

1 ***Escherichia coli* Bacteriuria in pregnant women in Ghana: Antibiotic resistance pattern,**  
2 **Virulence Factors and Resistant genetic markers.**

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## 44 **Abstract**

45 The relevance of *Escherichia coli* associated bacteriuria infection in pregnant women is poorly  
46 understood, despite these strains sharing a similar virulence profile with other extra intestinal  
47 pathogenic *E. coli* producing severe obstetric and neonatal infections. We characterized and  
48 determined the antimicrobial susceptibility, resistant genes and virulence profiles of 82 *E. coli*  
49 isolates associated with asymptomatic bacteriuria in some pregnant in five very distinct  
50 hospitals in the Volta region from January, 2016 to April, 2016 using Kirby-Bauer disc  
51 diffusion and polymerase chain reaction.

52 High levels of antimicrobial resistance was observed to Ampicillin (79.3%), Tetracycline  
53 (70.7%) and Cotrimoxazole (59.8%), except for Cefuroxime (32.9%). Resistant genes analyses  
54 revealed 58.5% were positive for *Bla*<sub>TEM</sub> and 14.6% for *aph(3)-Ia*(aphA2). Virulence factors  
55 (VFs) was more widespread in pregnant women in the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> trimesters than 1<sup>st</sup> trimester.  
56 VFs relating to adhesion (*papC* and *iha*), Protectins (*traT*), aerobactin acquisition (*iutA*) and  
57 iron acquisition systems (*fyuA* and *irp2*) were more prevalent in the resistant *E. coli* isolates.  
58 This study provides additional evidence for a link in bacteriuria and transmission of extra-  
59 intestinal *E. coli* in pregnant women to cause multi-resistant severe obstetric or neonatal  
60 infections. Considering the involvement of extra-intestinal *E. coli* in infections, our results may  
61 be helpful to develop strategies to prevent maternal and/ neonatal infections. In addition  
62 continuous surveillance is required to guide appropriate antibiotic usage in pregnant women.

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64 **Keywords:** *Escherichia coli*, bacteriuria, pregnant women, Ghana

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## 72 **Introduction**

73 Maternal genitourinary infection is a leading cause of pregnancy complications worldwide [1].  
74 In the last decades, the rod shaped gram-negative lactose fermenter and gas producing member  
75 of the family *Enterobacteriaceae* called *Escherichia coli* is reported to be a major cause of UTI  
76 in pregnancy [2, 3]. There are many pathotypes of *E. coli*, but the pathotype associated with  
77 extra intestinal infection is called extra intestinal pathogenic *Escherichia coli* (ExPEC) [4, 5,  
78 6]. ExPEC are characterized by the presence of large numbers of specialized virulent factors  
79 (VFs) that enable them to become invasive, adhesive, and resistant to bactericidal drugs or  
80 resistant to phagocytosis in the host [7, 8]. ExPEC lack the ability to cause gastroenteritis in  
81 humans [7, 9], however, they are able to cause extra-intestinal infections involving sepsis,  
82 meningitis, cellulitis, osteomyelitis, wounds infections and urinary tract [9, 10, 11].  
83 ExPEC infections are common causes of healthcare-associated infection in recent years with a  
84 large number reported to be associated with bacteriuria, bacteraemia and urosepsis [12-15].  
85 Urinary tracts infections (UTI) is treatable, however, it is becoming increasingly difficult to  
86 control because of rampant antimicrobial resistance to pregnancy friendly antibiotics,  
87 especially those belonging to the beta lactam class, cephalosporins and fluoroquinolones [13,  
88 16, 17]. Although the prevalence of antimicrobial resistance in *E. coli* in pregnant women has  
89 been found to vary in India, Iraq, and Ethiopia [18, 19, 20, 21]. In Ghana, some hospitals have  
90 reported *E. coli* as one of the pathogens associated with bacteriuria and bacteraemia [22, 23,  
91 24]. However, characterization of virulence factors and genetic properties of the associated  
92 pathogenic isolates are limited to basic phenotypic tests leaving several important questions  
93 unanswered on the implicated *E. coli* strain (s) infection and its propensity to cause other extra  
94 intestinal infection in patients. Hence the need for this study to evaluate the antibiotic resistance  
95 phenotypes, and virulence factor genes of ExPEC isolates from pregnant women with  
96 asymptomatic bacteriuria from randomly selected hospitals in the Volta region of Ghana.

