have AST performed. The isolates were subjected to AST by disc diffusion to 5µg of ciprofloxacin (Oxoid, Hampshire, England) representing the fluoroquinolone antibiotic class. The isolates were also screened for extended-spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL) production by the combined disc diffusion test [49] and interpreted using the criteria from the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) [50]. *E. coli* ATCC 25922 and ECO NCTC 13351 were used as negative and positive controls respectively for ESBL screening. *E. coli* or *Klebsiella* spp isolates with intermediate (22-25mm) or resistant ( $\leq 21$ mm) phenotype zone size interpretations for ciprofloxacin were considered ciprofloxacin non-susceptible [50].

### Nested study.

#### Ciprofloxacin MIC determination by E-test.

In the nested study, MICs for ciprofloxacin were determined by the E-test method on isolates that were ciprofloxacin non-susceptible by disc diffusion per CLSI guidelines [50]. Bacterial colonies were suspended in 0.85 normal saline to a turbidity equivalent to 0.5 McFarland standard (bioMérieux, Inc, Durham, NC, United States). The bacterial suspension was inoculated on Mueller Hinton agar (Oxoid, Hants, United Kingdom) plates, and the ciprofloxacin E-strips were placed at the center of the agar followed by incubation at 35°C for 16–18 hours. Concentration ranges for MICs for E-test strips for ciprofloxacin CI (0.002-32 µg/mL) (bioMérieux Marcy l'Etoile, France) and non-susceptibility interpreted according to 2021 CLSI guidelines [51]. MIC results were classified as follows: susceptible ( $\leq 0.25$  µg/mL), intermediate (0.5 µg/mL), or resistant ( $\geq 1$  µg/mL). *E. coli* ATCC 25922 was used as quality control for determining MICs by the E-test method.

#### DNA extraction and PMQR Characterization.

Genomic DNA was extracted using the boiling preparation method [52]. Extracted DNA was subjected to a series of single and multiplex PCR reactions to identify PMQR determinants: *qnrA*, *qnrB*, *qnrS*, *aac(6′)-Ib*, *qepA*, *oqxA*, and *oqxB*. PCR reactions were performed using previously described primers and PCR conditions [53–55] (**Table S2**). All isolates positive for the *aac(6′)-Ib* gene were further analyzed to determine carriage of the (-cr) variant associated with ciprofloxacin resistance [56]. The PCR products and known positive strains were digested with the restriction enzyme *Bst*CI (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA) to identify *aac(6′)-Ib-cr* which lacks the *Bst*CI restriction site present in ciprofloxacin susceptible isolates as previously described [56]. The positive controls used in screening for PMQR genes were in-house isolates with confirmed target genes by whole genome sequencing and sequence analysis [32, 57]. The identity of the amplified *qepA* gene was confirmed by amplicon sequencing of both the forward and reverse strands. PCR products positive for the *qepA* gene were purified using DNA Clean & Concentrator™-25 Kit (Zymo Research, Orange, CA, USA) and sequenced by the Sanger sequencing method using an ABI 3730 DNA analyzer. The consensus nucleotide sequences were analyzed and compared to available sequences deposited in the GenBank at National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) using the Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) program (<http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov>). The sequences of the *qepA* gene were submitted to GenBank.

#### Statistical analysis.

Fluoroquinolone resistance was defined by combining resistant and intermediate interpretative breakpoints for ciprofloxacin. Risk factors for fluoroquinolone resistance previously associated with AMR from published data were chosen to test for association [58]. Patient characteristics including age, sex, hospital site, duration of hospitalization, antibiotic use at admission, HIV status, diagnosis at admission, and ESBL carriage were assessed. Poisson regression was used to determine prevalence

ratios (PRs) and associated 95% confidence intervals (CIs) while Chi-square test was used to determine p-values. Associations were considered statistically significant at an alpha of 0.05. Analysis was performed in R software version 4.1.3.

