

# Predominance of Genetically Diverse Esbl Escherichia Coli Identified in Resistance Mapping of Largest Fresh Cum Brackish Water of Vembanad Lake, India

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## Research Article

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1    **Research Article**

2    Predominance of genetically diverse ESBL *Escherichia coli* identified in resistance mapping of Largest fresh cum  
3    brackish water of Vembanad Lake, India

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## Abstract

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) burden in *Escherichia coli* along the 90 km stretch of Vembanad Lake, Kerala, India was assessed. Seventy-seven percent of water samples drawn from 35 different stations of the Lake harbored *E. coli*. Antibiotic susceptibility test performed on 116 *E. coli* isolates revealed 81% were resistant to  $\geq$  one antibiotic with 39 AMR profiles, 30% multidrug resistant, 32% extended spectrum  $\beta$  lactamase (ESBL) producers as per CLSI. The probability of isolating cefotaxime resistant *E. coli* was the highest 0.7 ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) in the Lake. Genetically diverse ESBL types *bla*<sub>TEM-116</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M-152</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M-27</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M-55</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M-205</sub>, and *bla*<sub>SHV-27</sub> were identified. Molecular typing (ERIC PCR, MLST and PBRT) confirmed the diversity among *E. coli* between and within the stations. ST11439 and Single and Double Loci Variants of ST443, ST4533 were identified in Multi locus sequence typing (MLST) analysis. Inc plasmids (B/O, F, W, I1, FIIA, HI1, P-1 $\alpha$ , K/B and N) identified in the Lake evidences the transmission potential. Low multiple antibiotic resistance index (average  $< 0.2$ ) indicating lower risk to the human population albeit, an emerging concern of ESBL resistance in the Lake. The occurrence of genetically variant ESBL *E. coli* in Vembanad Lake signals health hazards and necessitates pragmatizing strategic control measures.

**Keywords:** Vembanad Lake; Antimicrobial Resistance; Extended Spectrum Beta Lactamase *Escherichia coli*; Water; Molecular typing

## Introduction

The human and animal health care systems, off late have been witnessing the menace of Antimicrobial Resistance (AMR) (Hawken and Snitkin 2019). The antimicrobials used in human therapeutics and animal agriculture finally enter the aquatic environment, thereby potentiating the emergence of AMR in bacteria in the environment (Riedel et al. 2019). The high genetic plasticity of bacterial communities in the aquatic ecosystem makes it a hot reservoir and carrier of AMR genes (Michael et al. 2013; Watts et al. 2017). It is important to map all the aquatic resources for the microbial safety and also in the AMR point of view remains an absolute necessity for appraising the present condition and to devise appropriate mitigation strategies.

*Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) is generally a harmless symbiont in the lower intestinal tract of humans and animals, either occurs as commensal or as pathogen in intestinal / extra-intestinal locations of the body (Schroeder et al, 2002). It is considered a dominant fecal indicator bacteria for food and water quality testing (Hassuna et al. 2020). AMR in *E. coli* is in an escalating trend worldwide and is a growing concern for both developed and developing countries as they are frequently associated with treatment failures, especially in urinary tract infections (Patterson 2000; Queenan and Bush 2007). Extended Spectrum Beta-Lactamases (ESBL) and carbapenemases are  $\beta$ -lactamase enzymes that are capable of hydrolyzing oximino-cephalosporins, penicillins, cephalosporins, monobactams; and carbapenems respectively which confer resistance and are very important in the realm of AMR. Moreover, ESBLs are often encoded on plasmids that also carry additional genes of resistance for aminoglycosides, chloramphenicol, sulphonamides, trimethoprim, and tetracyclines, thereby extending the resistance profile through cross resistance (Zhang et al. 2016).

A systematic and scientific understanding of the prevalence of AMR bacteria is pivotal to minimize their spread and hence, surveillance becomes an integral part of control strategies (Kronvall 2003; Liu et al. 2016). To evaluate the public health risk in water bodies, it is crucial to understand the development of AMR in this indicator organism and their genetic relatedness (Versalovic et al. 1994). Several molecular tools commonly used in fingerprinting studies of *E. coli* for identifying the source of the contamination include Enterobacterial repetitive intergenic consensus sequences (ERIC-PCR), Repetitive extragenic palindromic-PCR (rep-PCR), BOX sequences (BOX-PCR), Pulse field gel electrophoresis (PFGE), Density gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE), Amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP), Random amplification of polymorphic DNA (RAPD), Multi Locus

Sequence Typing (MLST), Plasmid Based Replicon Typing (PBRT) and phenotypic methods like antimicrobial resistance profiling, carbon utilization, *etc* (Nemoy et al. 2005; Mohapatra et al. 2007). Of all these, PBRT and ERIC PCR are very powerful and cost-effective tools next to MLST, and PFGE for the discrimination of *E. coli* based on the genetic relatedness (Harwood et al. 2014; Kim et al. 2017). Implementation of these phenotypic and genotyping tools in fecal indicator bacteria from water bodies remains an indispensable marker tool for microbial source tracking using bacteria (Kronvall et al. 2003).

The use of clinical breakpoints in determining AMR in health care may not be suitable for assessing the environmental and food associated strains of pathogens. Hence, the use of Epidemiological Cut-off values (designated as Ecoff by EUCAST, EcoV by CLSI) is encouraged (Krumperman 1983; Aarestrup et al. 2007) as it differentiates Wild Type (WT; without resistance) population from Non-Wild Type (NWT; with acquired resistance) population of particular bacterial strains to a specific antibiotic. Multiple Antibiotic Resistance (MAR) index estimates the risk associated to a population with the exposure of *E. coli* isolated from food or water, by distinguishing the origin of the isolate from high or low-risk environments.

Vembanad Lake which spreads over three districts (Alappuzha, Kottayam, and Ernakulam) of Kerala, India is considered to be the longest (96 km) in India (09°00' -10°40'N and 76°00'-77°30'E). It has an inflow of water from six major rivers and is a complex wetland system (Haldar et al. 2019). Freshwater dominant southern zone and a brackish water dominant northern zone separated by brackish water regulating barrage (bund) are the salient features of the Lake. Livelihood activities in the Lake are agriculture, fishing, tourism, inland navigation, coir retting, and lime shell collection. This biologically diverse Lake is facing threats due to industrialization and urbanization (Selvam et al. 2012). Tourism, the major activity in this lake, is concentrated in the southern zone.

The information on AMR in Vembanad Lake and their genetic characteristics is scant. The present study planned to understand 1. The prevalence of *E. coli* in the Vembanad Lake at different stations with CLSI breakpoints; 2. Determine the prevalent AMR patterns and multidrug resistance (MDR); 3. Estimate the risk associated by multiple antibiotic resistance index (MAR) and 4. To link the genetic diversity of ESBL genes with the ERIC PCR tool as a pilot study for microbial source tracking.

## Materials and methods

### Study area

Water samples were collected during December 2018 from 35 different stations (A to AJ) of Vembanad Lake, Kerala, India which has Ernakulam, Alappuzha, and Kottayam regions (Fig. 2a and 2b). Lake spreads from the northern estuary region in Ernakulam at Azhikode/Munambam and extends to the south in Kottayam and ends at the Alapuzha district of Kerala. The selection of locations was based on the fisheries activities, tourism, human habitation, inflow mouth of the tributaries, the northern and southern part of the Vembanad Lake, saltwater regulator (Thaneermukham Barrage) and covering all the three regions (Haldar et al. 2019). Surface water (500mL) samples were collected in sterile screw-capped bottles from the boat and brought to the laboratory in chilled condition for further use (Morgan et al. 1976; Baird et al. 2017).