## 97 **Materials and methods**

### 98 **Study location**

99 The Volta region is one of the administrative regions in Ghana with Ho as its capital. It lies  
100 east of the Volta Lake and about 20570 km<sup>2</sup> [25]. The Volta regional hospital, Ho serves as a  
101 referral center for the Volta region in Ghana and also to some West African countries. There is  
102 an infection control unit in the hospital which supervises and coordinates hygienic practices to  
103 prevent and control outbreaks of multi-resistant pathogenic infections. The Volta region is  
104 bordered to the east by the Republic of Togo, to the south by the Atlantic Ocean and to the  
105 north by the Northern region of Ghana. Ghana has a population of about 24.2 million and is  
106 considered a lower middle income economy [30]. Health facilities available in the bacteriology  
107 laboratory of regional hospitals in Ghana permit only phenotypic characterization of bacteria  
108 and the most common organisms reported in the laboratories are *Escherichia coli*,  
109 *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* [26]. *Escherichia coli* isolated in the  
110 Bacteriology Laboratory of the hospitals are not routinely tested for virulence factors or  
111 sequenced to detect the sequence type complex [27].

### 112 **Subject selection and data collection**

113 Pregnant women attending antenatal clinic at the selected hospitals were only included in the  
114 study. Consenting women were then given written detailed information about the study and a  
115 written informed consent form to complete. A self-administered questionnaire was given to the  
116 women to obtain information on the demographic and socio-economic characteristics (see S1  
117 File for Copy of Questionnaire). All information about the study was translated verbally in the  
118 native languages for those who could not read. Participants who could not write were also  
119 assisted to fill the consent forms. Non pregnant and pregnant women who were on antibiotic  
120 treatment were excluded from the study. The sample size was calculated using the formula;

121  $N=Z^2P(1-P)/D^2$  where; N= sample size; Z= 1.96 (95% confidence interval), P = 56.5%, D=  
122 0.05 T

## 123 **Microbiological analysis**

124 Clean catch midstream urine samples from the pregnant women were inoculated onto cysteine  
125 lactose electrolyte deficient (CLED) agar and incubated at 37°C for 18 to 24 hours. Colonies  
126 that appeared circular and yellow on CLED agar were considered to be potential *E. coli* [28].  
127 A representative colony on each plate was Gram stained and further tested using indole, methyl  
128 red, citrate, Voges-Proskauer test and urease [28]. API 20E identification system (bioMerieux  
129 SA, Marcy l'Etoile, France) was used to confirm the isolates before the identified isolates were  
130 stored in 10% glycerol-trypticase soy broth at -70°C for further sensitivity and molecular  
131 analyses testing.

## 132 **Antimicrobial susceptibility testing**

133 The antimicrobial susceptibility testing was carried out on the isolates using the Kirby Bauer  
134 method based on the CLSI, (29) guidelines for resistance to Ampicillin (10µg), Tetracycline  
135 (30µg), Cotrimoxazole (25µg), Nalidixic acid (30µg), Nitrofurantoin (300µg, Gentamicin  
136 (10µg) and Cefuroxime (30µg).

137 The control strains used for the determination of minimum inhibitory concentrations were *E.*  
138 *faecalis* ATCC 29212, *E. coli* ATCC 25922, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* ATCC 27853 and  
139 *Staphylococcus aureus* ATCC 29213. The bacteria were subcultured onto 5% horse blood agar  
140 (HBA) plates (37°C, 18 h) and then suspended in saline to a concentration equivalent to 0.5  
141 Mcfarland. A loopful of the suspensions was transferred to a Mueller-Hinton agar plate and a  
142 sterile cotton swab was used to streak the entire surface of the plate. The lid of the agar plate  
143 was left ajar for 3 - 5 min to allow for excess surface moisture to be absorbed before the  
144 application of drug impregnated disks and incubated at 24°C for 24 hr. After incubation, zone

145 diameters around the antibiotic discs was measured and classified as sensitive or resistant based  
146 on the CLSI [29] break points (Table 1).

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149 **Table 1** Guidelines for interpreting antimicrobial susceptibility results

	Zone diameter (mm)	
	Susceptible	Resistant
Ampicillin (10)	≥17	≤13
Tetracycline (30)	≥15	≤11
Cotrimoxazole (25)	≥16	≤10
Nalidixic acid (30)	≥19	≤13
Nitrofurantoin (300)	≥17	≤14
Gentamycin (10)	≥15	≤12
Cefuroxime (3)	≥23	≤14

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## 164 **DNA extraction**

165 A single colony of a fresh bacterial culture from 5% HBA was picked and suspended in 200  
166 ml of sterile water. Tubes were heated at 98°C for 10 min and subsequently centrifuged at 17  
167 900 X g for 5 min. The supernatant were recovered and 2 ml of this was used as a template in  
168 the various polymerase chain reactions (PCR).

## 169 **Molecular Analysis of *E. coli* isolates**

170 A total of 82 *E. coli* isolates recovered from the pregnant women from the five hospitals in the  
171 Volta region of Ghana between February, 2016 to August, 2016 were analysed for virulence  
172 factors (Vfs) with PCR for the presence of genes encoding 18 VFs (30, 31). The following  
173 genes: adhesins (*papC*, *papG*, including *papG* alleles, *sfa/foc*, *iha*, *hra* and *ibeA*), toxins (*hlyC*,  
174 *cnf1* and *sat*), iron capture systems (*fyuA*, *irp2*, *iroN*, *iucC* and *ireA*), protectins (*neuC*,  
175 chromosomal *ompT* and *traT*) and *usp*, a gene encoding uropathogenic-specific protein were  
176 tested using primers (Integrated DNA Technologies, Inc, USA - <https://www.idtdna.com>) in  
177 Table 2.

