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Antibiotic susceptibility and virulence factors in E. coli from sympatric wildlife of the Apuan Alps Regional Park (Tuscany, Italy)

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Abstract

Today a growing number of studies are focusing on antibiotic resistance in wildlife. This is due to the potential role of wild animals as reservoirs and spreaders of pathogenic and resistant bacteria. This study focused on isolating and identifying E. coli from the faeces of wild animals living in the Apuan Alps Regional Park (Tuscany, Italy) and evaluating some of their antibiotic-resistance and pathogenicity traits. Eighty-five faecal samples from different species were studied. Seventy-one E. coli were identified by MALDI-TOF MS analysis, subjected to antibiograms and PCR for the detection of antibiotic resistance genes and pathogenicity factors. The highest resistance rates were found against cephalothin (39.4%) and ampicillin (33.8%), followed by amoxicillin-clavulanic acid (15.5%), streptomycin (12.7%) and tetracycline (5.6%). Regarding resistance genes, 39.4% of the isolates were negative for all tested genes. The remaining isolates were positive for bla_{CMY-2} , sul2, strA-strB and aadA1, tet(B) and tet(A), encoding resistance to beta-lactams, trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole, streptomycin and tetracycline, respectively. With regards to virulence factors, 63.4% of the isolates were negative for all genes; 21.1% carried *astA* alone, which is associated with different pathotypes, 9.9% carried both escV and eaeA (aEPEC); single isolates (1.4%) harboured escV(aEPEC), escV associated with astA and eaeA (aEPEC), astA with stx2 and hlyA (EHEC) or astA and stx1, stx2 and hlyA (EHEC). These results show that wildlife from non-anthropized environments can be a reservoir for antibiotic-resistant microorganisms and suggest the need for a deeper knowledge on their origin and diffusion mechanisms through different ecological niches.

Keywords: wildlife; antimicrobial resistance; virulence factors; Escherichia coli

1. Introduction

 Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is currently one of the main concerns for human and animal health.¹ A wide body of knowledge demonstrates that the improper use of antimicrobials in human and especially veterinary medicine has dramatically affected the rise of antimicrobial resistant microorganisms in the environment. ^{2,3}

Over the last number of years, the number of studies focusing on AMR have increased along with studies focusing on resistant bacteria from wild animals.^{4,5} Indeed, a deeper knowledge on the role of different compartments in the maintenance and dissemination of resistance genes seems to be crucial to tackle the issue.

Most of the studies on AMR in wildlife have focused on microorganisms relevant for human health, such as *Escherichia coli*, ⁶⁻¹⁰ Enterococcus spp. ^{11,12} or Salmonella spp.. ¹³ According to Vittecoq et al.,⁵ the diversity of detected resistance mechanisms and the proportion of individual hosts carrying resistant bacteria increase with the proximity to anthropized settlements.

Currently, few studies have been carried out in Italy concerning AMR in wild animals, mammals ¹³⁻ ¹⁵, birds^{13,16,17} or both. For this reason, the aim of the present study was to investigate antimicrobial resistance and pathogenicity factors in *E. coli* isolated from wildlife ranging in Apuan Alps Regional Park, located in north-western Tuscany (Italy). The studied area extends to over 20,600 hectares and is characterized by a heterogeneous environment with hills and mountain territory. In a natural reserve, the direct impact of humans is minimum, thus a high prevalence of antimicrobial resistant bacteria could reflect the ability of these microorganisms to disseminate across environments. Here, we considered different mammal species, especially canids, to gain a deeper knowledge on the distribution of pathogenic and non-pathogenic antibiotic-resistant E. coli in a natural ecosystem.

2. Material and Methods

2.1 Faecal samples collection

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From April 2017 to October 2017, 85 faecal samples from wild animals were collected in the Apuan Alps Regional Park located in Tuscany, Central Italy. Forty-two samples belonged to wolves (*Canis lupus*); 13 to foxes (*Vulpes vulpes*); 6 to badgers (*Meles meles*); 3 to wild-boars (*Sus scrofa*); 3 to red deers (*Cervus elaphus*); 2 to roe deers (*Capreolus capreolus*); 9 to mouflons (*Ovis aries musimon*), 5 to wild goats (*Capra hircus*), and 2 to hares (*Lepus europeus*). Animals included in the study were not subjected to antibiotic treatment. No information on their health status was available.