### Isolation and identification of *E. coli*

The collected water samples were enriched in 3x sterile Presence-Absence (P-A) broth (1: 3 ratio) and after overnight incubation at  $35 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ , streaked on pre-set Eosin Methylene Blue (EMB) agar for primary screening from which 2-10 characteristic colonies were picked and secondary confirmation was carried out on Mac Conkey and HiCrome ECC agars (Baird et al. 2017). Gram-negative rods with catalase production, oxidase non-production, and IMVC test (+++-) characteristics were subjected for molecular confirmation. DNA template was prepared with the washed cell suspension from 1mL overnight culture in 1x TE Buffer pH 8.0 by heat shock method and stored at  $-80^\circ\text{C}$  until further use. PCR reaction was carried out in thermocycler (Veriti, Applied BioSystem) using *uidA* primers (Godambe et al. 2017), and *E. coli* that did not produce amplicons specific for *uidA* were further tested for *phoA* gene-specific primers (Murugadas et al. 2016) and PCR products were analyzed in 2% agarose gel in 1x TAE buffer at 80V for 1h in horizontal gel electrophoresis system and visualized in the gel documentation system.

### *In vitro* antimicrobial susceptibility testing

Phenotypic antimicrobial susceptibility testing (AST) was carried out by Disc Diffusion Assay (DDA) with 15 antibiotics belonging to nine different classes (Table. 1) and the plates were incubated at  $35^\circ\text{C}$  for 16-20 h. The turbidity of overnight grown cultures was adjusted to 0.5 McFarland standard and swabbed onto Mueller Hinton

Agar (MHA) (BD Difco). The AMR pattern was determined in accordance with CLSI (CLSI 2019) and WHONET software version 5.6 (Stelling and O'Brien 1997).

#### **Phenotypic confirmation of ESBL, CRE in *E. coli***

Isolates which produced zone diameter of  $\leq 17$ mm,  $\leq 22$ mm,  $\leq 27$ mm,  $\leq 25$ mm, and  $\leq 27$ mm against cefpodoxime (10 $\mu$ g), ceftazidime (30 $\mu$ g), aztreonam (30 $\mu$ g), and cefotaxime (30 $\mu$ g), respectively were considered as presumptive ESBL producers (CLSI 2019). These presumptive ESBL isolates (n=83) were further tested in combined disk diffusion (CDD) assay, a confirmatory test with clavulanic acid (10  $\mu$ g) in MHA agar, and incubated at 35°C for 16 to 18h. Isolates showing  $\geq 5$ mm zone diameter when clavulanate was combined with cefotaxime or ceftazidime were confirmed as ESBL producers. Those isolates without a significant effect of clavulanic acid and resistant to cefoxitin (zone diameter  $\leq 14$  mm) were considered as AmpC-producers (Jacoby 2009). MIC was performed with E-test strips for *E. coli* (n=14) showing reduced susceptibility to imipenem (Himedia, India).

#### **Molecular characterization of ESBL and other Antibiotic Resistance genes**

*E. coli* isolates (n=94) that were phenotypically resistant to various antibiotics were further screened by PCR for very abundant and important AMR (AR) genes. Presumptive ESBL *E. coli* (n=83) which showed reduced susceptibility to cefpodoxime, ceftazidime, aztreonam, and cefotaxime were tested for *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 1</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 2</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 9</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 8/25</sub>, *bla*<sub>SHV</sub>, and *bla*<sub>OXA-1-like</sub> genes specific for broad-spectrum  $\beta$ -lactamases and ESBL detection (Dallenne et al. 2010). *E. coli* (n=14) which showed reduced susceptibility to imipenem were tested for *bla*<sub>IMP</sub>, *bla*<sub>KPC</sub>, *bla*<sub>VIM</sub>, and *bla*<sub>NDM</sub> genes specific for carbapenem resistance (Bush and Jacoby, 2010; Sahni et al. 2018). *E. coli* (n=23) showing phenotypic tetracycline resistance were tested for *tetA* and *tetB* genes for tetracycline resistance; isolates (n=6) with phenotypic chloramphenicol resistance was tested for *cat A* and *cat B* genes (Kim et al. 2013); *E. coli* (n=14) were tested for *sulI*, *sul2* and *dhfrA* genes for folate pathway inhibitors resistance (Momtaz et al. 2012).

#### **ESBL allele identification by sequencing analysis**

*E. coli* which produced amplicons of a partial length corresponding to (*bla*<sub>TEM</sub>, *bla*<sub>SHV</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 1</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 25</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 2</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 9</sub>) gene sequences were amplified as mentioned above (Dallenne et al. 2010) and products were purified by gel elution (ThermoFisher Scientific) and outsourced for sequencing in an



automated sequencer (ABI 1377) at AgrigenomePvt Lab (Kochi, India). Quality checks and sequence similarity was verified in NCBI <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pathogens/beta-lactamase-data-resources/>.

#### **MLST and eBurst analysis**

MLST analysis was carried out for selected eight ESBL *E. coli* with differences in ESBL genes viz., *bla*<sub>TEM-116</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M-27</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M-55</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M-152</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M-205</sub>, and *bla*<sub>SHV-27</sub> PCR amplification was carried out with 10X Extaq master mix (DSS Takara Bio India). The reactions for all the housekeeping genes viz., *adh*, *fumC*, *gyrB*, *icd*, *mdh*, *purA*, and *recA* were amplified as per Enterobase protocol (Wirth et al. 2006). The agarose gel extracted amplicons of various fragments were outsourced for Sanger sequencing at AgrigenomePvt Lab (Kochi, India). After the quality check, the allele numbers for the gene fragments and sequence type for the ESBL *E. coli* were deduced from the public domain PubMLST ([https://pubmlst.org/bigsub?db=pubmlst\\_escherichia\\_seqdef](https://pubmlst.org/bigsub?db=pubmlst_escherichia_seqdef)). eBurst analysis for the identified STs was carried out in Phyloviz software (<https://online.phyloviz.net/>) taking into account single and double locus variants of the identified clones.

#### **Plasmid Based Replicon Typing**

Plasmid characterization of the ESBL *E. coli* isolated from the water of Vembanad Lake was carried out by plasmid-based replicon typing (PBRT) (Carattoli et al. 2005; Johnson and Nolan, 2009). Three multiplex PCR reactions were performed for each ESBL *E. coli* and identified the replicon plasmid present in the ninety-four *E. coli* isolates. Modification in the use of 2X Phusion U Green multiplex PCR master mix (ThermoScientific) and the type of Inc Plasmid identified in the study was deduced (Johnson & Nolan, 2009).

#### **ERIC PCR fingerprinting and Cluster analysis**

ERIC – PCR reactions were performed in duplicate for each isolate in 25µl volume containing 3µl of *E. coli* genomic DNA, 2.5mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 1U Taq polymerase, 0.2mM dNTPS, 1X PCR buffer, 1 µM of each primers (ERIC 1 and ERIC 2) and final volume adjusted with nuclease-free water. The reaction was carried out in 0.2 ml PCR tubes always in same thermal cycler (Nemoy et al. 2005; Mohapatra et al. 2007). Ninety four *E. coli* isolates that were resistant at least to one antibiotic were subjected to ERIC PCR analysis. The PCR product was visualized after electrophoresized in 3% agarose gel in maxi preparation with 120V for 3h and gel images were captured in the gel documentation system (Syngene). Phylogenetic tree was constructed in GelJ software after visually comparing

the banding pattern for 94 *E. coli* isolates. DNA ladder (100-bp ) was used for the normalization. The phylogenetic tree was constructed based on the similarity calculated by Pearson correlation between the fingerprints with the tolerance of 1% and grouping of the fingerprints was carried out with the help of the algorithm unweighted-pair group method using arithmetic averages (UPGMA) (Rasschaert et al. 2005).