178 Each reaction consisted of 4 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 1 ml of 25 pmol of each primer, 2 ml of 2 mM dNTPs  
179 and 4 ml of 5 X PCR buffer, 1U of Taq DNA polymerase (New England BioLab, South Africa)  
180 in a total reaction volume of 25 ml, including 2 ml DNA template. Six primer pools utilised  
181 were; pool 1: *iron* (665), *sfa* (410), *iutA* (300), *hra* (260), pool 2: *papA* (717), *KpsMTIII* (392),  
182 *ireA* (254), *ibeA* (171); pool 3: *papG1* (1190), *papGII*, III (1070), *iha* (827), *ompT* (559),  
183 *KpsMTII* (272); pool4: *iucC* (541), *Cnf1* (498), *irp2* (287); pool 5: *hlyD* (904), *usp* (440), *traT*  
184 (290); and pool 6 : *papC* (200), *sat* (937), *FyuA* (880).

185 The cycling condition were as follows: 94 °C for 5 min, followed by 30 cycles of denaturation  
186 (94 °C, 30 s), annealing (64°C, 30 s), extension (68°C, 3 min) and final extension (72°C, 10  
187 min). PCR products were then electrophoresed on 1.5% agarose gel containing ethidium  
188 bromide.

**Table 2** Primers used for PCR.

Category	Primer	Primer Sequence (5'-3')		Amplicon Size (bp)	Annealing Temp. (°C)	Reference
		Forward	Reverse			
Antibiotic resistant genes	<i>Bla</i> <sub>TEM</sub>	gagtattcaacatttctgt	accaatgcttaatcagtg	857	64	[32]
	<i>Int 1</i>	gggtcaaggatctggatttcg	acatgggtgtaaatcatcgtc	483	64	[33]
	<i>Int 2</i>	cacggatatgcgacaaaaaggt	gtagcaaacgagtgacgaaatg	788	64	[33]
	<i>Aph(3')-Ia(aphA1)</i>	atgggctcgcgataatg	ctcaccgagcagttccat	600	64	[32]
	<i>Aph(3')-Ia(aphA2)</i>	gaacaagatggattgcacgc	gctctcagcaatatcacgg	680	64	[32]
Adhesins	<i>papA</i>	atggcagtggtgttttggtg	cgtcccaccatactgctcttc	717	64	[6]
	<i>papC</i>	gtggcagtatgagtaatgaccgtta	atatacttctcagggatgcaata	200	64	[6]
	<i>papG I</i>	ctgtaattacggaagtgatttctg	tccagaatagctcatgtaaccg	1190	64	[6]
	<i>papGII, III</i>	ctgtaattacggaagtgatttctg	actatccggctccgataaacctat	1070	64	[6]
	<i>sfa/foc</i>	ctccggagaactgggtgcattctac	cggaggagtaattacaaacctggca	410	64	[6]
	<i>iha</i>	ctggcggaggctc tgagatca	tccttaagctc ccgcgctga	827	64	[34]
	<i>hra</i>	cagaaaacaaccggtatcag	accaagcatgatgcatgac	260	64	[37]
	<i>ibeA</i>	aggcaggtgtgcgccgcgtac	tggtgctccggcaaacatgc	171	64	[6]
Toxins	<i>hlyD</i>	ctccggtactgaaaaggac	gcctgattactgaagcctg	904	64	*
	<i>cnfI</i>	aagatggagtttctatgaggag	cattcagagtcctgcctcattatt	498	64	[6] [35] 8
	<i>sat</i>	gcagctaccgcaataggaggt	cattcagagtaccggggccta	937	64	
Iron capture systems	<i>fyuA</i>	tgattaacccgcgacgggaa	cgcagtaggcacgatgttga	880	64	[6]
	<i>irp2</i>	aaggattcgtgttaccggac	tcgtcgggcagcgtttctct	287	64	[38]
	<i>iron</i>	aagtcaaagcaggggtgcccc	gacccgacattaag acgcag	665	64	[34]
	<i>iuC</i>	cgccgtggctgggtaag	cagccggtcaccaagtatcactg	541	64	[36]
	<i>ireA</i>	gatgactcagccacgggtaa	ccaggactcacctcacgaat	254	64	*
Protectins	<i>kpsMTII</i>	gcgcatttgctgatactgtt	catccagacgataagcatgagca	272	64	[6]
	<i>kpsMTIII</i>	tcctcttgctactattccccct	tcctcttgctactattccccct	392	64	[6]
	<i>OmpT</i>	atctagccgaagaaggaggc	cccgggtcatagtgttcac	559	64	*
	<i>traT</i>	ggtgtggtgctgatgagcacag	cacgggtcagccatccctgag	290	64	[6]
Uropathogenic-specific protein	<i>usp</i>	acattcacggcaagcctcag	agcgagttcctggtgaaagc	440	64	[37]
Aerobactin system	<i>iutA</i>	ggctggacatcatgggaactgg	cgtcgggaacgggtagaatcg	300	64	[6]