2.2 E. coli isolation

For the isolation of *E. coli*, a non-selective pre-enrichment step was performed employing buffered peptone water (Biolife Italiana S.r.1.-Mascia Brunelli S.p.a., Milan, Italy) incubated at 37°C for 24 h. After incubation, a loopful from each broth culture was seeded on Tryptone Bile X-Glucuronide agar plates (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Milan, Italy) and incubated at 44°C for 48 h. From each plate, a variable number (from one to three) of colonies presumptively classified as glucuronidase positive, was selected for purification, streaking them on TBX agar plates. Once purified, isolates were grown on Brain and Heart Infusion broth (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Milan, Italy), incubated at 37 °C for 24 h. Sterile glycerol (20%) was then added to each broth culture and isolates were stored at -80 °C for further analysis.

2.3 E. coli identification via MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry (MS)

Isolated bacteria were identified by MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry (MS) using a standard extraction method as previously described. ¹⁸ Calibration was previously performed with a bacterial test standard (Bruker, Germany) containing extract of *E. coli* DH5 alpha. Measurements were performed with an UltrafleXtreme MALDI TOF mass spectrometer (Bruker, Germany) equipped with a 1000 Hz Nd-YAG laser (neodymium-doped yttrium aluminium garnet).

86 The mass spectra obtained from each isolate was processed with the MALDI Biotyper 3.0 software
87 package (Bruker, Germany) and results were shown as the top 10 identification matches along with

confidence scores ranging from 0.00 to 3.00. According to the criteria recommended by the manufacturer, a log(score) below 1.70 does not allow reliable identification; a log(score) between 1.70 and 1.99 allows identification at the genus level; a log(score) between 2.00 and 2.29 means highly probable identification at the genus level and probable identification at the species level; and a log(score) higher than 2.30(2.30 - 3.00) indicates highly probable identification at the species level. Analysis of each sample was performed in triplicate (3 spots for each sample).

2.4 Antibiotic susceptibility testing

Antibiotic susceptibility testing was performed by agar disk diffusion method according to European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing (EUCAST) recommendations (EUCAST Disk Diffusion Method for Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing- Version 6.0, January 2017, www.eucast.org). Isolates were revitalized on Tryptone Soy agar plates (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Milan, Italy). Bacterial suspensions with a turbidity equivalent to McFarland Standard 0.5 (approximately corresponding to 1-2*10⁸ CFU/mL) were swabbed on Mueller Hinton agar plates (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Milan, Italy) with a sterile cotton swab. Antibiotic disks containing ampicillin (AM, 10 µg), amoxicillin/clavulanic acid (AMC, 20-10 µg), cefoxitin (FOX, 30 µg), cephalothin (KF, 30 µg), cefotaxime (CTX, 30 µg), chloramphenicol (C, 30 µg), tetracycline (TE, 30 μg), trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole (SXT, 19:1; 25 μg), enrofloxacin (ENR, 10 μg), gentamicin (CN, 10 µg), streptomycin (S, 10 µg), imipenem (IPM, 10 µg), and aztreonam (ATM, 30 µg) (Kairosafe Srl, Trieste, Italy) were placed on the plates. Inhibition diameter zones, including the diameter of the 6 mm disks, were measured after incubation at 35°C for 16-20 h. Isolates were classified as resistant, intermediate and susceptible according to breakpoints provided by EUCAST or CLSI. 19,20

2.5 DNA extraction

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E. coli isolates were cultured on Tryptic Soy Agar (TSA) at 37°C for ~20 h. Template DNA was 111 isolated using a GeneMATRIX Bacterial & Yeast Genomic DNA Purification Kit (Eurx, Poland) 112 following the manufacturer instructions. 113

2.6 Detection of antibiotic resistance genes 115

The presence of genes encoding resistance to β -lactam antibiotics (*bla-TEM*; *bla-CMY2*), streptomycin 116 18 (aadA1; strA-strB), tetracycline (tetA, tetB and tetG) and sulphonamide (sul1, sul2, sul3) was assessed 20 117 ²² 118 by PCR using gene-specific primers and cycling programs according to various authors (Tab. 1). The 119 reaction mixture (25 µl) was composed as follows: 2.5 µl of Dream Tag PCR buffer, 0.12 µl of Dream 25 27 120 Taq DNA polymerase (5 U/ml, Thermo Scientific), 1.25 µl of 8 mM deoxynucleoside triphosphates ²⁹ 121 (dNTPs, Blirt, Poland), 0.8 µl of each primer (10 pmol/µl, Genomed, Poland), 1 µl of template DNA (20 ng) and 18.5 µl of water (Sigma, Poland). 122