## Abbreviations

AME Aminoglycoside Modifying Enzyme

AMR Antimicrobial Resistance

AST Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing

ESBL Extended Spectrum Beta Lactamase

CLSI Clinical and Laboratory Standard Institute

CMR Centre for Microbiology Research

DNA Deoxyribonucleic Acid

FQ Fluoroquinolone

KEMRI Kenya Medical Research Institute

MDR Multidrug Resistance

MGE Mobile Genetic Elements

MIC Minimum Inhibitory Concentration

PID Patient Identifier

PMQR Plasmid Mediated Quinolone Resistance

QRDR Quinolone Resistance Determining Region

## Declarations

### Ethics approval and consent to participate

This study was approved by the Scientific and Ethics Review Unit (SERU) of Kenya Medical Research Institute (KEMRI) (SSC No. 4127). The parent study was approved by Kenya Medical Research Institute (SERU 3086). All methods were performed in accordance with the relevant guidelines and regulations for clinical and laboratory research ethics. Informed written consent was provided by the caregivers or the child's legal guardian in their preferred language for the child to participate in this study. If a caregiver was not literate, information was read in the language of their choice and consent was obtained using a witnessed thumbprint.

### Consent for publication

Not applicable.

### Availability of data and material

The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study will be available from the corresponding author ppav@uw.edu. The *qepA* gene sequences from 8 representative isolates have been submitted to GenBank

(<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/>) under assigned accession numbers: OP918677 (E66), OQ031499 (E49), OQ031500 (E79), OQ031501 (E80), OQ031502 (E24), OQ031503 (E28), OQ031504 (E40), and OQ031505 (E42).

## Competing interests

The authors did not provide a conflict of interest statement.

## Funding

This study was made possible by generous funding from the Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health & Human Development R01 HD079695 and the University of Washington Royalty Research Fund.

## Authors' contribution

KK, PBP, and SK study conceptualization and design. KK, DR, TM, EM Laboratory analysis. JLW and PBP funding acquisition. SK, PBP, SM, and BS supervision. MDM, KDT, STB, data analysis, and curation. KK, PBP, and SK data interpretation and drafting of the manuscript. All authors reviewed, edited, and approved the final manuscript.

## Acknowledgments

We would like to thank Dr. Lillian Musila (Walter Reed Army Institute of Research) for providing control isolates and reviewing the draft manuscript and Dr. Erastus Mulinge (Kenya Medical Research Institute) for guidance on molecular assays and mentorship. We also would like to thank all the children and their families who participated in this study as well as all staff who worked tirelessly on this project.

