Drug Resistance and Biochemical Characteristics of Salmonella from Turkeys

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ABSTRACT

A study was conducted to determine the antibiotic resistance and biochemical characteristics of 2690 Salmonella strains belonging to 52 serovars and isolated from environmental and feed samples from 270 turkey flocks in Canada. Resistance of the Salmonella strains to the aminoglycoside antibiotics varied widely; none of the strains were resistant to amikacin, 14.2% were resistant to neomycin, 25.8% were resistant to gentamicin, and 27.7% of the strains were resistant to kanamycin. Most strains (97.6%) were resistant to the aminocyclitol, spectinomycin. Regarding resistance to the ,B-lactam antibiotics, 14.3% and 14.4% of the strains were resistant to ampicillin and carbenicillin, respectively, whereas only 5 (0.2%) of the strains were resistant to cephalothin. None of the strains were resistant to the fluoroquinolone ciprofloxacin or to polymyxin B. Resistance to chloramphenicol and nitrofurantoin was found in 2.4% and 7% of the strains, respectively. Only 1.7% of the strains were resistant to the trimethoprimsulfamethoxazole combination, whereas 58.1% were resistant to sulfisoxazole. Thirty-eight percent of the strains were resistant to tetracycline. Salmonella serovars differed markedly in their drug resistance profiles. Biochemical characterization of the Salmonella showed that the S. anatum, S. saintpaul and S. reading serovars could be divided into distinct biotypes.

Salmonella appartenant à 52 sérovars provenant d'echantillons de nourriture et de l'environnement chez 270 troupeaux canadiens de dinde ont été déterminés. La résistance des isolats aux aminoglycosides était très variable; aucun des isolats n'était résistant à l'amikacine. 14,2 % étaient résistants à la néomycine, 25,8 % étaient résistants à la gentamicine et 27,7 % résistants la kanamycine. La résistance à la spectinomycine était élevée avec 97,6 % des isolats résistants. En ce qui concerne la résistance aux antibiotiques de la famille des β -lactamines, 14,3 % et 14,4 % des isolats étaient respectivement résistants à l'ampicilline et la carbénicilline, alors que seulement cinq $(0,2, \%)$ des isolats étaient résistants à la céphalotine. Aucune résistance au ciprofloxacin et à la polymyxine B n'a été observée. Pour le chloramphénicol 2,4 %, et pour le nitrofurantoin ⁷ % des isolats étaient résistants. Seulement 1,7 % des isolats etaient resistants ^a la combinaison trimethoprimesulfaméthoxazole, alors que 58,1 % des isolats étaient résistants au sulfisoxazole. Pour la tetracycline, ³⁸ % des isolats etaient resistants. Les sérovars de Salmonella differaient grandement dans leur patron de resistance aux antibiotiques. La caractérisation biochimique des isolats a permis de demontrer que les sérovars S. anatum, S. saintpaul et S. reading pouvaient être séparés en biotypes distincts.

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RESUME

Le patron de résistance aux antibiotiques et les caractéristiques biochimiques de 2,690 isolats de

INTRODUCTION

The emergence of drug-resistant pathogens is often the result of the use of antimicrobial agents in animals and

humans (1,2,3). The occurrence and proliferation of antibiotic-resistant Salmonella in environmental samples, poultry, and other animals and humans may be due to the use of medicated feeds (1,4,5), the practice of dipping hatching eggs in solutions containing antimicrobial agents (6,7,8), routine inoculation of day-old poults with antibiotics (6,7,8), and treatment of other animals (9) and humans (1) with antibiotics. Such practices often lead to the excretion of (4,5), and sometimes illness (1) due to, drug-resistant Salmonella in animals and humans. In animals, studies on the prevalence of drug-resistant Salmonella are carried out to monitor and improve management and husbandry practices, to promote and ensure the production of feeds, foods, and milk, free of antibiotics and drugresistant Salmonella (1,9), to decrease threats to the health of the consumer, and to further international trade. In human patients ill with Salmonella, isolation of the organism, determination of its serovar and drug resistance pattern, and clinical assessment is often carried out to decide whether treatment for salmonellosis is appropriate (10,11) and which drug should be administered (12,13). The severity and prognosis of clinical salmonellosis may depend on the Salmonella serovar (14,15), whether or not the Salmonella is a host-specific serovar $(14,16,17)$, the phagetype of the Salmonella serovar (18,19), host factors (20), and in some cases prior antimicrobial exposure (21).