2.7 Detection of virulence-associated genes 35 123

PCR was employed to detect the presence of 15 genes associated with E. coli virulence traits. A 38 124 39 ⁴⁰ 125 multiplex-PCR by Paton and Paton^{21,22} was used for the detection of stx1, stx2, hvlA, eaeA and saa 41 42 genes. The cycling conditions were as follows: initial denaturation at 95°C for 5 min, 10 cycles of 126 43 44 95°C for 45 s, 65°C for 45 s, 72°C for 75 s, 20 cycles of 95°C for 45 s, 62°C for 45 s, 72°C for 75 s, 45 127 46 47 128 and a final extension step at 72°C for 8 min. Detection of ecsV, ent, bfpB, invE, astA, aggR, pic, elt, 48 49 estIa and estIb was performed according to Müller et al.. 23 Thermocycling conditions were 95°C for 129 50 51 ₅₂ 130 5 min, 30 cycles of 95°C for 45 s, 62°C for 45 s, 72°C for 75 s and a final extension step at 72°C for 53 8 min. Both multiplex PCR reactions were performed in an Eppendorf Mastercycler using Dream 54 131 55 ⁵⁶ 132 Taq polymerase (Thermo Scientific). Table 2 shows the primers sequences and concentrations in the 57 58 59 133 final volume, expected amplicon sizes and associated putative pathovars.

PCR products (8 µl) were separated by electrophoresis (100 V) on 2% agarose gels and visualized by 134 ethidium bromide staining. PCR products sizes were determined by comparison with a M100-M 1000 135 bp DNA Ladder (Blirt, Poland). 136

3. Results 11 137

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14 138 3.1 Isolation and identification of E. coli via MALDI-TOF MS

Presumptive E. coli colonies were successfully obtained from 67 out of 85 faecal samples (78.8%). 139 Of the 96 isolates selected on TBX agar, 71 (74%) were identified as *E. coli* by MALDI-TOF-MS. 140

For 68 (95.8%) isolates, the identification value ranged from 2,000 to 2.299, while for 3 (4.2%) it 23 141 25 142 ranged from 1.943 to 1.989. For all isolates and for all the three replicates, the first and the second-²⁷ 143 best matches generated by Biotyper 3.0 indicated the same species (E. coli) and therefore 30 144 identification at the species level was considered as reliable. Sixty-three (74.1%) E. coli positive 32 145 faecal samples were obtained.

3.2 Antibiotic susceptibility testing 146

₃₉ 147 Thirty-two out of 71 isolates (45.1%) were susceptible to all the tested molecules. The highest resistance rates were detected for KF (39.4%) and AM (33.8%), followed by AMC (15.5%), and S 41 148 ⁴³ 149 (12.7%). Low percentages of resistance were observed for TE (5.6%), SXT (2.8%), CN (1.4%), CTX 150 (1.4%), and ENR (1.4%). All the isolates were susceptible to FOX, IPM, and C. As for ATM, one intermediate isolate was obtained (isolate 13), while the others were all susceptible. 48 151

50 152 Table 3 shows the resistance phenotypes observed among the 71 isolates. The most frequently 51 52 expressed phenotypes were those of exclusive resistance against KF (16.9%) or KF associated with 153 53 54 ₅₅ 154 AM (12.7%). Eight isolates (11.3%) showed multi-resistance, defined as resistance against three or 56 57 155 more chemotherapeutic agents. In particular, isolate 66 from a wild goat and isolate 52 from a fox 58 59 156 were resistant to 5 and 8 antibiotics, respectively. 60

3.3 Detection of antibiotic resistance genes

All E. coli isolates were subjected to end-point PCR to detect some antibiotic resistance genes. Forty-158 three out of 71 isolates (60.6%) harboured at least one of the targeted genes. All the isolates were 159 negative for *bla_{TEM}*. Although none of the observed resistance phenotypes suggested the possibility 11 160 161 for extended spectrum beta-lactamases (ESBLs) production, bla_{CMY-2} gene was surprisingly detected in 54.9% (39/71) E. coli isolates. Among these, 53.8% (21/39) showed a resistance phenotype to 162 different β-lactams (AM, KF, CTX, but never FOX), while 46.2% (18/39) did not show any resistance 18 163 20 164 phenotype against β -lactams. A percentage of 23.9% (17/71) showed resistance against at least one of the tested β -lactams, but did not harbour *bla_{CMY-2}*, the remaining 21.1% (15/71) did not show any 165 25 166 phenotypic resistance and were negative for bla_{CMY-2} . 27 167 Resistance to SXT was observed in 2/71 isolates (2.8%), both positive to sul2, while sul1 and sul3 168 were not detected. All the SXT susceptible isolates were negative for *sul1*, *sul2* and *sul3*. ₃₂ 169 Out of 71 E. coli isolates, 4 (5.6%) showed a resistance phenotype against S and tested positive for strA-strB or aadA1; conversely, 7.0% isolates (5/71) was resistant to S, but no gene coding for this 34 170 ³⁶ 171 resistance was identified. Furthermore, 1.4% isolates (1/71) was susceptible to S, and harboured both 39¹⁷² aadA1 gene and strA-strB genes. Finally, 1.4% isolates (1/71) exhibited an intermediate phenotype 41 173 against S and resulted an *aadA1* gene carrier. 43 174 With regards to TE, resistance was detected in 5.6% (4/71) isolates. No discrepancies were observed between phenotype and genotype, since *tet(B)* was detected in all resistant isolates, while *tet*(A) was 175

found in 25% of the resistant isolates (1/4). Lastly, *tet(G)* was not detected.