## References

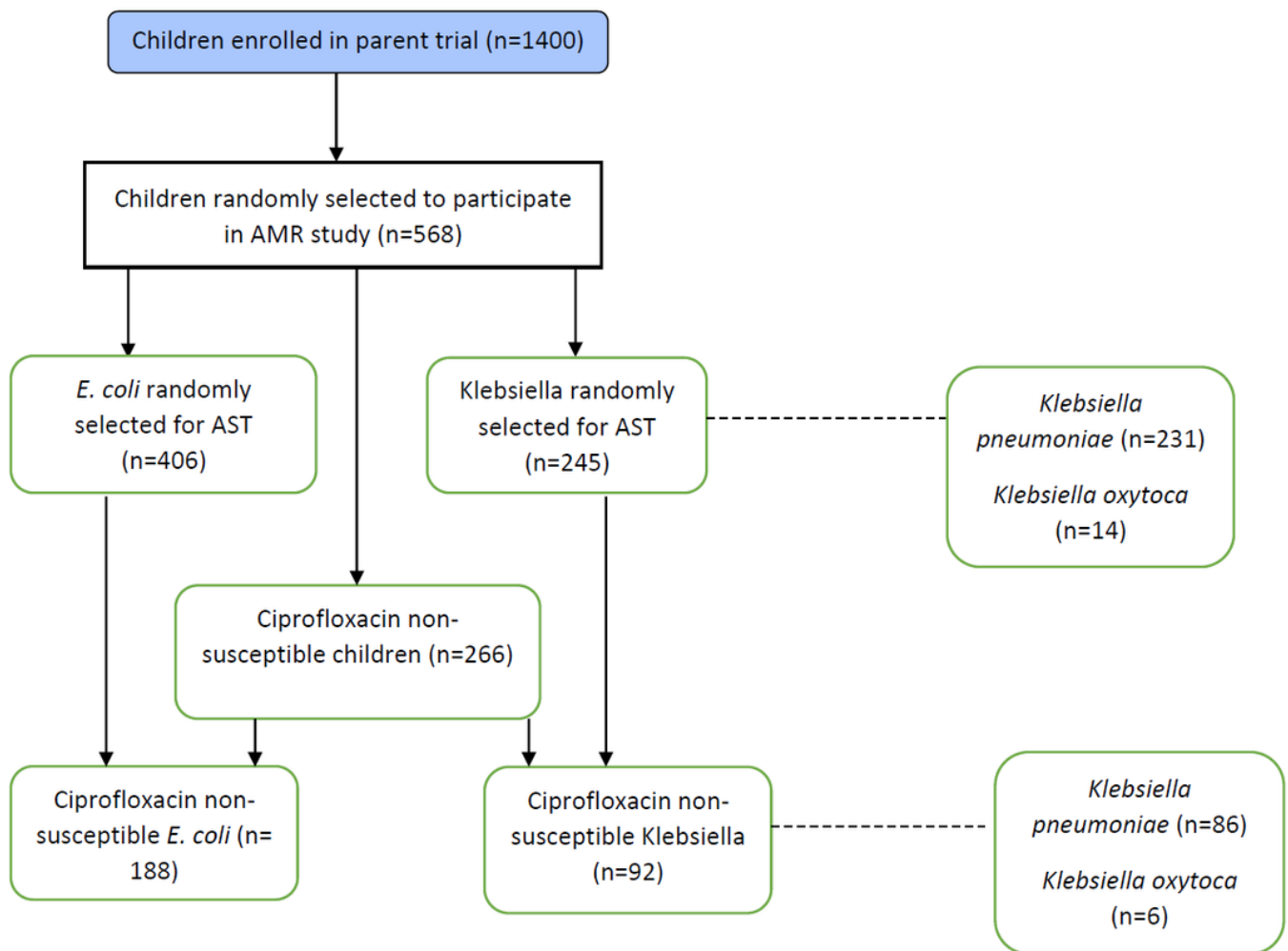
1. Centers for Disease Control. *Antibiotic resistance threats in the United States*. Epub ahead of print 2019. DOI: 10.15620/cdc:82532.
2. O'Neill J. Tackling drug-resistant infections globally: final report and recommendations: the review on antimicrobial resistance; 2016 [Available from: <https://amr-review.org>. *Publ html* 2016; 1–35.
3. Ramay BM, Caudell MA, Córdón-Rosales C, et al. Antibiotic use and hygiene interact to influence the distribution of antimicrobial-resistant bacteria in low-income communities in Guatemala. *Sci Rep*; 10. Epub ahead of print 1 December 2020. DOI: 10.1038/S41598-020-70741-4.
4. Kariuki S, Dougan G. Antibacterial resistance in sub-Saharan Africa: an underestimated emergency. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 2014; 1323: 43–55.
5. Murray CJ, Shunji Ikuta K, Sharara F, et al. Global burden of bacterial antimicrobial resistance in 2019: a systematic analysis. *Lancet* 2022; 399: 629–655.
6. Tawfick MM, Elshamy AA, Mohamed KT, et al. Gut Commensal *Escherichia coli*, a High-Risk Reservoir of Transferable Plasmid-Mediated Antimicrobial Resistance Traits. *Infect Drug Resist* 2022; 15: 1077.
7. Pilmis B, Le Monnier A, Zahar JR. Gut Microbiota, Antibiotic Therapy and Antimicrobial Resistance: A Narrative Review. *Microorg* 2020, Vol 8, Page 269 2020; 8: 269.
8. Wallace MJ, Fishbein SRS, Dantas G. Antimicrobial resistance in enteric bacteria: current state and next-generation solutions. *Gut Microbes*; 12. Epub ahead of print 9 November 2020. DOI: 10.1080/19490976.2020.1799654.
9. Lamberte LE, van Schaik W. Antibiotic resistance in the commensal human gut microbiota. *Curr Opin Microbiol* 2022; 68: 102150.
10. WHO. *Antimicrobial resistance. Global report on surveillance*. Geneva PP - Geneva: World Health Organization. Epub ahead of print 2014. DOI: 10.1007/s13312-014-0374-3.
11. Bruzzese E, Giannattasio A, Guarino A. Antibiotic treatment of acute gastroenteritis in children. *F1000Research* 2018; 7: 193.