#### **Estimation of MDR, MAR index and Epidemiological cut-off**

MDR was defined as non-susceptibility to at least one agent in three or more antimicrobial categories and the MDR was determined (Magiorakos et al. 2012) and the Multiple Antibiotic Resistance (MAR) index was estimated (Krumperman 1983). The Ecoff for the environment associated *E. coli* was determined as per the normalized resistance interpretation method of Kronvall (2003) using <http://www.bioscand.se/nri/>. Isolates were categorized as either Wild type (WT) or Acquired Resistant type or non-wild type (NWT) based on the Ecoff value determined for each antibiotic.

#### **Statistics and cluster analyses**

Chi-square statistical analysis was carried out with SAS 9.3 for finding the association between cefoxitin, cefotaxime, cefpodoxime, and ceftazidime to the other antibiotics tested. The binomial logistic regression model was used to predict the probability for the isolate resistant to particular antibiotics under the study in Vembanad Lake water and the binomial logistic regression is given below

$$\text{logit}\left(\frac{P}{1-P}\right) = \beta_0,$$

where P is the probability of the isolate resistant to different antibiotics and  $\beta_0$  is intercept. The parameter  $\beta_0$  was estimated by maximum likelihood method. The predicted probability value for the isolate to resistant to different antibiotics is obtained from the formula given below

$$\hat{P} = \frac{\exp(\hat{\beta}_0)}{(1 + \exp(\hat{\beta}_0))}$$

Cluster analysis was carried out based on hierarchical cluster method for the parameters AMP10, CPM30, CTX30, CX30, CAZ30, MRP10, GEN10, TE30, CIP5, COT25, C30 based on the AMR profiles. The values of the antimicrobial resistance were plotted as 0 or 1 corresponding to the absence or presence of resistance

respectively. Binary Squared Euclidean Distance matrix was generated using AMR data between two cultures. The dendrogram was generated based on the similarity matrix in SPSS software version 16.

## **Results and discussion**

### **Prevalence of *E. coli* in the lake**

The study is the first of its kind that established the AMR pattern in 35 stations of the Vembanad Lake, Kerala, India. *E. coli* was detected in 77% (27/35) of the sampled stations. After initial enrichment, primary and secondary screening, a total of 116 *E. coli* were detected from 27 different points in the Lake. All 116 isolates yielded specific amplicon in PCR targeted *uid A* (168bp) or *phoA* (999bp) genes and all of them belonged to biotype 1 (IMVC result: +++ -). The Alapuzha region of the Vembanad Lake water was comparatively safe in harboring *E. coli* (59%) compared to Kottayam (90%) and Ernakulam (100%).

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is a growing threat to the human population as it significantly curtails treatment options. Surface waters in aquatic bodies, owing to their microbial diversity and moving nature, play a considerable role in the emergence and transmission of AMR (Kittinger et al. 2016). Aquatic reservoirs have been described as hotspots for AMR emergence across the globe (Watts et al. 2017). Monitoring aquatic reservoirs for microbial quality and AMR is an indispensable tool for devising control strategies to protect human health. In this context, Vembanad the largest lake of India was assessed for AMR burden on the environmental. This is important to mitigate the AMR source. The present study corroborates with the earlier findings on the incidence of *E. coli* in selected areas of Vembanad Lake as 85.6–86.7% and 100% which attributed to the anthropogenic activity and seafood processing industries (Hatha et al. 2004; Chandran et al. 2008). Variations in the occurrence of *E. coli* in Lake water were observed elsewhere and in coastal water in Kuwait (Al-Mossawi et al. 1982; Riedel et al. 2019).

### **AMR profiles identified in the Lake**

Antibiotic resistance profiling revealed that all the 116 *E. coli* isolates were susceptible to Gentamicin, however, 81% of the *E. coli* isolates were resistant to a minimum of one and a maximum of nine antibiotics. A total of 94 AMR *E. coli* were isolated from the Lake. AMR was observed in 86% (43/50), 79% (34/43), and 74% (17/23) of the *E. coli* isolated from Kottayam, Alapuzha and Ernakulam regions of Vembanad Lake, respectively (Table S1). High levels of MDR was detected in Kottayam (34%), followed by Alapuzha (30%), Ernakulam (22%). Frequencies

of resistance were estimated by WHONET software version 5.6 with CLSI interpretations (Fig.1, Table 1). A total of 39 AMR patterns were observed among 94 isolates from 27 positive sampling stations indicating extensive AMR diversity in the *E. coli*; both between and within the sampling stations of the Lake. CTX pattern alone contributed 39% while CTX-TCY and AMP-CTX-CAZ-CRO-ATM patterns contributed 7.4% each and others contributed 1 to 3% (Table. 2).

*E. coli* isolated from Cochin estuary were resistant to ampicillin (65.33%) followed by nalidixic acid (37.33%), tetracycline (33.33%), and others < 17% (Sukumaran et al. 2012). The observations are similar to findings in the prevalence of lowest resistance to aminoglycosides and chloramphenicol, however, tetracycline resistance was 20% (Sukumaran et al. 2012). Also, MDR was higher (53.33%) compared to the present study (30.17%) (Sukumaran et al. 2012). The increased MDR in the previous study can be attributed to the limited number of sampling stations (n=5) and proximity to urban habitation and seafood processing factories. Amoxicillin-clavulanate resistance showed the highest frequency (71.1 %), followed by ampicillin (63.9 %), cefuroxime (21.1 %), ciprofloxacin (17.5 %), cefotaxime (15.7 %), ceftriaxone (10.8 %), and gentamicin (6.6 %) in Somesul Mic River of Romania (Farkas et al. 2016). However, no study described ESBL producing *E. coli* at different locations representing the entire lake.

#### **Prevalence of ESBL producers**

Combined disk diffusion (CDD) assay performed on 83 presumptive ESBL *E. coli* isolates with reduced susceptibility to CTX, CAZ, CPD, and ATM, revealed that 37 were phenotypically confirmed as Class A ESBL producing *E. coli* (Kittinger et al. 2016) and were designated as CDD<sup>+</sup> while the remaining 46 isolates that did not show increased zone size  $\geq 5$ mm in CDD assay were designated as CDD<sup>-ve</sup>. ESBL genes screening for CDD<sup>+</sup> and CDD<sup>-ve</sup> of *E. coli* isolates revealed that 85.5%, 21.7%, 10.8%, 1.2%, 2.4%, and 2.4% of the isolates harbored *bla*<sub>TEM</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 9</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 1</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 8/25</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 2</sub>, and *bla*<sub>SHV</sub> genes, respectively (Table 3). Two isolates from Ernakulam location co-harbored *bla*<sub>TEM</sub><sup>+</sup>, *bla*<sub>SHV</sub><sup>+</sup>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 8/25</sub><sup>+</sup> and *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 9</sub><sup>+</sup>, *bla*<sub>TEM</sub><sup>+</sup>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 1</sub><sup>+</sup> genotypes. Out of 23 phenotypically tetracycline-resistant *E. coli*, only 35% harbored *tetA* gene but none of the isolates carried *tetB* gene. It is important to note that *bla*<sub>OXA-1-like</sub> gene for ESBL, *sul1*, *sul2*, and *dfrA* genes for the folate pathway inhibitors resistance, *catA*, *catB* for chloramphenicol resistance, and *bla*<sub>NDM</sub>, *bla*<sub>KPC</sub>, *bla*<sub>VIM</sub>, *bla*<sub>IMP</sub> for carbapenem resistance were not detected in the *E. coli* isolates of Vembanad Lake. The relationship between phenotypic resistance and its association with the corresponding antibiotic resistant genes remains

intriguing. MIC level of phenotypic imipenem resistant isolates in disk diffusion assay (DDA) ranged between 0.19 and 0.25µg/ml; the MIC observed was lower than the clinical resistance criterion of CLSI.