Table 4 shows the resistance phenotype associated with the 43 isolates harbouring at least one 11:0 178 antibiotic resistance gene.

3.4 Detection of virulence-associated genes 179

The 71 E. coli isolates were subjected to multiplex-PCR for the detection of gene encoding 59 180 60 181 pathogenicity factors. Twenty-six out of 71 isolates (36.6%) were positive for at least one gene; 25.4%

isolates (18/71) carried astA, 12.7% (9/71) escV, 11.3% (8/71) eaeA, 2.8% (2/71) hlyA and stx2, and 182 1.4% (1/71) carried stx1. Ent, bfpB, invE, aggR, pic, elt, estIa, estIb, saa were not detected. Table 5 183 shows the different gene combinations detected together with their associated pathovars. Fifteen out 184 10 185 of 71 isolates (21.1%) carried only astA (EAEC), while 9.9% isolates (7/71) presented escV together with eaeA (aEPEC); single isolates (1.4%) were instead positive to escV (aEPEC), escV associated 186 ₁₅ 187 with astA and eaeA (aEPEC), astA associated with stx2 and hlvA (EHEC) or to astA associated with stx1, stx2 and hlyA (EHEC). 17 188

20 189 4. Discussion

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As reviewed by Vittecoq et al., ⁵ several authors reported that depending on the diet, the incidence of 190 26 191 resistant strains could vary, with carnivores more prone to be colonized by resistant bacteria than herbivores. The present study took into consideration antibiotic resistance and virulence factors in E. 28 192 30 193 coli isolates from faecal samples from different animal species in Apuan Alps Regional Park (Tuscany; Italy). Most of the collected samples (64.7%) and isolates (56.3%) belonged to Canidae 194 (wolves, and foxes), while a lower number of samples belonged to other animal species. Since canids 35 195 as predators occupy the top-position on the trophic pyramid, they carry and accumulate 37 196 microorganisms from all the lower levels. Thus, the rate of antibiotic-resistance detected from these 197 42 198 animals could be considered representative of the entire ecosystem.

Globally, high percentages of resistance against KF (39.4%) and AM (33.8%) were obtained, 44 199 45 46 200 followed by AMC (15.5%), and S (12.7%). Resistance against TE, SXT, CN, CTX, and ENR was 47 48 201 much lower (5.6%, 2.8%, 1.4%, 1.4%, and 1.4%, respectively). The same situation can be observed 49 50 when considering the sole family of Canidae, with the highest rates of resistance against KF and AM 51 202 52 53 203 (47.5% and 40%, respectively), followed by AMC (20%), S (15%), TE (7.5%), SXT (5%), CTX, 54 55 204 ENR and CN (all with 2.5%). 56

57 Studies by different authors reported quite different results and highlighted overall high rates of 58 205 59 resistance against TE. Most of the European studies focusing on antimicrobial resistance in wild 60 206

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animals from natural parks were performed in Portugal. However, the comparison with other studies
seems to be difficult, due to the variability of species included in sampling plans.

In a study similar to ours, Gonçalves *et al.* ²⁴ studied a Portuguese population of Iberian wolves and isolated *E. coli* from 195 faecal samples. In contrast to our observations, they detected the highest levels of resistance against TE (30%), AM (25%), S (25%) SXT (12%) and C (5%), while resistance to AMC, FOX, and CN was lower than 1%. Considering studies looking at top predators from a natural reserve, Gonçalves *et al.* ²⁵ studied the antimicrobial resistance in *E. coli* from 30 faecal samples of Iberian lynx (*Lynx pardinus*), which is an endangered species living in Southern Spain. Among 18 recovered *E. coli* isolates, they detected high levels of resistance against TE (33%), S and nalidixic acid (28%), and SXT (22%). Taken together, these results suggest that in the Iberian natural parks there is a different distribution of resistance determinants compared to what was observed in Apuan Alps Regional Park.