\*J. R. Johnson protocols, Minneapolis VA Medical Center, MN, USA



## 189 **Antibiotic resistant genes determination**

190 Resistant genes for the various phenotypic resistant strains were determined using primers and  
191 corresponding annealing temperatures highlighted in Table 2. Each reaction mixture consisted  
192 of 4 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 1 ml of 25 pmol of each primer, 2 ml of 2 mM dNTPs and 4 ml of 5 X PCR  
193 reaction buffer, 1U of Taq DNA polymerase (New England BioLab, South Africa) in a total  
194 reaction volume of 25 ml, including 2 ml DNA template. DNA amplification was carried out  
195 using the following conditions: 7 min initial denaturation at 95 °C, following 35 cycles of  
196 denaturation at 94 °C for 30 s, annealing at various temperatures for 30 s (Table 2) and  
197 extension at 72 °C for 45 s. PCR products were then electrophoresised on a 1.5% agarose gel  
198 containing ethidium bromide. The size of the various amplicons was determined by comparison  
199 with 100 bp and 1 kb ladders.

## 200 **Data handling and statistical analysis**

201 The data were entered into Microsoft Excel and analyzed using GraphPad Prism software,  
202 version 6. In all cases, P-values less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant. Initially  
203 the association between each exposure and the presence of infection was assessed using the  
204 Chi-squared test. Chi-square analysis was carried out to test for significance between  
205 prevalence of intestinal parasitic infections and risk factors for prevalence of intestinal parasitic  
206 infections. Odds ratios were computed to measure the strength of association. To determine  
207 independent risk factors for infection, logistic regression analysis was employed where  
208 appropriate.

## 209 **Ethical approval**

210 The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the School of Biomedical and Allied  
211 Health Sciences, College of Health Sciences, University of Ghana, Legon (Ethics Identification  
212 Number: SAHS/10507884/AA/MLS/2015–2016). Participation was voluntary and written

213 consent was taken in accordance with the ethical committee's guidelines. Permission was also  
214 sought from the Volta Region Ghana Health Service, all participating Hospitals and laboratory  
215 personnel before the samples were taken.

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## 240 3.0 RESULTS

### 241 3.1 Distribution of UTI and socio-demographic characteristics

242 Out of the 400 urine specimens from pregnant women in the five selected hospitals, 42.8%  
243 (171) of the pregnant women were positive for bacteriuria (growth  $>10^5$  colony forming  
244 units/mL), whilst 57.25% (229) had no significant growth. *E. coli* formed majority of the  
245 microbes associated with bacteriuria (48%), but low prevalence were found for *Staphylococcus*  
246 *aureus* (18.1%), *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (13.45%), *Proteus mirabilis* (11.11%), *Pseudomonas*  
247 *aeruginosa* (5.26%), and *Enterococcus faecalis* (4.09%) (Table 3).

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250 **Table 3** Distribution of isolated bacteria in the different hospitals

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Hospitals	Isolates					
	<i>E. coli</i> (%)	<i>S. aureus</i> (%)	<i>P. mirabilis</i> (%)	<i>K. pneumoniae</i> (%)	<i>P. aeruginosa</i> (%)	<i>E. faecalis</i> (%)
St Joseph	23	6	2	7	2	2
Volta regional	11	6	1	7	3	0
Mary-Theresa	16	10	7	4	1	1
Ketu South	18	4	4	4	3	3
St Anthony Hosp.	14	5	5	1	0	1
<b>Total (%)</b>	82(47.95)	31(18.13)	19(11.11)	23(13.45)	9(5.26)	7(4.09)

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262 The educational levels of the four hundred pregnant women revealed basic level education  
263 (62.7%), and secondary education (25.5) were the common levels of education (Table 4). One  
264 hundred and ten (43.8%) of the women with basic education had UTI and 45.5% (50) were  
265 infected with *E. coli*. Forty five percent of the pregnant women with secondary education had  
266 UTI and *E. coli* was associated with 52.2% (24). Only 15 (31.9%) women with tertiary  
267 education had UTI and 8 (53.3%) of the cases of UTI was caused by *E. coli*. Despite the  
268 differences in the rate of UTI in relation to educational levels of the participant, the difference  
269 was non-significant ( $\chi^2$  (2, N = 400) = 2.678, p = 0.262).