Tetracycline resistance mediated by *tetA* was very less in the present study compared to the aquaculture setting (Shivakumaraswamy et al. 2019). *E. coli* with phenotypic cefoxitin resistance in DDA showed an increase in zone diameter with clavulanic acid and hence, may not be ampChyper producer (Jacoby, 2009). The identification of *bla*<sub>TEM</sub> positive non-ESBL producers phenotypically in the present study was reported earlier in the hospital patients (Bajpai et al. 2017), possibly due to the nonexpression of ESBL genes without the antibiotic pressure or due to the presence of TEM-1, TEM-2, and TEM-13 which are not ESBLs (Paterson & Bonomo, 2005). In CDD assay only 37 of the 83 isolates were phenotypically identified as ESBL producers but the genetic determination of antibiotic resistance genes revealed that the majority of the isolates harbored at least one of the ESBL variants. This may be due to several reasons such as the probability of possessing another variant of ESBL genes generally cannot be disregarded or could be the masking of additional enzymes such as AmpC β-lactamases or carbapenamases (Poulou et al. 2014). To confirm that sequencing analysis was carried out for the β-lactamase genes.

## **Molecular Typing of ESBL *E. coli***

### **ESBL allele identification by sequencing analysis**

Sequencing analysis of partial genes of *bla*<sub>TEM</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 9</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 1</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 8/25</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 2</sub>, and *bla*<sub>SHV</sub> genes amplicon revealed that *bla*<sub>TEM</sub> genes belonged to *bla*<sub>TEM-1</sub>, and *bla*<sub>TEM-116</sub>; *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 9</sub> belonged to *bla*<sub>CTX-M-27</sub>; *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 1</sub> gene belonged to *bla*<sub>CTX-M-55</sub>; *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 8/25</sub> belonged to *bla*<sub>CTX-M-152</sub>; *bla*<sub>CTX-M-group 2</sub> belonged to *bla*<sub>CTX-M-205</sub> and *bla*<sub>SHV-27</sub> belonged to *bla*<sub>SHV-27</sub> and the results were summarized (Table 3). Resistance mapping for the Vembanad Lake concerning the sampled locations and ESBL subtypes indicates that the majority of ESBL *E. coli* were nearer to the Kottayam region of the Lake and south of the Alappuzha part of the Lake had no CTX mediated ESBL producers (Fig. 2b).

Gene sequencing analysis revealed that *bla*<sub>TEM</sub> genes belonged to *bla*<sub>TEM-1</sub>, and *bla*<sub>TEM-116</sub> which were identified earlier in the urban aquatic environments of India; 15 of the *bla*<sub>TEM</sub> were *bla*<sub>TEM-1</sub> indicating it as the broad spectrum β-lactamase producer (non-ESBL). However, *bla*<sub>TEM-1</sub> gene was carried in the majority of the *bla*<sub>CTX-M</sub> producing isolates of *E. coli* and hence, the isolates were ESBL producers (Paterson and Bonomo 2005; Singh et al.

2018). *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 9</sub> belonged to *bla*<sub>CTX-M-27</sub> a single nucleotide variant of *bla*<sub>CTX-M-14</sub> were identified in Germany, Netherlands and Japan (Matsumura et al. 2015; Franz et al. 2015; Ghosh et al. 2017) and in rivers and lakes of Northwest China (Liu et al. 2018); *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 1</sub> gene belonged to *bla*<sub>CTX-M -55</sub> identified in Japan, Netherlands (Matsumura et al. 2015; Franz et al. 2015); *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 8/25</sub> belonged to *bla*<sub>CTX-M -152</sub>, a novel variant form of the *bla*<sub>CTX-M group-25</sub> identified in the water of river Yamuna of India (Azam et al. 2016); *bla*<sub>CTX-M-group 2</sub> belonged to *bla*<sub>CTX-M-205</sub> the particular ESBL type in India is not available in the public domain and probably this is the first report in India for the presence of *bla*<sub>CTX-M-205</sub> in the Lake; *bla*<sub>SHV</sub> belonged to *bla*<sub>SHV-27</sub> has been detected in the Urban riverine environment in India and in the community set up of Morocco (Barguigua et al. 2013; Mondal et al. 2019). There is no such study conducted in different geographical stations of the Vembanad Lake. In the context of the epidemiology, *bla*<sub>CTX-M-55</sub> is the second most common ESBL-encoding gene in Asian countries, and in the global epidemiology, the genotype *bla*<sub>CTX-M-27</sub> a single loci variant of *bla*<sub>CTX-M-14</sub> has slowly replaced other CTX-M genotypes although *bla*<sub>CTX-M-14</sub> and *bla*<sub>CTX-M-15</sub> are leading clones and *bla*<sub>CTX-M-27</sub> is now considered as a stable reservoir for the food animals in China (Bevan et al. 2017). In 27 occasions in the Lake, the ESBL *E. coli* co-existed with either *bla*<sub>TEM-116</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M-27</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M -55</sub>, or *bla*<sub>SHV-27</sub>. Co-existence of CTX-M types, TEM, and SHV were reported in India, Saudi Arabia, and Japan indicating the increased risk of treating these infections and co-evolving of two or three types of ESBL genes within an *E. coli* (Harada et al. 2013; Sharma et al. 2013; Hassan and Baha 2014). Resistance mapping of the ESBL types in relation to the sampling points has clearly identified that the Kottayam region only harboured *bla*<sub>CTX-M-205</sub>.

In the Indian health care system, the major variants of ESBL producers harbored *bla*<sub>TEM</sub> followed by *bla*<sub>CTX-M -1</sub>, *bla*<sub>OXA</sub>, *bla*<sub>SHV</sub> and *bla*<sub>CTX-M- group-2</sub> (Gautam et al. 2019); *bla*<sub>CTX-M group-1</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M-14</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M-15</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M-24</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M-27</sub>, *bla*<sub>SHV-1</sub> in Lake Zürich and Lake Thun, Switzerland (Abgottspon et al. 2014), and *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 1</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M-3</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M-15</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M-55</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M-79</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M-14</sub>, and *bla*<sub>CTX-M-27</sub> in the water samples of Lake in Switzerland (Zurfluh et al. 2013). However, in the present study, *bla*<sub>OXA-1-like</sub> was not detected, whereas, *bla*<sub>TEM</sub>, and *bla*<sub>CTX-M group 9</sub> were dominant at 85.5% and 21.68%, respectively.

### Genotyping of *E. coli* by ERIC- PCR

ERIC-PCR image analysis in Gel J software delineated the 94 isolates of *E. coli* into five major clusters. Out of five clusters (EC1-EC5), the cluster EC4 contained the maximum number of isolates (n=33) belonging to

Kottayam, Alappuzha, and Ernakulam region isolates; Cluster EC1 carried the majority of the Alapuzha region *E.coli*; Cluster EC2 carried Kottayam and Alappuzha region isolates only and cluster EC5 contained isolates belonging to Ernakulam and Kottayam regions. There existed diversity in the *E. coli* isolated from various sites in the Vembanad Lake but similarities also existed between and within the isolates from different geographical locations of the Lake. Within the clusters, several clades were formed that indicated very closely related *E. coli* isolates from different sites of the Lake (Fig. 3).