Antibiotic resistance in Salmonella, Escherichia coli, Shigella, and other genera of the Enterobacteriaceae is often mediated by plasmids, some of which are self-transmissible (4,5,7,22, 23,24), whereas others may be cotransferred by conjugative plasmids (23,24,25). Bacteria of the genus

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TABLE I. Number and percentage (%) of Salmonella strains of each serovar examined for drug resistance and biotype

Serovar	Total	%	Serovar	Total	%
Anatum	379	14.09	Rough O: b: x ^a	10	0.37
Hadar	344	12.97	Montevideo	8	0.30
Agona	341	12.68	Tennessee	8	0.30
Heidelberg	291	10.82	Worthington	7	0.26
Saintpaul	248	9.22	Brandenburg	6	0.22
Muenster	130	4.83	Kottbus	6	0.22
Schwarzengrund	95	3.53	Ohio	6	0.22
Senftenberg	95	3.53	Haardt	5	0.19
Bredeney	89	3.31	Sandiego	5	0.19
Anatum var. $15+$	87	3.23	Rough $O: e,h: 6$	4	0.15
Reading	74	2.75	Kiambu		0.11
Indiana	68	2.53	Muenchen	$\frac{3}{3}$	0.11
Kentucky	65	2.42	Orion var. $15 + 0.34 +$	$\frac{3}{3}$	0.11
Typhimurium	59	2.19	Rough O: z_{10} : x		0.11
Mbandaka	36	1.34	Group E_1	$\overline{\mathbf{c}}$	0.07
Broughton	32	1.19	Johannesburg	$\overline{\mathbf{c}}$	0.07
Albany	25	0.93	Litchfield	$\overline{\mathbf{c}}$	0.07
Infantis	19	0.71	Rough O: e,h: 2	$\overline{\mathbf{c}}$	0.07
Typhimurium var. Cop.	17	0.63	Oranienburg	\overline{c}	0.07
Give	16	0.59	Bareilly		0.04
London	16	0.59	Borreze		0.04
Meleagridis	16	0.59	Derby		0.04
Braenderup	15	0.56	Give var. $15+$		0.04
Havana	15	0.56	Livingstone		0.04
Berta	12	0.45	Subspp. IIIa		0.04
Rough O: i: z_6	12	0.45	Taksony		0.04

¹ The rough O strains lacked the somatic antigen-determining distal O-specific side-chain of the lipopolysaccharide (LPS)

Salmonella are among those most often found to carry plasmids that encode drug resistance (R plasmids). Use of a single antibiotic may cause an increase in the frequency of bacteria resistant to other antibiotics because the R plasmid may encode resistance to additional antibiotics (6).

Determination of antibiotic resistance, serovar, plasmid profile, phagetype, and/or biotype of Salmonella isolates from the environment, feeds, poultry (24,26), horses (25,27), cattle (28,29), pigs (30), other animals, foods (1,31), humans (23,32), and other sources may assist in tracing the resistant bacteria to the source of acquisition of the antibiotic resistance genes (1,3,8). The usefulness of biotyping in studying epidemiological aspects of prevalence of Salmonella and salmonellosis has previously been shown for S. typhimurium (33,34,35), S. enteritidis (35), S. paratyphi B, and other Salmonella serovars (36).

Turkeys are ^a common source of Salmonella infection for the consumer. The isolation rates of Salmonella from turkeys and their environment are often higher than those from chickens and broilers (37,38,39,40). In addition, improper food handling and preparation practices (perhaps

related to the larger size of turkeys and insufficient cooking of the turkeys before consumption)(41), may increase the risk of human infection.