270 For the purpose of this study, the participants were put into 4 age groups (Table 4). Occurrence  
271 of UTI among 13 - 19 age groups was found to be 44.44% and 33.33% of these UTIs were  
272 associated with *E. coli*. Out of the 228 patients (aged 20 - 29 years), 96 (42.11%) of the pregnant  
273 women were found to have UTI with 50 (52.08%) associated with *E. coli*. The rate of UTI in  
274 the 30 - 39 age groups was 42.18% and *E. coli* was associated with 50% (20 pregnant women).  
275 The age group 40 – 49 years had 9 participants (56.25%) positive bacteria growth with *E. coli*  
276 causing 33.33% of the UTI (Table 3). The differences in the rate of UTI among the various age  
277 groups was statistically non-significant ( $X^2$  (3, N = 400) = 1.397, p = 0.706).

278 Most of the pregnant women were in their third [43.3% (173)], and second [39% (156)]  
279 trimesters of pregnancy (Table 4). Significant bacteria growth of 42.3% (66) and 49.1% (85)  
280 was recorded for pregnant women in their second and third trimesters. Fifty-five per cent (11)  
281 of the significant bacteria growth recorded among first trimester group was for *E. coli*. Other  
282 cases of UTI caused by *E. coli* were found to be (53.0% (35) and 42.3% (36) respectively for  
283 second and third trimesters. Chi square exact test performed to determine the relationship  
284 between the gestational age and the development of UTI revealed a significant association with  
285 gestational age ( $X^2$  (2, N = 400) = 12.209, p = 0.002).

286 The distribution of parity of participants was 32.3% (129), 26.8% (107), and 41% (164) for  
 287 nulliparous, primiparous and multiparous respectively. *E. coli* was isolated from 22.2%, 66.7%  
 288 and 38.5% of urine samples collected from nulliparous, primiparous and multiparous pregnant  
 289 women respectively.

290 **Table 4** Socio-demographic characteristics and distribution of UTI among pregnant women

Characteristics	No. of Pregnant Women Tested (%)	Culture results			$\chi^2$	p value
		No of Significant growth (%)	No. of no significant growth	No. of UTI associated with <i>E. coli</i> (%)		
<b>AGE (years)</b>						
13 - 19	54 (13.5)	24 (44.4)	30 (55.6)	8 (33.3)	1.397	0.706
20 - 29	228 (57.0)	96 (42.1)	132 (57.9)	50 (52.1)		
30 - 39	102 (25.5)	42 (41.2)	60 (58.8)	21 (50.0)		
40 - 49	16 (4.0)	9 (56.2)	7 (43.8)	3 (33.3)		
<b>GESTATIONAL AGE</b>						
1 <sup>st</sup> Trimester	71 (17.8)	20 (28.2)	51 (71.8)	11 (55.0)	12.209	0.002*
2 <sup>nd</sup> Trimester	156 (39.0)	66 (42.3)	90 (57.7)	35 (53.0)		
3 <sup>rd</sup> Trimester	173 (43.3)	85 (49.1)	88 (50.9)	36 (42.4)		
<b>PARITY</b>						
Nulliparous	129 (32.3)	52 (40.3)	77 (59.7)	30 (57.7)	1.025	0.599
Primiparous	107 (26.8)	44 (41.1)	63 (58.9)	18 (40.9)		
Multiparous	164 (41)	75 (45.7)	89 (54.3)	34 (45.3)		
<b>EDUCATION</b>						
Basic Level	251 (62.7)	110 (43.8)	141 (56.2)	50 (45.5)	2.678	0.262
Secondary	102 (25.5)	46 (45.1)	56 (54.9)	24 (52.2)		
Tertiary	47 (11.75)	15 (31.9)	32 (68.1)	8 (53.3)		
<b>Hospitals</b>						
St Joseph Hospital, Nkwanta	80 (20.0)	42 (52.5)	38 (47.5)	23 (54.76)	9.847	0.043*
Volta Regional Hospital, Ho	80 (20.0)	28 (35.0)	52 (65.0)	11 (39.29)		
Mary Theresa Catholic Hospital, DodiPapase	80 (20.0)	39 (48.7)	41(51.3)	16 (41.03)		
Ketu South Municipal Hospital, Aflao	80 (20.0)	36 (45.0)	44 (55.0)	18 (50.00)		
St Anthony Hospital, Dzodze	80 (20.0)	26 (32.5)	54 (67.5)	14 (53.84)		
<b>Total</b>	<b>400 (100.0)</b>	<b>171 (42.8)</b>	<b>229 (57.2)</b>	<b>82 (47.95)</b>		

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292 \*Significant at <0.005

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### 3.2 Antimicrobial susceptibility pattern of *E. coli* isolates