12. Cuypers WL, Jacobs J, Wong V, et al. Fluoroquinolone resistance in Salmonella: insights by whole-genome sequencing. *Microb genomics*; 4. Epub ahead of print 2018. DOI: 10.1099/mgen.0.000195.
13. Redgrave LS, Sutton SB, Webber MA, et al. Fluoroquinolone resistance: Mechanisms, impact on bacteria, and role in evolutionary success. *Trends in Microbiology* 2014; 22: 438–445.
14. Rodríguez-Martínez JM, Machuca J, Cano ME, et al. Plasmid-mediated quinolone resistance: Two decades on. *Drug Resist Updat* 2016; 29: 13–29.
15. Ruiz J. Transferable mechanisms of quinolone resistance from 1998 onward. *Clin Microbiol Rev*; 32. Epub ahead of print 1 October 2019. DOI: 10.1128/CMR.00007-19.
16. Parry CM, Vinh H, Chinh NT, et al. The Influence of Reduced Susceptibility to Fluoroquinolones in Salmonella enterica Serovar Typhi on the Clinical Response to Ofloxacin Therapy. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* 2011; 5: e1163.
17. WHO. Background document: The diagnosis, treatment and prevention of typhoid fever: Communicable Disease Surveillance and Response. *Vaccines Biol Dep* 2003; 1–33.
18. WHO. Guidelines for the control of Shigellosis, including epidemics due to Shigella dysenteriae type 1. Geneva.
19. Vien LTM, Minh NNQ, Thuong TC, et al. The Co-Selection of Fluoroquinolone Resistance Genes in the Gut Flora of Vietnamese Children. *PLoS One* 2012; 7: e42919.
20. Salah FD, Soubeiga ST, Ouattara AK, et al. Distribution of quinolone resistance gene (qnr) in ESBL-producing Escherichia coli and Klebsiella spp. in Lomé, Togo. *Antimicrob Resist Infect Control* 2019; 8: 104.
21. Maina M, Mwaniki P, Odira E, et al. Antibiotic use in Kenyan public hospitals: Prevalence, appropriateness and link to guideline availability. *Int J Infect Dis* 2020; 99: 10–18.
22. Momanyi L, Opanga S, Nyamu D, et al. Antibiotic Prescribing Patterns at a Leading Referral Hospital in Kenya: A Point Prevalence Survey. *J Res Pharm Pract* 2019; 8: 149.
23. Yang P, Chen Y, Jiang S, et al. Association between the rate of fluoroquinolones-resistant gram-negative bacteria and antibiotic consumption from China based on 145 tertiary hospitals data in 2014. *BMC Infect Dis* 2020; 20: 1–10.
24. Hooper DC, Jacoby GA. Mechanisms of drug resistance: quinolone resistance. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 2015; 1354: 12.
25. Musicha P, Feasey NA, Cain AK, et al. Genomic landscape of extended-spectrum  $\beta$ -lactamase resistance in Escherichia coli from an urban African setting. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2017; 72: 1602–1609.
26. Mahamat OO, Lounnas M, Hide M, et al. High prevalence and characterization of extended-spectrum  $\beta$ -lactamase producing Enterobacteriaceae in Chadian hospitals. *BMC Infect Dis* 2019; 19: 1–7.
27. Leski TA, Stockelman MG, Bangura U, et al. Prevalence of Quinolone Resistance in Enterobacteriaceae from Sierra Leone and the Detection of qnrB Pseudogenes and Modified LexA Binding Sites. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2016; 60: 6920.
28. Abd El-Aziz NK, Gharib AA. Coexistence of plasmid-mediated quinolone resistance determinants and AmpC-Beta-Lactamases in Escherichia coli strains in Egypt. *Cell Mol Biol* 2015; 61: 29–35.
29. Adekanmbi AO, Usidamen S, Akinlabi OC, et al. Carriage of plasmid-mediated qnr determinants and quinolone efflux pump (qepA) by ciprofloxacin-resistant bacteria recovered from Urinary Tract Infection (UTI) samples. *Bull Natl Res Cent* 2022 46: 1–7.
30. Kiiru J, Kariuki S, Goddeeris BM, et al. Escherichia coli strains from Kenyan patients carrying conjugatively transferable broad-spectrum  $\beta$ -lactamase, qnr, aac(6')-Ib-cr and 16S rRNA methyltransferase genes. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2011; 66: 1639–1642.
31. Juma B. Molecular characterization of fluoroquinolone resistance genes in isolates obtained from patients with diarrhea in Machakos District Hospital, Kenya. *African J Pharmacol Ther*; 5.
32. Musila L, Kyany'a C, Maybank R, et al. Detection of diverse carbapenem and multidrug resistance genes and high-risk strain types among carbapenem non-susceptible clinical isolates of target gram-negative bacteria in Kenya. *PLoS One* 2021; 16: e0246937.
33. Taitt CR, Leski TA, Erwin DP, et al. Antimicrobial resistance of Klebsiella pneumoniae stool isolates circulating in Kenya. *PLoS One* 2017; 12: e0178880.