ERIC PCR analysis and clustering of the phenotypic AMR profile data revealed that the multidrug-resistant isolates from stations O and P were clustered along with the AC, stations I, and AD2 was grouped in the single cluster indicating the mixing of water of Kottayam and Alappuzha stations near the barrage. Among the 35 stations, 16 stations harbored *bla*<sub>CTX-M</sub> types of ESBL and higher number of ESBL were detected near the barrage region.

### Multi Locus Sequence Typing

MLST analysis of the selected ESBL *E. coli* revealed that *bla*<sub>TEM-116</sub>, *bla*<sub>CTX-M-55</sub>, and *bla*<sub>SHV-27</sub> belonged to new STs as a single locus variant of previously existing STs, and *bla*<sub>CTX-M-27</sub> belonged to ST11439. ESBL *E. coli* belonging to *bla*<sub>CTX-M-152</sub> and *bla*<sub>CTX-M-205</sub> had entirely different allelic profiles with the later ST matched to only one *fumc* locus. eBurst analysis revealed that clones AD1 and X2 had the same profile for 6 loci, J2 and S1 had the same profile for 6 loci, others were distantly grouped in 5 different clonal complexes ( Fig 5). X2 and AD1 were double locus variants (DLV) of ST 1049; F6 was a single locus variant (SLV) of ST3188; J5 and S1/J2 were SLV of ST4533 and ST3600 clones, respectively.

The ESBL *E. coli* clone ST 11439, SLV of ST4533, and ST10987 identified in the study do not have any clinical implications in human and animal sectors. However, the ESBL *E. coli* clone X2 and AD1 were Double locus variant (DLV) of ST 1049, the descendant of the Clonal Complex (CC) ST155 which has zoonotic potential were reported in sewage and drinking water of Kerala and Maharashtra in India (Salim et al. 2019; Rayasam et al. 2019). This clone ST155 has been recognized as the most important strain that has an intrinsic ability to acquire colistin resistance (Matamoros et al. 2017). Likewise, the SLV clone of ST443 belonging to clonal complex ST205 ESBL *E. coli* was identified in wild birds in Pakistan, Chile, Portugal, Sweden, and Switzerland (Guenther et al. 2011; Hernandez et al. 2013; Zurfluh et al. 2013; Mohsin et al. 2017; Atterby et al. 2017). However, these DLV of ST155

and ST205 were isolated as ESBL *E. coli* in the present study from the non-clinical environment which has anthropogenic activity as well as wild bird populations. In the present study, ESBL *E. coli* belonging to *bla*<sub>CTX-M-27</sub> was not linked to the ST131 clone of Germany and Japan (Matsumura et al. 2015; Ghosh et al. 2017).

### Plasmid Based Replicon Typing

PBRT analysis revealed that thirty-three of the identified *E. coli* / ESBL *E. coli* carried different types of Inc Plasmids viz., B/O, F, W, I1, FIIA, HI1, P-1 $\alpha$ , K/B, and N. Twenty patterns were observed in carrying these Inc plasmids. Eighteen of the *E. coli* carried B/O plasmid, followed by F plasmid. *E. coli* from eighteen stations harbored Inc plasmids. Eight stations in Kottayam harbored Inc plasmids in contrast to Ernakulam and Alappuzha, which harbored in 5 and 6 of their stations, respectively. IncB/O plasmid containing *E. coli* was present in 10 stations in the Lake (Table. S1).

In the present investigation, the very important mobile genetic element (MGE) i.e. plasmid was identified in 33 *E. coli* in the Lake water. ESBL *E. coli* isolates from the Kottayam stations carried multi-replicon plasmid (Table S1) as identified in surface water from watersheds in Northeast Georgia, USA, and elsewhere in the other clinical infectious conditions (Carattoli et al. 2008; Cho et al. 2019). Even though resistance plasmids of the same genetic types were observed in human and animal infections as well as in other environments and food, there exists a heterogeneous genotype when one or two molecular tools/methods were used together for subtyping (Lazarus et al. 2015). The same heterogeneity was identified in the present study as evidenced by different ESBL *E. coli* harboring various Inc Plasmids and when compared in MLST they were either SLV or DLV or an entirely new allelic profile (Carattoli 2009; Rozwandowicz et al. 2018).

### Epidemiological cut off and MAR index

Mean MAR index for environmental *E. coli* was 0.14 (ranged from 0.0 to 0.6) and region-wise MAR index for Alapuzha, Ernakulam, and Kottayam regions were also below the risk criteria of 0.2 (Table S1). The majority of the sampling points in the Lake had a MAR index of less than 0.2 and only 25 isolates from 12 stations exceeded the MAR index of 0.2. The geographical points AB and AD of the Lake harboured more AMR isolates with >0.2 MAR index and AC point harbored maximum MAR index of 0.6 which belonged to Kottayam region of the Lake. It is



inferred that the Kottayam region of the Vembanad Lake carried diverse and high-risk AMR isolates which is the major tourist point of the state. High-risk areas identified in the study are marked in the resistance map (Fig. 2b).

The stations of Alapuzha (I, J, O & P) had MAR index greater than 0.2 and harbored more MDR isolates, among the sites O and P had more proximity to fish processing activities while the stations I and J were close to industries. The sites (AB, AC and AD) nearer to the mouth of the rivers and barrage harbored more MDR *E. coli* and crossed the MAR risk index limit. Rivers and lakes are important reservoirs of drug-resistant bacteria which collect effluents from various sources such as wastewater treatment plants, the water of urban or industrial effluents, agricultural runoff, or rain (Lupo et al. 2012; Michael et al. 2013) and the possible reasons for more AMR strains of *E. coli* in the southern part of the Lake could be dense of tourism-related activities, highest population density and ceasing of the tidal flushing action and growth of weeds due to the closure of the barrage (Menonet al. 2000; Michael et al. 2013). The Ernakulam region of the lake had MAR index of < 0.2 indicating low-risk sources of *E.coli*. The present study showed the occurrence of AMR *E. coli*, both in saline and freshwater environments of the Lake which indicates that the microorganism survives and possibly transfers the antibiotic resistance to another species. Hence, these points in the Vembanad Lake need to be targeted for further monitoring and for the development of strategic control measures as described in Fig.2b. The Alapuzha region of the Vembanad Lake water was less in hazard in view of harbouring fewer *E. coli* (59%) compared to Kottayam (90%) and Ernakulam (100%).

Ecoff value determined for the *E. coli* isolates of the present study revealed that the majority of these isolates were wild type in nature for the tested antibiotics; however, the presence of antibiotic resistance genes cannot be disregarded. When applying Ecoff values, the decreased susceptibility to amoxicillin/clavulanic acid (45% of isolates), ceftazidime (39% of isolates), ceftriaxone (48% of isolates), ciprofloxacin (29% of isolates), and imipenem (2% of isolates) was observed. The over and frequent misuse of antibiotics in various sectors resulted in changing antibiotic resistance profiles of microorganisms amongst bacterial populations (Byarugaba 2004). The cephalosporin misuse in the hinterland regions are brought to the Vembanad Lake by different waterways (Chandy et al. 2013) and this selective pressure possibly had resulted in the increased detection of cephalosporin-resistant *E. coli* in this study. Extensive use of third-generation cephalosporins for humans and veterinary purposes has led to an increased incidence and distribution of ESBLs and *AmpC* in bacteria. The MAR index is a good risk assessment indicator tool and the threshold value of >0.2 MAR index has been applied to differentiate low and high-risk

regions where antibiotics were inappropriately used (Riaz et al. 2011). Such an analysis exudes an idea of the number of bacteria showing antibiotic resistance in the risk zones of the study. Based on our findings certain locations in the Vembanad Lake, especially the Kottayam region, had MAR indices of >0.2 with more diverse ESBL genotypes were identified confirming that there was selective pressure in this part of the Lake, and the region is a tourist spot too (Davies and Brown 2016). However, the average of the region-wise MAR and overall MAR of Vembanad Lake did not exceed the threshold value of 0.2. The region in this study requires special attention for devising the control strategy.