The 82 *E. coli* isolates from the pregnant women revealed high resistance to ampicillin (Table 5). A resistant prevalence of 86.96%, 72.7%, 68.8%, 88.2% and 78.6% to *E. coli* isolates from St Joseph hospital, Volta regional hospital, Mary Theresa Hospital, Ketu south Municipal hospital and St Anthony hospital respectively was found. *E. coli* however recorded the least resistance of 26.09%, 27.27%, 18.75% and 21.43% to Cefuroxime for isolates collected from St Joseph hospital, Volta regional hospital, Mary Theresa Hospital and St Anthony hospital respectively. A relatively high resistance of 70.59% for cefuroxime to *E. coli* isolates was observed in Ketu South hospital, Aflao (Table 5). Resistance of 78.26%, 72.73%, 62.50%, 70.59% and 71.41% were recorded against Tetracycline for *E. coli* isolates from patients attending St Joseph hospital, Volta regional hospital, Mary Theresa Hospital, Ketu south Municipal hospital and St Anthony hospital (Table 5). Similarly, at the St Joseph hospital, 69.57%, 34.78%, 30.43%, and 26.09% of *E. coli* isolates were resistance to Cotrimoxazole, Nalidixic acid, Nitrofurantoin and Gentamicin respectively. Whilst at Volta regional hospital, 54.55% of the *E. coli* isolates were resistant to Cotrimoxazole and Nalidixic acid. Resistance to Nitrofurantoin and Gentamicin was found to be 36.36%.

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313 **Table 5** Antibiotic resistance pattern of *E. coli* from five hospitals in the Volta region, Ghana.

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ANTIBIOTIC	HOSPITALS (No.)					
	St Joseph hospital (n=23, %)	Volta regional hospital (n=11, %)	Mary Theresa hospital (n=16, %)	Ketu south Mun. Hospital (n=18, %)	St Anthony hospital (n=14, %)	Total (n=82, %)
<b>Ampicillin</b>	20 (86.96)	8 (72.73)	11 (68.75)	15 (88.24)	11 (78.57)	65 (79.3)
<b>Tetracycline</b>	18 (78.26)	8 (72.73)	10 (62.50)	12 (70.59)	10 (71.43)	58 (70.7)
<b>Cotrimoxazole</b>	16 (69.57)	6 (54.55)	8 (50.00)	9 (52.94)	10 (71.43)	49 (59.8)
<b>Nalidixic Acid</b>	8 (34.78)	6 (54.55)	8 (50.00)	11 (64.71)	7 (50.00)	40 (48.8)
<b>Nitrofurantoin</b>	7 (30.43)	4 (36.36)	5 (31.25)	9 (52.94)	4 (28.57)	29 (35.4)
<b>Gentamicin</b>	6 (26.09)	4 (36.36)	6 (37.5)	10 (58.82)	8 (57.14)	34 (41.5)
<b>Cefuroxime</b>	6 (26.09)	3 (27.27)	3 (18.75)	12 (70.59)	3 (21.43)	27 (32.9)

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### 317 **3.4 Prevalence of Antibiotic Resistant Genes and integrons in the**

#### 318 ***E. coli* isolates**

319 In total, forty seven ampicillin resistant isolates were found to contain *Bla*<sub>TEM</sub> (Table 6).  
320 Pregnant women in the 2<sup>nd</sup> (24 isolates) and 3<sup>rd</sup> (18 isolates) trimesters had *E. coli* isolates with  
321 more *Bla*<sub>TEM</sub> gene compared to women in their 1<sup>st</sup> trimesters (5 isolates). The aminoglycoside  
322 genes *aph(3)-Ia*(*aphA2*) for gentamicin resistance was found in only 6 phenotypically resistant  
323 isolates from 6 pregnant women in their 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> Trimesters (Table 6). All the *E. coli* isolates  
324 were screened for the presence of *intI* and *intII*, however only 10 of isolates were positive for  
325 *intI*, whilst 2 *E. coli* isolates contained *intII*, 58 of the isolates did not possess either *intI* or  
326 *intII*.

#### 327 **3.5 Distribution of Virulence factors gene**

328 The distribution of the 82 *E. coli* isolates in relation to virulence genes from the various groups  
329 of pregnant women revealed 75.6% (62 isolates) *E. coli* contained two or more virulence genes  
330 (VFs) (Table 6). The virulence score used to classify the ExPEC isolates was calculated using  
331 the total number of VFs genes. Isolates were classified as ExPEC if they were positive for two  
332 or more of the tested virulence genes (5). The *iutA* (aerobactin acquisition), *papC* and *iha*  
333 (adhesins), *fyuA* and *irp2* (iron capture systems), *traT* (protectins) were the common detected  
334 genes, whereas *usp* (uropathogenic-specific proteins) and some of the adhesin genes (*hra*, *ibeA*,  
335 & *papG1*) were the least detected genes, *sat* (toxins) and *papGII* & *papGIII* (adhesion) was not  
336 detected in any of the isolates. In addition, VFs was more widespread in pregnant women in  
337 the 2<sup>nd</sup> (30 isolates) and 3<sup>rd</sup> (25 isolates) trimesters than 1<sup>st</sup> trimester (12 isolates).