34. Tulloch L, Martin E, Uslan DZ, et al. Clinical Outcomes of Patients Receiving Fluoroquinolones to Treat Bacteremia Caused by Enterobacteriaceae Isolates Considered Intermediate or Resistant to These Agents According to the Recently Revised Susceptibility Testing Standards by the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI). *Open Forum Infect Dis* 2017; 4: S556–S556.
35. Huang Y, Ogutu JO, Gu J, et al. Comparative analysis of quinolone resistance in clinical isolates of klebsiella pneumoniae and escherichia coli from chinese children and adults. *Biomed Res Int*; 2015. Epub ahead of print 2015. DOI: 10.1155/2015/168292.
36. Berendes D, Knee J, Sumner T, et al. Gut carriage of antimicrobial resistance genes among young children in urban Maputo, Mozambique: Associations with enteric pathogen carriage and environmental risk factors. *PLoS One* 2019; 14: e0225464.
37. Hu YS, Shin S, Park YH, et al. Prevalence and mechanism of fluoroquinolone resistance in Escherichia coli isolated from swine feces in Korea. *J Food Prot* 2017; 80: 1145–1151.
38. Jeong HS, Bae IK, Shin JH, et al. Prevalence of plasmid-mediated quinolone resistance and its association with extended-spectrum beta-lactamase and AmpC beta-lactamase in enterobacteriaceae. *Korean J Lab Med* 2011; 31: 257–264.
39. Hamed SM, Aboshanab KMA, El-Mahallawy HA, et al. Plasmid-mediated quinolone resistance in gram-negative pathogens isolated from cancer patients in Egypt. *Microb Drug Resist* 2018; 24: 1316–1325.
40. Robicsek A, Strahilevitz J, Jacoby GA, et al. Fluoroquinolone-modifying enzyme: a new adaptation of a common aminoglycoside acetyltransferase. *Nat Med* 2006; 12: 83–88.
41. Wairimu CW, Odari EO, Makobe CK, et al. Antimicrobial Susceptibility and Genetic Basis of Resistance of Klebsiella spp Isolated from Diarrheic and Non-Diarrheic Children at Health Facilities in Mukuru Informal Settlement, Nairobi, Kenya. *Adv Microbiol* 2021; 11: 554–578.
42. Rahman Z, Islam A, Rashid M, et al. Existence of a novel qepA variant in quinolone resistant Escherichia coli from aquatic habitats of Bangladesh. *Gut Pathog* 2017 91 2017; 9: 1–4.
43. Inwezerua C, Mendonça N, Calhau V, et al. Occurrence of extended-spectrum beta-lactamases in human and bovine isolates of Escherichia coli from Oyo state, Nigeria. *J Infect Dev Ctries* 2014; 8: 774–779.
44. Hu F-P, Xu X-G, Zhu D-M, et al. Coexistence of qnrB4 and qnrS1 in a clinical strain of Klebsiella pneumoniae 1. 2008; 6507.
45. Yamane K, Wachino JI, Suzuki S, et al. Plasmid-Mediated qepA Gene among Escherichia coli Clinical Isolates from Japan. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2008; 52: 1564.
46. Kotb DN, Mahdy WK, Mahmoud MS, et al. Impact of co-existence of PMQR genes and QRDR mutations on fluoroquinolones resistance in Enterobacteriaceae strains isolated from community and hospital acquired UTIs. *BMC Infect Dis* 2019; 19: 1–8.
47. Pavlinac PB, Singa BO, Tickell KD, et al. Azithromycin for the prevention of rehospitalisation and death among Kenyan children being discharged from hospital: a double-blind, placebo-controlled, randomised controlled trial. *Lancet Glob Heal*; 0. Epub ahead of print September 2021. DOI: 10.1016/S2214-109X(21)00347-8.
48. Tornberg-Belanger SN, Rwigy D, Mugo M, et al. Antimicrobial resistance including Extended Spectrum Beta Lactamases (ESBL) among E. coli isolated from kenyan children at hospital discharge. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* 2022; 16: e0010283.
49. CLSI. EM100 Connect - CLSI M100 ED30: 2020. *Clsi*, <http://em100.edaptivedocs.net/GetDoc.aspx?doc=CLSI M100 ED32:2022&scope=user> (2022, accessed 21 March 2022).
50. CLSI M100 ED31:2021 – Performance Standards for Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing, 31st Edition, <https://clsi.org/standards/products/microbiology/documents/m100/> (accessed 2 September 2021).
51. CLSI. Performance Standards for Antimicrobial Susceptibility. *Clin Lab Stand Inst Suppl M100*, [www.clsi.org](http://www.clsi.org).p:+1.610.688.0100;F:+1.610.688.0700;E:customerservice@clsi.org;W:www.clsi.org. (2021, accessed 13 March 2022).
52. Cattoir V, Poirel L, Rotimi V, et al. Multiplex PCR for detection of plasmid-mediated quinolone resistance qnr genes in ESBL-producing enterobacterial isolates. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 2007; 60: 394–397.