During 1990 and 1991, a large number of Salmonella strains were isolated in a survey to estimate the prevalence of Salmonella among Canadian commercial turkey flocks. Data with respect to the prevalence of Salmonella among turkey flocks and the isolation rates of Salmonella from environmental samples were reported (40). The most prevalent serovars were S. anatum, S. hadar, S. agona, S. heidelberg and S. saintpaul which were isolated from 19.6% , 18.1% , 18.1%, 15.6%, and 12.6% of the flock premises, respectively (40). The purpose of the present study was to determine the frequency and patterns of antibiotic resistance and the biochemical characteristics of these Salmonella isolates.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

BACTERIAL STRAINS

The 2690 Salmonella strains examined for antibiotic resistance and biotype belonged to 52 serovars and were isolated from litter, dust, and feed samples of 270 turkey flocks during a national survey to estimate the prevalence of Salmonella among Canadian turkey flocks (40). The total number and percentage of each Salmonella serovar examined for drug resistance and biotype are listed in Table I.

SEROTYPING

For serotyping, the somatic (0) antigens of Salmonella isolates were determined with slide agglutination tests as described by Ewing (42), whereas the flagellar (H) antigens were identified by a microtechnique utilizing microtiter plates (43). The antigenic formulae of Salmonella serovars as listed by Le Minor and Popoff (44) were used to name the serovars.

RESISTANCE TO ANTIMICROBIAL AGENTS

Antibiotic-susceptibility tests were determined with the Cathra Replicator (45) (Automed, Shoreview, Minnesota) using agar plates (Automed) containing the following drugs: amikacin (Amk) and kanamycin (Kan) both at 16, 32, and 64 μ g/mL; ampicillin (Amp) at 2, 16, and 64 μ g/mL; carbenicillin (Car) at 32, 128, and 256 μ g/mL; cephalothin (Clt) at 8, 16, and $256 \mu g/mL$; chloramphenicol (Chl) at 8, 16, and 64 μ g/mL; ciprofloxacin (Cip) at 1 and 2 μ g/mL; cotrimoxazole (trimethoprim/ sulfamethoxazole) (Cot) at 0.5/9.5, $2/38$, and $8/152 \mu g/mL$; gentamicin (Gen), and neomycin (Neo) at 4, 8, and 16 μ g/mL; nitrofurantoin (Nit) at 64 μ g/mL; polymyxin B (Pol) at 2, 8, and 16 μ g/mL; spectinomycin (Spc) at 16 μ g/mL; sulfisoxazole (Sul) at 256 µg/mL ; and tetracycline (Tet) at 2, 8, and 128 μ g/mL. The concentrations of antimicrobial agents and interpretation of sensitivity, intermediate sensitivity, and resistance of the strains were those suggested by the National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards (NCCLS) (46) and discussed by Prescott and Baggot (47).

BIOTYPING

Thirty biochemical reactions were performed on each isolate by using Gram-Negative Identification (GNI) cards and the automated microbial identification system of bioMérieux-Vitek, Hazelwood, MO.

RESULTS

RESISTANCE TO ANTIMICROBIAL AGENTS

The numbers of the 2690 Salmonella strains that were sensitive, intermediately sensitive, or resistant to the antimicrobial agents employed, are shown in Table II. All strains were sensitive to the antimicrobial effects of amikacin, ciprofloxacin, and polymyxin B. Only 5 strains (0.2%) were resistant to the antimicrobial effect of the cephalosporin cephalothin. A high percentage of the 2960 Salmonella strains (97.6% or 2626 strains) grew on agar plates containing $16 \mu g/mL$ spectinomycin.