Considering the Iberian Peninsula, Costa et al.⁶ in accordance with Gonçalves et al.^{24 and25}, analysing 33 220 112 E. coli from 72 faecal samples from a wide variety of different wild animals, also confirmed the 221 highest resistance rate against TE (34.8%), which was followed by AM (22.3%), S (22.3%) and SXT ₃₈ 222 (18.8%). Lower percentages of resistance were observed against AMC (7.1%), C (6.3%), CN (6.3%), CTX (1.8%) and ATM (1.8%). No resistance was detected against FOX and IPM. Remaining in 40 223 ⁴² 224 Portugal, Dias et al. ²⁶ analysing 152 E. coli from 67 faecal samples from wild ungulates, which 45²²⁵ represent the main prey for wolves, detected the highest resistance against AMC (16.45%); followed by AM (9.87%), TE (8.55%), S (4.61%) and FOX (0.66%). All isolates were susceptible to ATM, 47 226 227 CTX, C, and IPM. The reported AMC resistance rate was higher than that of AM. This is an unusual result, since resistance to AMC is usually equal to or lower than AM resistance. We also observed 228 few E. coli isolates resistant to AMC and susceptible to AM. As suggested by Dias et al., ²⁶ this 54 229 56 230 uncommon phenotype is not related to a particular resistance mechanism but is probably due to the use of EUCAST AMC cut-off value for interpretation of inhibition diameter zone (R<19 mm), instead 231 232 of that proposed by CLSI, which is lower (R<14 mm).

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> In Italy, few studies on AMR in *E. coli* from wildlife are available, and none of them focus on wolf populations. In particular, Foti *et al.*¹⁶ and more recently Botti *et al.*¹³ and Foti *et al.*¹⁷ studied antimicrobial resistance in several Enterobacteriaceae isolated from wildlife. In both their works Foti et al. $\frac{16,17}{10}$ focused on antimicrobial resistance from wild birds passing through the territory of Ustica island, Sicily (Italy) and Metaponto, Basilicata (Italy), respectively. In their first work, the authors isolated 183 strains belonging to 28 different species of the Enterobacteriaceae family, among which *E. coli* (53 strains) was identified. Despite the different animal species considered, similar to what we obtained, they reported the highest percentages of resistance against AM (42.6%), AMC (42.6%) and S (43.7%) and lower resistance rates against TE (6.6%), C (4.4%), FOX (1.2%) and SXT (0.6%). In their more recent work, Foti et al.¹⁷ analysing 121 cloacal swabs from migratory birds, isolated 122 strains belonging to 18 distinct species, none of them belonging to E. coli. They observed the highest resistance rates against amoxicillin (64.8%); AM (63.1%); rifampicin (61.5%); AMC (54.1%), while lower rates were detected for IPM (25.4%) and meropenem (6.6%). Only, Botti et al. ¹³ looked at the presence of antibiotic resistant microorganisms from a wide collection of wild animals' samples (2,713) built during the period 2002-2010 in North-Western Italy. The sampling plan included a substantial proportion of canids, all belonging to *Vulpes vulpes* (1,222), but also birds (1,101), mustelids (221), rodents (100) and ungulates (69). However, they focused on Salmonella and observed the highest resistance values against tetracvcline class.

With respect to antibiotic resistance genes, none of our isolates demonstrated a typical ESBLphenotype, which is characterized by resistance to penicillins; first, second, and third-generation cephalosporins and aztreonam. Thus, the high percentage of bla_{CMY2} positive isolates (54.9% considering all isolates and 52.5% for canids) was unexpected. Indeed, bla_{CMY2} encodes an AmpC type beta-lactamase (cephamycinase) and is the most widespread plasmid-borne β -lactamase detected from *E. coli* and *Salmonella* spp. of animal origin. ²⁷ Our result was surprising since the presence of bla_{CMY2} is associated with a broader spectrum of antimicrobial activity than those observed among the studied isolates. Indeed, isolates harbouring bla_{CMY2} were in almost all cases, AM-resistant and FOX-

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susceptible or even susceptible to all β -lactams tested. Hinthong *et al.* ²⁸ detected isolates displaying the same characteristic among non-pathogenic *E. coli* from **a** water supply in Thailand. Davis *et al.* ²⁹ demonstrated that in the absence of a selective pressure, which can be observed in natural settings where antibiotic presence is limited, microorganisms are more prone to accumulate mutations leading to dysfunctional pseudogenes (also antibiotic resistance pseudogene), which lost their ability to be expressed. In our specific case, to confirm this hypothesis, sequencing analysis of amplification products would be needed.