53. Hong BK, Wang M, Chi HP, et al. *oqxAB* encoding a multidrug efflux pump in human clinical isolates of Enterobacteriaceae. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2009; 53: 3582–3584.
54. Park CH, Robicsek A, Jacoby GA, et al. Prevalence in the United States of *aac(6′)-Ib-cr* encoding a ciprofloxacin-modifying enzyme. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2006; 50: 3953–5.
55. Robicsek A, Strahilevitz J, Sahm DF, et al. *qnr* prevalence in ceftazidime-resistant Enterobacteriaceae isolates from the United States. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2006; 50: 2872–2874.
56. Kim Y-T, #, Jang J-H, et al. Identification of strain harboring both *aac(6′)-Ib* and *aac(6′)-Ib-cr* variant simultaneously in *Escherichia coli* and *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. *BMB Rep* 2011; 44: 262–266.
57. Kyany’a C, Musila L. Colistin Resistance Gene *mcr-8* in a High-Risk Sequence Type 15 *Klebsiella pneumoniae* Isolate from Kenya. *Microbiol Resour Announc*; 9. Epub ahead of print 24 September 2020. DOI: 10.1128/MRA.00783-20.
58. Katala BZ, Misinzo G, Mshana SE, et al. Genetic diversity and risk factors for the transmission of antimicrobial resistance across human, animals and environmental compartments in East Africa: A review. *Antimicrob Resist Infect Control*; 9. Epub ahead of print 6 August 2020. DOI: 10.1186/S13756-020-00786-7.