### Statistical and cluster analyses

The Chi-square analysis revealed that AMP resistance was significantly ( $P < 0.01$ ) associated with CTX, CPD, CAZ resistance; AMC with CPD resistance; CRO with CAZ; ATM with CTX, CAZ; IPM with CTX CPD; NAL with CPD; CIP with CPD; SXT, and CPD. However, TET and CHL resistance were not associated with FOX, CTX, CPD, and CAZ ( $P > 0.05$ ). Interpretation based on the logistic regression analysis revealed that the highest probability of *E. coli* in Vembanad Lake being resistant was towards cefotaxime (0.7) followed by ampicillin (0.3) as depicted in Table 1. Clustering of phenotypic AMR profile data produced 3 clusters with all the susceptible isolates grouped to a single cluster EC1 along with other fewer resistant isolates; EC2 cluster contained 15 isolates with multidrug resistance from all the three regions, EC3 cluster containing 4 isolates belonged to the Kottayam region of the Vembanad Lake and adjacent of the Alapuzha region with pattern matching to 7 antibiotics. Dendrogram with the isolate identity and station number is depicted in Fig. 4.

The present study has identified ESBL *E. coli* with genetic makeup viz., ST11439-*bla*<sub>CTX-M-27</sub> - IncF plasmid; STnew (SLV ST443) - *bla*<sub>SHV-27</sub>; STnew (SLV ST443) - *bla*<sub>CTX-M-55</sub>; STnew (SLV ST1049) - *bla*<sub>CTX-M-55</sub> - Inc (B/O, HII, II, F); STnew (SLV ST1049) - *bla*<sub>CTX-M-27</sub>; STnew (SLV 4533) - *bla*<sub>TEM-116</sub>.

Healthy human and food-producing animals carried ESBL-producing strains of *E. coli* (Huijbers, P.M. et al. 2013). These resistant populations enter the aquatic environment and to the human chain increasing the risk of ESBL resistance transfer to the gut pathogens. Even though, Ecoff and MAR index determination provided the evidence for the presence of more WT strains rather than acquired resistance strains posing “low risk” to the population in the vicinity of the lake, the dissemination of ESBL-producing *E. coli* outside the health care setting

through water and food generally cannot be disregarded (Dhanji, H. et al. 2011). Surveillance of antibiotic resistance in water will be a valuable tool for the screening of resistance trends in the human population (Kwak et al. 2015) and the results of the present study indicate large diversity between the AMR profiles in *E. coli* isolated from various points of the Lake.

With the total population of 35 million, density of more than 859 km<sup>-2</sup> in the Lake vicinity that is three times as densely to rest of India, and the concomitant pressure on the natural resources, along with the additional pressure from floating population or tourism poses a serious threat to the public health. The lake Vembanad is microbially contaminated as evidenced by this study especially in the Kottayam regions and needs special attention for mitigation. The increasing anthropogenic pressure, chemical and microbiological pollution, the uncontrolled use of antimicrobial agents, and increased antibiotic consumption as well as the free movement of population and goods are the main factors facilitating the global invasion of bacteria with extremely high resistance to antibiotics. The presence of ESBL-producing *E. coli* with different subtypes in the water bodies (Vembanad Lake) meant for various activities viz., fisheries, agriculture including animal agriculture and tourism activities increase the risk factor of exposure and transmission to the human through water or food chain.

## Conclusions

The quality assessment of the water in Vembanad Lake at thirty-five locations along the inland and coastal area that encompass both freshwater and brackish water parts of the whole lake revealed the prevalence of *E. coli* in 77% of the stations and the distribution of variant AMR and ESBL *E. coli* in the entire stretch of the Lake. The study also revealed the presence of MDR *E. coli* in different locations. The study also identified 39 different AMR patterns among the *E. coli* and 31.8% were extended-spectrum  $\beta$ -lactamase (ESBL) producers; with intra and inter-sample variations in AMR profiles. Despite different ESBL *E. coli* were identified, the MLST has shown that these ESBL *E. coli* are not related to epidemic clones of clinical infections. Epidemiological cut-off (Ecoff) and Multiple Antibiotic Resistance (MAR) index evidenced the predominance of wild type (WT) isolates than *E. coli* with acquired resistance in the Lake Vembanad indicating "low risk" to the population residing in the vicinities of the Lake. However, considering the continuous inflow of floating population of intracountry and international in the form of tourism, the high population density of the region exerting tremendous anthropogenic pressure on natural resources and so are the microbial pollutants with AMR can pose a serious threat not only human health but also, the

441 animals and the environment. This suggests for identification point and non-point sources of the fecal indicators (*E.*  
442 *coli*) by microbial and molecular source tracking tools.

#### 443 **Declarations**

#### 444 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

445 Not Applicable

#### 446 **Consent for publication**

447 Not Applicable

#### 448 **Availability of data and materials**

449 Data generated from the research work viz., antimicrobial resistance, resistance gene, multi-locus  
450 sequencing, plasmid based replicon typing, ERIC PCR clusters are available in the repository of ICAR-CIFT,  
451 Microbiology Fermentation and Biotechnology Division.

#### 452 **Competing interests**

453 The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest in publishing this research work.

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#### 457 **Authors' contributions**

458 Murugadas Vaiyapuri, Madhusudana RaoBadireddy, Visnuvinayagam Sivam, Ravishankar Chandragiri  
459 Nagarajao and Mukteswar Prasad Mothadaka substantially contributed to conceptualization, designing of the  
460 work, analysis of data, drafting, and revision of the manuscript. Murugadas Vaiyapuri, Anna SherinPulithara  
461 Sebastian, Sandhya SoolamkandathVariem., ShaheerPeeralil., performed the experiments viz., isolation,  
462 identification of *E. coli*, determination of AMR and PCR analysis; Murugadas Vaiyapuri, Iris George, and Devi  
463 Sanjeev performed PBRT and MLST and eBurst analysis; Murugadas Vaiyapuri and ShaheerPeeralil has revised the

Figure and constructed the phylogenetic tree; Muthulakshmi Thandapani performed PCR for resistance genes; Radhakrishnan NairVasudevan, JoshyChalil George.,Murugadas Vaiyapuri., Visnuvinayagam S., and Sheela Albert Mosesmade the sampling strategy and performedthe statistical analysis.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary data

The base data generated in this study is attached as a supplementary file as Table S1.

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**Fig.1. Frequencies of Antimicrobial Resistance in *E. coli* isolated from Vembanad Lake**

Note: CTX- Cefotaxime; AMP- Ampicillin; TCY- Tetracycline; CRO- Ceftriaxone; NAL- Nalidixic acid; CAZ- Ceftazidime; IPM- Imipenem; ATM- Aztreonam; SXT- Trimethoprim/ Sulfamethoxazole; AMC- AmoxicillinClavulanic acid; CPD- Cefpodoxime; FOX- Cefoxitin; CIP- Ciprofloxacin; CHL- Chloramphenicol; GEN- Gentamicin. Bar represent frequencies with standard error obtained after zone diameter analysis in WHONET 5.6 software.