Regarding S antibiotic resistance genes, we detected some discrepancies between phenotypes and genotypes, since 5 resistant isolates did not harbour any of the investigated genes, one intermediate isolate harboured *aadA1*, and one susceptible isolate harboured both *aadA1* and *strA-strB*. The isolates not possessing any of these two genes but displaying a resistant-phenotype may harbour other genes mediating S resistance, or resistance could be due to chromosomal mutations altering the ribosomal binding site of S. Sunde and Norström ³⁰ observed that *aadA* genes are involved in low levels of S-resistance, while *strA-strB* genes probably confer high-level resistance to S, this could explain the intermediate phenotype. Lastly, Davis *et al.* ²⁹ observed in their study many isolates with inactive S-resistance gene, mostly *strA-strB* and *aadA2* consistent with our observation of susceptible phenotype.

The SXT and TE resistant isolates which were in a lower percentage, all presented with a consistent genotype. In particular, *sul2* was detected in the two SXT-resistant isolates from a fox, *tet(B)* in all TE resistant isolates, while *tet(A)* was detected in one out of 4 (25%) TE resistant isolates. Isolates carrying *tet* genes were all but one of canids origin. The presence of these genes among isolates from wild animals, especially predators, was also reported by Gonçalves *et al.* 31,24 , and also by Costa *et al.* 6 who considered different animal species.

Understanding the distribution of zoonotic pathogens in specific ecological niches is fundamental to evaluate the risk derived from the exposure to that specific environment. Thus, all the isolates were screened for the presence of some of the main virulence-associate genes. Most of the isolates (63.4%)

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did not present any of the tested genes, suggesting a prevalent circulation of non-pathogenic isolates. This percentage increases, if only *Canidae* samples are considered (72.5%). Moreover, 21.1% total isolates and 1.5% canid isolates presented only *astA* encoding for EAST1, a heat-stable enterotoxin. This gene was at first associated with EAEC, but was later detected in other pathotypes. The role of *astA* as marker for pathogenic *E. coli* is still unclear, as it was reported that *astA* contributes to pathogenicity only when in combination with other virulence-associated genes. ³² Eight isolates (4 of them from canids) presented an EPEC putative pathotype, since they showed the presence of *eaeA* and lacked *stx1*, *stx2*. In particular, these isolates could be ascribed to the atypical EPEC (aEPEC) group, due to the absence of *bfp* encoding the bundle encoding pilus (BFP) characteristic of typical EPEC (tEPEC). An additional isolate from a wolf presented with *escV* alone and could be attributed to the aEPEC group as well. This is in accordance with several authors reporting that while humans seem to be the only reservoir of tEPEC, aEPEC can be isolated from humans as well as from a wide variety of animals. ^{33,34} Some aEPEC strains from animals have been associated to human diseases, suggesting that animals could represent important reservoirs of zoonotic aEPEC. ³⁵ Moreover, two putative EHEC isolates were detected from a wild boar and roe deer.

5. Conclusion

The present work highlights the prevalent presence of non-pathogenic *E. coli* with antibiotic-resistant traits in faecal samples from wild animals living in a natural park with a minimum exposure to a selective pressure. The highest percentages of resistance were observed against **a** first-generation cephalosporin (cephalothin) and ampicillin, while ESBL-producers were not detected. Most of the analysed samples belonged to canids, such as wolves and foxes, top predator carnivorous species, able to acquire antibiotic resistant genes from diverse environments and disperse them across large distances. Indeed, due to the reduction of natural prey, farm animals become an important nutritional source, pushing predators towards anthropized settlements. In addition, considering their wide home range, such species may play a key role concerning AMR dynamics in natural ecosystems. On the Page 15 of 26

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2 3 4	310	other hand, species belonging to wild ungulates, especially wild boars, are frequently present near
5 6 7	311	houses and farms, meaning that they could represent an important epidemiological link between
7 8 9	312	domestic animals, humans and wildlife.
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29 30 31	319	not-for-profit sectors.
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Tab 1 Targeted resistance gene, primers sequences, annealing temperature, expected amplicon size and references

Gene	Primers (5'-3')	Annealing (°C)	Amplicon size (bp)	Reference
bla- _{TEM}	GTGGACAAAGGTACAACGAG CGGTAAAGTTCGTCACACAC	50	857	Maynard et al. (2003)
bla- _{CMY2}	GACAGCCTCTTTCTCCACA TGGACACGAAGGCTACGTA	54	1000	Kozac et al. (2009)
strA-strB	ATGGTGGACCCT AAAACTCT CGTCTAGGATCGAGACAAAG	62	891	Tamang et al. (2007)
aadA1	GTGGATGGCGGCCTGAAGCC AATGCCCAGTCGGCAGCG	65	525	Kozac et al. (2009)
tetA	GCTACATCCTGCTTGCCTTC CATAGATCGCCGTGAAGAGG	64	210	Dahshan et al. (2010)
<i>tetB</i>	TTGGTTAGGGGCAAGTTTTG GTAATGGGCCAATAACACCG	64	659	Dahshan et al. (2010)
tetG	GCTCGGTGGTATCTCTGCTC	59	468	Dahshan et al. (2010)
sull	TGGTGACGGTGTTCGGCATTC	63	789	Costa et al. (2008)
sul2	CGGCATCGTCAACATAACC	50	722	Costa et al. (2008)
sul3	GAGCAAGATTTTTGGAATCG CATCTGCAGCTAACCTAGGGTTTGG A	51	792	Costa et al. (2008)