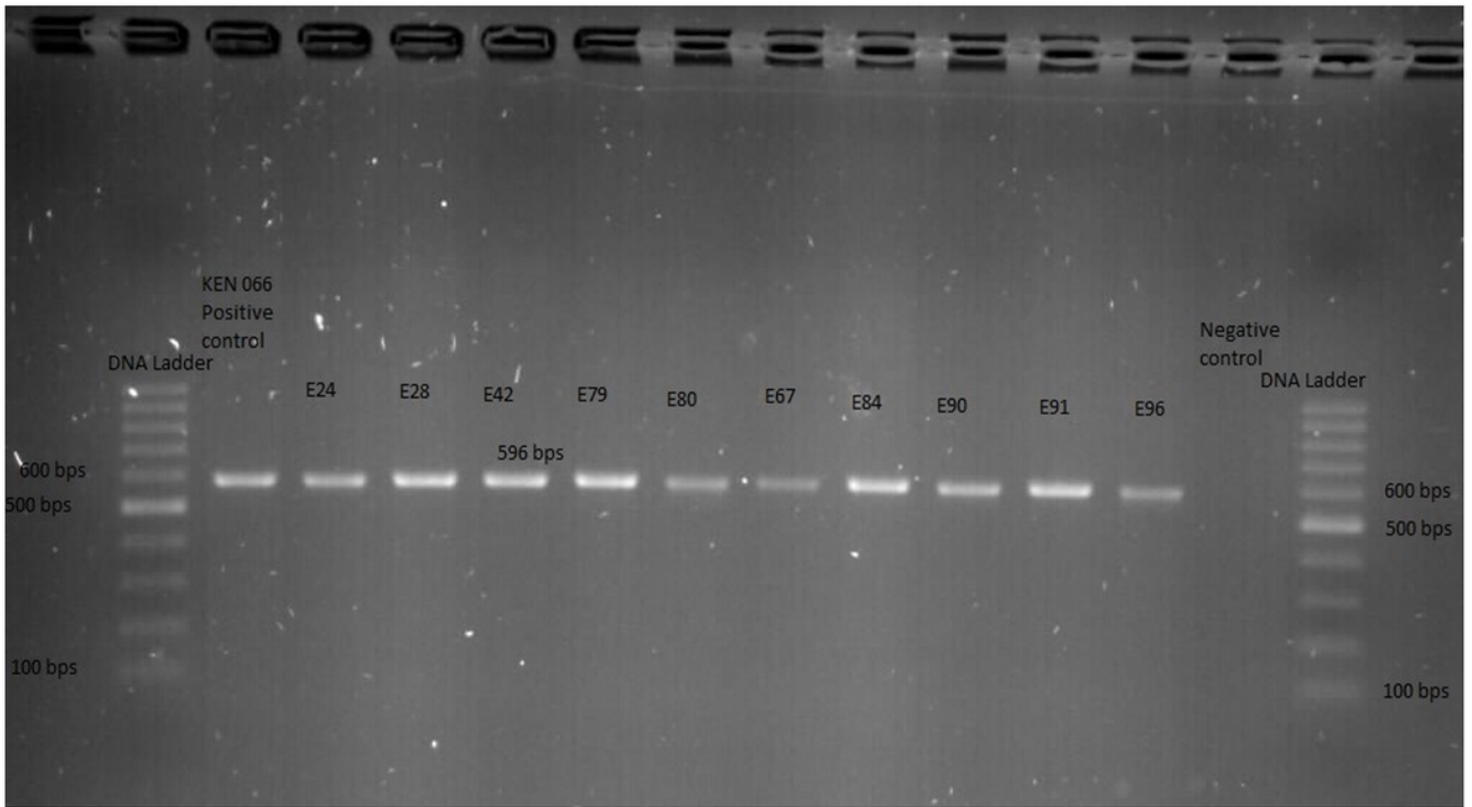
## Figures



**Figure 1**

Flowchart of participants and isolates





**Figure 2**

*E. coli* *qepA* gel image

Cropped gel picture showing the 596 bp amplicons for 10 *E. coli* isolates positive for the *qepA* gene. The full-length gel image is presented in Supplementary **Figure S2-1**

## Supplementary Files

This is a list of supplementary files associated with this preprint. Click to download.

- [BMCFQAdditionalfile1.pdf](#)
- [BMCFQAdditionalfile2.pdf](#)
- [BMCFQAdditionalfile3.pdf](#)
- [BMCFQAdditionalfile4.txt](#)