**Fig.2a. The location map of Vembanad Lake, Kerala, India**

The figure denotes the stations covered in the Lake encompassing three districts of Kerala viz., Ernakulam, Kottayam and Alappuzha. North end at Munambam in Ernakulam District and South end at Rajiv Boat Jetty of Alappuzha District.

**Fig. 2b. Resistance mapping in sampled stations of Vembanad Lake**

The blue pins denote the Ernakulam Region, green pins denote Ernakulam region and pink pins denote Kottayam regions of the Vembanad Lake. Black circle denote the stations with MAR index > 0.2 and other locations marked with ESBL or  $\beta$ -lactamase types.

**Fig.3.ERIC-PCR fingerprint patterns of *E. coli* isolates from different stations of Vembanad Lake .**

ERIC-PCR banding pattern were clustered with the aid of GelJ software and tree was constructed using Pearson correlation coefficient and the unweighted pair group method with arithmetic mean (UPGMA). Five major clusters were defined from groups formed with similarity.

**Fig.4. Dendrogram of phenotypic AMR profile of *E. coli* isolates from different stations of Vembanad Lake**

**Fig.5. Minimal spanning tree from eBurst analysis**

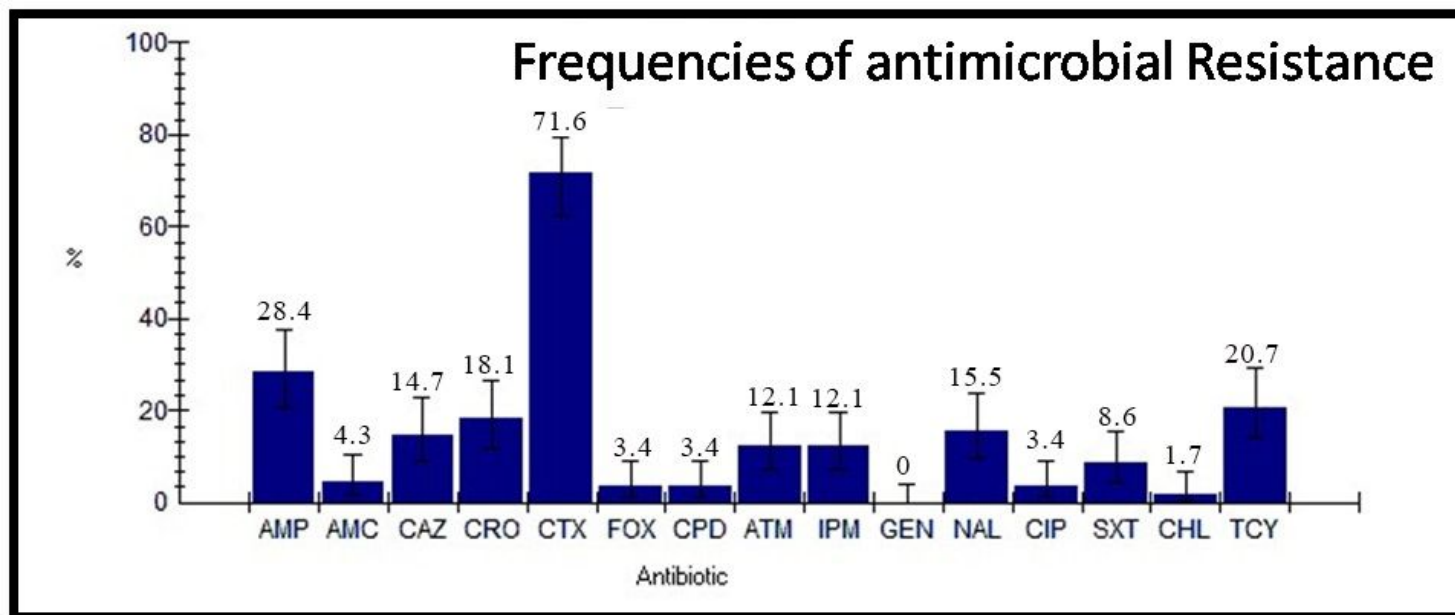
Nodes with different colours were the closest clonal complexes chosen for the analysis. Blue rings highlighted are the ESBL *E. coli* taken for the analysis. Node with blue were STs chosen for analysis including the tested isolates. Numbering inside the nodes indicates the ST number. Numbers in the line connecting nodes denotes the allele numbers.

**Table1. Resistant (R) and Wild Type (WT) *E. coli* isolated from Vembanad Lake, Kerala, India**

**Table 2. Variations in AMR patterns of Extended Spectrum  $\beta$ -lactamase *Escherichia coli* (ESBL) and other *E. coli* isolated from Vembanad Lake, Kerala, India**

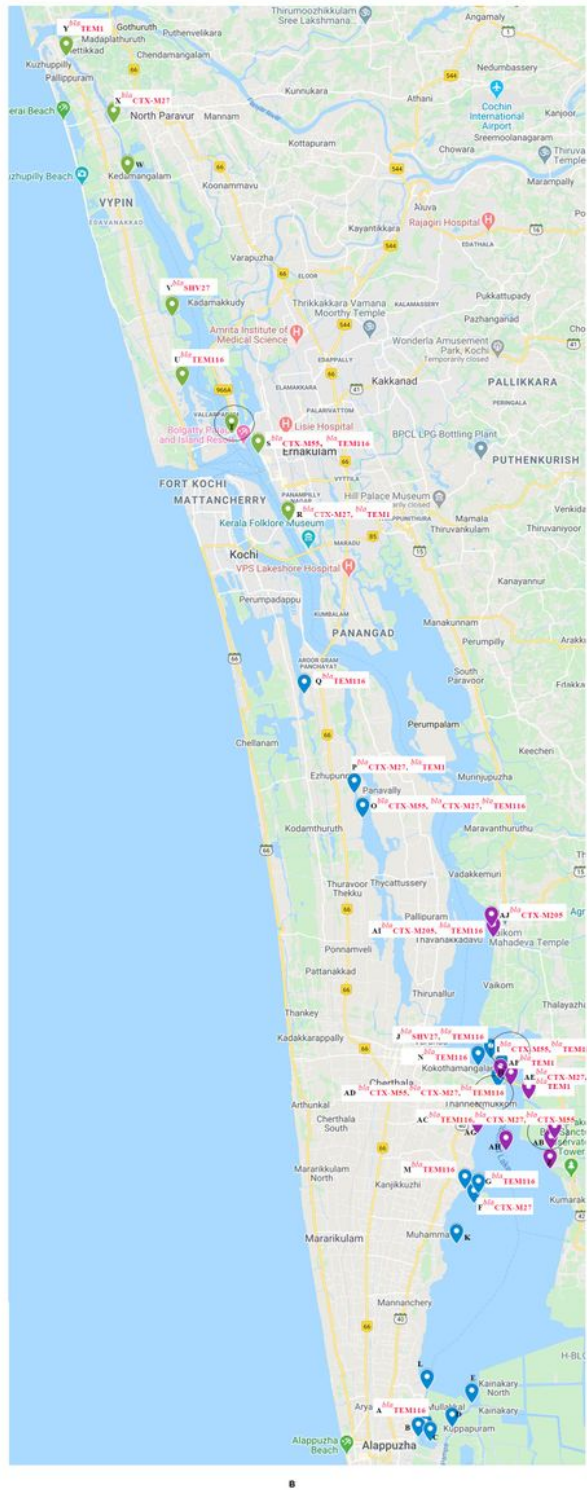
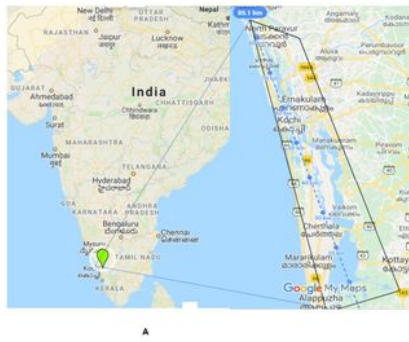
714 **Table 3. Distribution of ESBL genes in *E. coli* isolated from Vembanad Lake**  
715  
716 **Supplementary file**  
717 **Resistance mapping and genetic diversity of ESBL*Escherichia coli* isolated from largest fresh cum brackish**  
718 **water of the Vembanad Lake, Kerala, India**