1 Tab 2 Targeted virulence factors genes, primers sequences, primers concentrations, expected amplicon sizes, associated pathovars and references

Gana	$\mathbf{Primors}\left(5^{2},2^{2}\right)$	Concentration	Amplicon	Associated	Dafaranaa
Gene		(µM)	size (bp)	pathovars	Kelefence
escV	ATTCTGGCTCTCTTCTTCTTTATGGCTG	0.4	544		
ent	TGGGCTAAAAGAAGACACACTG CAAGCATCCTGATTATCTCACC	0.4	629	EHEC, EPEC	Müller et al. (200'
eaeA	GACCCGGCACAAGCATAAGC CCACCTGCAGCAACAAGAGG	0.3	384		Paton and Paton (1998)
bfpB	GACACCTCATTGCTGAAGTCG CCAGAACACCTCCGTTATGC	0.1	910	Typical EPEC	Müller et al. (200
stx1	ATA AAT CGC CAT TCG TTG ACT AC AGA ACG CCC ACT GAG ATC ATC		180		
stx2	GGCACTGTCTGAAACTGCTCC TCGCCAGTTATCTGACATTCTG	0.3	255	EHEC	Paton and Pator
hlyA	GCATCATCAAGCGTACGTTCC AATGAGCCAAGCTGGTTAAGCT		534		(1998)
saa	CGTGATGAACAGGCTATTGC		119		

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	ATGGACATGCCTGTGGCAAC				
in	CGATAGATGGCGAGAAATTATATCCCG VE CGATCAAGAATCCCTAACAGAAGAATCAC	0.2	766	EIEC	
as	tA ACGGCTTTGTAGTCCTTCCAT	0.4	102		
ag	gR ACGCAGAGTTGCCTGATAAAG AATACAGAATCGTCAGCATCAGC	0.2	400	EAEC	
p	AGCCGTTTCCGCAGAAGCC	0.2	1,111		Müller et al. (2007)
е	GAACAGGAGGTTTCTGCGTTAGGTG lt CTTTCAATGGCTTTTTTTGGGAGTC	0.1	655		
est	tla CCTCTTTTAGYCAGACARCTGAATCASTTG CAGGCAGGATTACAACAAAGTTCACAG	0.4	157	ETEC	
est	TGTCTTTTTCACCTTTCGCTC tlb CGGTACAAGCAGGATTACAACAC	0.2	171	r Dis	×
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Resistance phenotypes	Number of isolates	Percentage of isolates (%)
Susceptible to all tested molecules	32	45.1
KF	12	16.9
AM-KF	9	12.7
AM-AMC	4	5.6
AM-S	2	2.8
AMC	2	2.8
AM-AMC-KF-S	1	1.4
AM-AMC-KF	1	1.4
AM	1	1.4
S	1	1.4
AM-AMC-TE	1	1.4
AM-KF-CTX-S	1	1.4
AM-KF-SXT-S	1	1.4
AM-KF-TE-S	1	1.4
AM-AMC-KF-TE-S	1	1.4
AM-AMC-KF-TE-SXT-ENR-CN-S	1	1.4
Resistant to all tested molecules	0	0

Tab 3 Resistance phenotypes (number and percentage of detection) observed among the 71 E. coli isolates from wildlife

AM: amoxicillin; AMC: amoxicillin+clavulanic acid; KF: cephalothin; CTX: cefotaxime; TE: tetracycline; SXT: trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole; ENR: enrofloxacin; CN: gentamicin; S: streptomycin.

Tab 4 Resistance	phenotypes,	resistance	genotypes,	virulence	genes	and	putative	associated
pathovars in 52 isola	ates harbouring	ng at least c	one resistance	e or viruler	nce gen	e.		