338 In the tested pregnant women, all the *E. coli* isolates in pregnant women in the 1<sup>st</sup> Trimester  
339 were ExPEC isolates. Although pregnant women aged between 20 - 29 years were more  
340 positive compared to women aged between 13-19 years and 30 -39 years, pregnant women in

341 their 2<sup>nd</sup> trimesters aged between 20 -29 years (21 patients) had a higher prevalence of VFs.  
342 Out the 33 VFs positive *E. coli* isolates associated with pregnant women in their 2<sup>nd</sup> trimester,  
343 30 of the strains were positive for two or more of the tested virulence genes. Whilst a few (2)  
344 pregnant women aged 40 - 49 in their 3<sup>rd</sup> trimesters harboured ExPEC isolates, 12 of the women  
345 aged between 20 -29 were positive for ExPEC isolates.

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## 362 **4.0 DISCUSSION**

363 There are few studies on the antimicrobial susceptibility and/or virulence of *E. coli* isolates  
364 colonizing the genital tract of pregnant women [39, 40, 41]. However, no studies have been  
365 carried out to systematically compare virulence factors and antimicrobial resistance in *E. coli*  
366 isolates from pregnant women in different trimesters in Ghana.

367 This study revealed 42.75% of the 400 sampled pregnant women had UTI. This prevalence  
368 (42.75%) is slightly lower than the 56.5% prevalence reported in a previous study in Ghana in  
369 Cape Coast by Alex *et al.*, [42] in 200 asymptomatic pregnant women. Although finding in this  
370 study are quite similar to 47.5% by Okonko *et al.*, [43] in Nigeria, it is lower than the 85%  
371 prevalence reported in Edo state, Nigeria by Turay *et al.*, [44]. However, the prevalence of  
372 42.75 reported in this study is higher compared to the 7.3% reported in Kumasi by Turpin *et*  
373 *al.*, [45], 5.1% by Lumbiganon *et al.*, [46] in Thailand and 18.8% prevalence of UTI in  
374 Southern Ethiopia [47]. The difference in the prevalence in the different countries can be  
375 attributed to varied genital hygiene and socioeconomic conditions [48].

376 *E. coli* accounted for 47.95% of the UTI cases recorded in this study. This is in conformity  
377 with previous studies by Hamdan *et al.*, [49] in Sudan, Kawser *et al.*, [50] in Bangladesh, Akobi  
378 *et al.*, [51] in Nigeria and Alex *et al.*, [42] in Ghana that *E. coli* is the major cause of UTI in  
379 pregnancy. The high incidence of *E. coli* associated with UTI among the pregnant women can  
380 be attributed to poor genital hygiene practices that enable movement of *E. coli* from its natural  
381 habitats into the genitals [52].

382 The predominance of *Staphylococcus aureus* (18.13%) over *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (13.45%)  
383 in this study is in contrast to Alex *et al.*, [42] study which reported *Klebsiella pneumoniae* as  
384 the second prevalent among asymptomatic pregnant women. This result can be attributed to  
385 varying social, biological and environmental factors which facilitate host system diversity in

386 different countries [52]. The high numbers of *Staphylococcus aureus* in this study may suggest  
387 that *Staphylococcus aureus* is gaining clinical grounds as one of the common etiological agent  
388 of UTI in pregnancy and further studies are required to validate the its potential to cause  
389 infectious diseases in pregnancy.

#### 390 **4.1 Socio-demographic characteristics and UTI among pregnant** 391 **women**

392 Many socio-demographic factors are known to affect the frequency of bacteriuria during  
393 pregnancy [53]. These factors can include multiparity, gestational age, previous medical  
394 history of UTI, diabetes mellitus and anatomic urinary tract abnormalities [53, 54].

395 This study revealed that participants in 40 – 49 age group had the highest UTI prevalence of  
396 56.25% whilst the least incidence was 41.18% in 30 – 39 age group. Although statistical  
397 analysis revealed no significant differences in age groups and occurrence of UTI, findings from  
398 this study are in contrast to Sheerin [52] study which reported UTI development to be directly  
399 proportional to the age of the participants. Other underlying factors like personal hygiene and  
400 differences in levels of sexual activity among the various age groups may have affected the  
401 propensity to develop UTI in the tested pregnant women [52].

402 Pregnant women in their third trimester in this study recorded the highest incidence of UTI  
403 (49.13%), followed by those in their second trimester (43.25%). Finding are conformity with  
404 Kawser *et al.*, [50], Ferede *et al.*, [56], Al-Haddad [57], and Sibi *et al.*, [58] studies from  
405 Bangladesh, Ethiopia, Yemen, and India which reported that prevalence of UTI occurs with  
406 increase in gestational age. Although Chi square exact test analysis revealed a statistical  
407 association ( $p = 0.002$ ) of prevalence of UTI and gestational age in this study. Findings  
408 however are in contrast to studies by Turay *et al.*, [44] and Onuh *et al.*, [21] from Nigeria and

409 Alex *et al.*, [42] in Ghana which reported a higher prevalence of UTI in the second trimester  
410 compared to the third trimester.