## Figures



**Figure 1**

Frequencies of Antimicrobial Resistance in *E. coli* isolated from Vembanad Lake Note: CTX- Cefotaxime; AMP- Ampicillin; TCY- Tetracycline; CRO- Ceftriaxone; NAL- Nalidixic acid; CAZ- Ceftazidime; IPM- Imipenem; ATM- Aztreonam; SXT- Trimethoprim/ Sulfamethoxazole; AMC- AmoxicillinClavulanic acid; CPD- Cefpodoxime; FOX- Cefoxitin; CIP- Ciprofloxacin; CHL- Chloramphenicol; GEN- Gentamicin. Bar represent frequencies with standard error obtained after zone diameter analysis in WHONET 5.6 software.



**Figure 2**

2a. The location map of Vembanad Lake, Kerala, India The figure denotes the stations covered in the Lake encompassing three districts of Kerala viz., Ernakulam, Kottayam and Alappuzha. North end at Munambam in Ernakulam District and South end at Rajiv Boat Jetty of Alappuzha District. . 2b. Resistance mapping in sampled stations of Vembanad Lake The blue pins denote the Ernakulam Region, green pins denote Ernakulam region and pink pins denote Kottayam regions of the Vembanad Lake. Black



circle denote the stations with MAR index > 0.2 and other locations marked with ESBL or  $\beta$ -lactamase types. Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

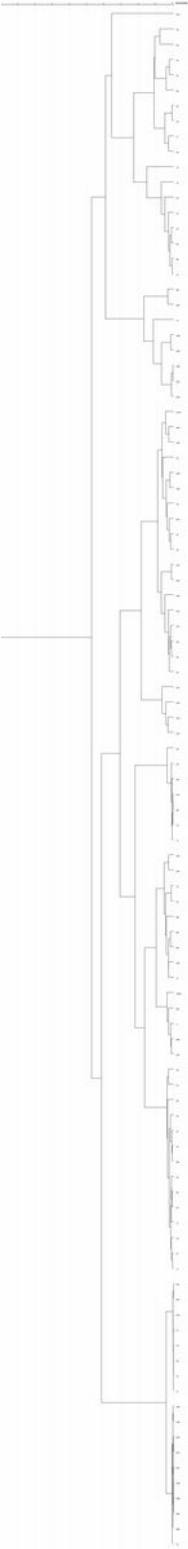
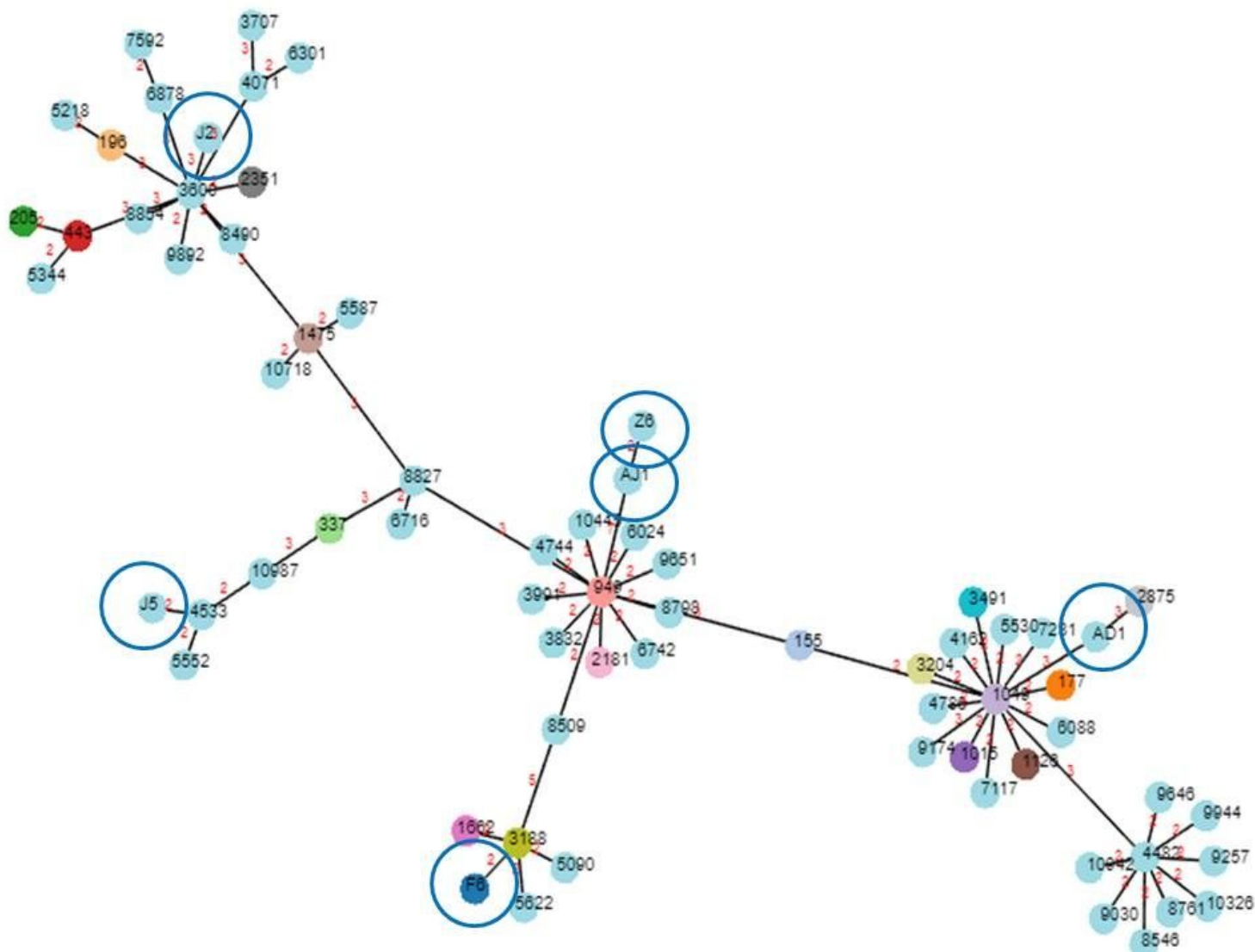


Figure 3

[illegible]

**Figure 4**

Dendrogram of phenotypic AMR profile of *E. coli* isolates from different stations of Vembanad Lake



**Figure 5**

Minimal spanning tree from eBurst analysis Nodes with different colours were the closest clonal complexes chosen for the analysis. Blue rings highlighted are the ESBL E. coli taken for the analysis. Node with blue were STs chosen for analysis including the tested isolates. Numbering inside the nodes indicates the ST number. Numbers in the line connecting nodes denotes the allele numbers.

# Supplementary Files

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