			5				
ab 4 Resistance phenotypes, resistance genotypes, virulence genes and putative associanthovars in 52 isolates harbouring at least one resistance or virulence gene.							
Isolate ID	Animal	Resistance	Resistance genotype	Virulence	Putative		
	species	phenotype		associated	pathovar		
				genes			
Al	wolf	AM-AMC-	bla _{CMY-2}	-	-		
		KF					
A3	wolf	AM-KF	bla _{CMY-2}	astA	VARIOU		
A5a	wolf	AMC	bla _{CMY-2}	astA	VARIOU		
A5b	wolf	KF	bla _{CMY-2}	astA	VARIOU		
A6b1	wolf	AM-KF	bla_{CMY-2}	-			
A6b2	wolf	KF	bla _{CMY-2}	-			
A9b	wolf	AM-S	bla _{CMY-2}	astA	VARIOU		
A10b	wolf	AM-KF	bla _{CMY-2}	-			
1a	wolf	AM-KF- CTX-S	bla _{CMY-2}	-			
3	badger	AM-AMC-	bla _{CMY-2}	-			
4	a	KF-S					
4	moution	-	bla _{CMY-2}	-			
5a	badger	-	bla _{CMY-2}	-			
56	badger	-	bla _{CMY-2}	escV-eaeA	aEPEC		
6a	moution	KF	bla _{CMY-2}	escV-eaeA	aEPEC		
10a	fox	8	bla _{CMY-2}	-			
11	badger	-	bla _{CMY-2}	-			
12a	wolf	AM-AMC	bla _{CMY-2}	-			
126	wolf	AM-KF	bla _{CMY-2}	-			
12c	wolf	KF	bla _{CMY-2}				
13	wolf	-	bla _{CMY-2}	J.			
14	wolf	AM-AMC	bla _{CMY-2}				
19	wild boar	AM-AMC	bla _{CMY-2}	astA-escV-	aEPEC		
20				eaeA			
20a	badger	-	bla _{CMY-2}	-			
206	badger	-	bla _{CMY-2}	-			
21a	badger	-	bla _{CMY-2}	astA	VARIOU		
22a	wild boar	-	bla _{CMY-2}	astA-stx1-	EHEC		
	~			stx2-hlyA			
24a	mouflon	-	bla _{CMY-2}	-			
25a	mouflon	-	bla_{CMY-2}	-			

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 25c	mouflon	AM-KF	bla _{CMY-2}	astA	VARIOUS
33a	wolf	-	bla _{CMY-2}	-	
34a	fox	AM-AMC-	bla _{CMY-2} -aadA1-tet(B)	-	
		TE			
35a	wild boar	AM-S	bla _{CMY-2}	astA	VARIOUS
36a	wolf	-	-	escV-eaeA	aEPEC
37a	wild goat	-	bla_{CMY-2}	-	
40	mouflon	-	bla_{CMY-2}	escV-eaeA	aEPEC
43	wolf	KF	bla_{CMY-2}	escV	aEPEC
46	wild goat	-	-	astA	VARIOUS
47	wild goat	-	bla _{CMY-2}	astA	VARIOUS
49	fox	-	bla _{CMY-2} -strA/strB-aadA1	astA	VARIOUS
50	fox	AM-KF-	strA/strB-sul2	astA	VARIOUS
		SXT-S			
52	fox	AM-AMC-	strA/strB-tet(A)-tet(B)-sul2	-	
		KF-TE-SXT-			
		ENR-CN-S			
54	wolf	AM-KF-TE-S	strA/strB-tet(B)	-	
58	hare	-		astA	VARIOUS
59	wolf	-	bla _{CMY-2}	escV-eaeA	aEPEC
61	wolf	AMC	bla _{CMY-2}	-	
63	fox	-	<u> </u>	escV-eaeA	aEPEC
64	wolf	-	- 6	escV-eaeA	aEPEC
66	wild goat	AM-AMC-	strA/strB-tet(B)	-	
		KF-TE-S			
68	red deer	-	-	astA	VARIOUS
72	hare	-	-	astA	VARIOUS
73	roe deer	-	-	astA-stx2-	EHEC
				hlyA	
 74	red deer	-	-	astA	VARIOUS

AM: amoxicillin; AMC: amoxicillin+clavulanic acid; KF: cephalothin; CTX: cefotaxime; TE: tetracycline; SXT: trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole; ENR: enrofloxacin; CN: gentamicin; S: streptomycin

Tab 5 Virulence gene combinations (number and percentage of isolates) and associated putative pathovars detected among 71 *E. coli* isolates from wildlife.

combination No genes detected astA		\mathcal{C}	1 diddi i C
No genes detected		(%)	pathovars
astA	45	63.4	-
	15	21.1	VARIOUS
escV - eaeA	7	9.9	aEPEC
escV	1	1.4	aEPEC
astA - escV - eaeA	1	1.4	aEPEC
astA - stx2 - hlyA	1	1.4	EHEC
ıstA - stx1 - stx2 - hlyA	• 1	1.4	EHEC