411 The prevalence of UTI was found to increase with parity in this study, though the difference  
412 observed in this study was found to be non-significant ( $p = 0.599$ ). Multiparous pregnant  
413 women had the highest incidence of UTI with 45.12%, and this was followed by 42.06% and  
414 40.31% for primiparous and nulliparous pregnant women respectively. This finding however,  
415 are in contrast to findings by Emiru *et al.*, [53] and Nandy *et al.*, [59] that increase in parity is  
416 directly proportion to increase in susceptibility to UTI.

417 Although a chi square exact test revealed no significant association between educational level  
418 and development of UTI in pregnancy ( $p = 0.262$ ), pregnant women with secondary education  
419 (45.1%) and basic level of education (43.8%) were positive for bacteriuria. The changes in the  
420 rate of UTI among the participants in various level of education may be as result of varying  
421 levels of health education on personal hygiene practices; however our findings are similar to  
422 Emiru *et al.*, [53] study in Ethiopia.

## 423 **4.2 Phenotypic antimicrobial resistance and resistant genes**

424 In this study, *E. coli* isolates were found to have high antimicrobial resistance against  
425 Ampicillin, Tetracyclines, and Cotrimoxazole. These prevalences are similar to earlier report  
426 by Newman *et al.*, [22], Feglo [60] and Newman *et al.*, [60] in Ghana. This high level of  
427 resistance observed in this study can be attributed to abuse of these drugs over the years. This  
428 is because they are relatively cheap and easily accessible without prescription [22, 61].  
429 Although most of the *E. coli* isolates were susceptible to cefuroxime (33.33%). This finding  
430 however contradict Okonko *et al.*, [43] study which reported higher resistance of *E. coli* to  
431 Cephalosporins than Quinolone/ Fluoroquinolones. The difference in the findings can be  
432 attributed to differences in geographical locations with varying levels of exposure to

433 antibiotics. Although no significant differences was recorded between the antimicrobial  
434 resistances from the selected facilities in the Volta region, the difference in resistance pattern  
435 of the *E. coli* isolates in the different hospitals may be due to environmental factors, societal  
436 factors including and indiscriminate use of antibiotics among the general populace [22])

### 437 **4.3 Prevalence of Virulence factors genes and antibiotic resistant** 438 **genes**

439 We recognised a considerable number of the bacteria harboured the *iutA* (aerobactin  
440 acquisition), *papC* and *iha* (adhesins), *fyuA* and *irp2* (iron capture systems), *traT* genes [62,  
441 63]. In contrast to Sáez-López *et al.*, [41] study with pregnant women, the ExPEC isolates in  
442 this study showed high antimicrobial resistance as previously reported in studies in some  
443 African countries [64, 65]. In addition, the ampicillin-resistant ExPEC isolates containing  
444 *Bla<sub>TEM</sub>* gene showed a greater number of VFs in comparison with tetracycline or gentamicin  
445 resistant isolates, being highly significant for *iutA*, *irp*, *traT*, and *ihA*. Whilst our findings are  
446 similar to Sáez-López *et al.*, [41] study which evaluated *E. coli* colonizing the vagina and  
447 causing obstetric infection in pregnant women in Barcelona, it is dissimilar to Ramos *et al.*,  
448 [66] study with *E. coli* causing UTI in pregnant women in Sweden, Uganda, and Vietnam. The  
449 differences in the studies may be due to varying geographical area, host physiological changes  
450 or susceptibility to *E. coli* isolates with pathogenic islands containing VFs.

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## 455 **5.0 Conclusion**

456 In conclusion, our results demonstrate that the ability to adhere, invade and utilize the iron  
457 acquisition systems are important for antibiotic resistant ExPEC isolates that are associated  
458 with UTI in Ghanaian pregnant women. Whilst treating UTI infections in pregnant women in  
459 low income countries can be challenging due increasing resistance to first line drugs, extensive  
460 use and misuse of antibiotics [22], the appropriate empiric treatment and clinical management  
461 of pregnant women is mandatory to provide the appropriate interventions to avoid the  
462 aetiological link between maternal symptomatic or asymptomatic carriage of pathogens with  
463 obstetric infections. Considering the involvement of extra-intestinal *E. coli* in infections, our  
464 results may be helpful to develop strategies to prevent maternal and/ neonatal infections.

## 465 **Limitations**

466 One limitation of the present study is that it focused on asymptomatic infection rather  
467 symptomatic infection and included only five hospitals from different locations of a single  
468 Region in Ghana, thereby not allowing extrapolation of our results to other Regions in country  
469 or other African countries. However, this is the first study to characterize VFs gene and  
470 resistant genes in *E. coli* isolates from pregnant women in the country. Furthermore, we were  
471 unable to follow up the pregnant patients to determine outcome of treatment of asymptomatic  
472 infection on maternal and neonatal health.

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## 479 **Availability of data and materials section**

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## 485 **Consent for publication**

486 Not applicable

## 487 **Competing interests**

488 The authors declare that no competing interests exist.

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