Resistance of strains of the individual Salmonella serovars to antimicrobial agents other than amikacin, ciprofloxacin, polymyxin B, and spectinomycin are shown in Table III. Only resistance to the highest levels of drugs employed are shown. Threehundred-and-eighty-six (14.3%) and 388 (14.4%) of the 2690 strains were resistant to the β -lactam antibiotics ampicillin and carbenicillin, respectively. As expected, because both antibiotics are derivatives of 6-amino penicillanic acid, there was almost total agreement in resistances of Salmonella serovars to the effect of ampicillin and carbenicillin. Salmonella reading and S. heidelberg strains were most often resistant to ampicillin and carbenicillin, with resistance of 58.1% and 53.6% of the strains, respectively.

Sixty-six (2.4%) of the Salmonella strains were resistant to the antimicrobial effects of chloramphenicol; the most common resistant serovars were S. kentucky (41.5%), and S. havana (40.0%). Examination of records showed that 60 of the 66 chloramphenicol resistant isolates were recovered from only 8 flocks. All 15 S. reading isolates from ¹ flock were resistant to chloramphenicol. Only 46 (1.7%) of the 2690 Salmonella strains were resistant to the antimicrobial effect of cotrimoxazole. Strains of S. hadar were the most often resistant, with 7.0% of these strains growing on agar plates containing $8/152 \mu g/mL$ of trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole (cotrimoxazole).

Comparison of amikacin with the other aminoglycosides neomycin, gentamicin, and kanamycin showed that

Antimicrobial agent: Amk = Amikacin; Amp = Ampicillin; Car = Carbenicillin; Chl = Cephalothin; Cip = Ciprofloxacin; Chl = Chloramphenicol; Cot = Cotrimoxazole; Gen = Gentamicin; Kan = Kanamycin; Neo = Neomycin; Nit = Nitrofurantoin; Pol = PolymyxinB; Spc = Spectinomycin; $Sul = Sulfisoxazole$; Tet = Tetracycline

 Δ S/I/R = Sensitive/Intermediate sensitive/Resistant

 c Conc. = Concentration

^d Number of 2690 strains that were sensitive, intermediate sensitive, or resistant at the concentration of antibiotic employed

 $\log \theta$ = Percentage

amikacin more markedly inhibited growth of the Salmonella strains. None of the strains were resistant to amikacin as compared to 383 (14.2%) strains interpreted as resistant to neomycin, 694 (25.8%) resistant to gentamicin and 746 of 2690 (27.7%) strains resistant to kanamycin (Table II). Of the 25 most prevalent serovars, S. give isolates were the most often resistant to the antimicrobial effects of gentamicin (100%) followed by S. bredeney (88.8%), and S. saintpaul (66.9%) (Table III). Salmonella saintpaul strains were the most commonly resistant to the antimicrobial effects of kanamycin (73.0%), followed by S. bredeney (71.9%), S. indiana (63.2%) and S. mbandaka (55.6%). The most commonly neomycin-resistant serovar was S. mbandaka (55.6%) followed by S. indiana (42.6%).

Resistance to the antimicrobial effect of high concentrations of nitrofurantoin was uncommon (Table II). Isolates of S. indiana were the most

frequently resistant (26.5%), followed by S. hadar (17.2%) and S. kentucky (16.9%) (Table III). A high percentage of isolates from many serovars were resistant to sulfisoxazole. Among the 25 most frequently occurring serovars, all strains of S. give, S. london and S. meleagridis were resistant to sulfisoxazole. Other serovars with a high frequency of resistance were S. infantis (89.5%), S. bredeney (85.4%), S. anatum (85.2%), S. broughton (84.4%), S. saintpaul (75.8%), S. havana (73.3%), S. heidelberg (72.5%), and S. indiana (72.1%). Salmonella london, S. heidelberg, and S. saintpaul strains were the most commonly resistant to tetracycline, since 93.8%, 80.8%, and 77.0% of the strains were resistant, respectively.

Resistance to sulfisoxazole and tetracycline was the most common combination of drug resistances found in S. anatum strains (74 strains; 19.5%) (Table IV). Resistance to ampicillin and carbenicillin together,

Table III. Resistance of Salmonella isolates to selected antimicrobial agents

^a Total number of strains of each serovar

^b Number of strains that were resistant

or in conjunction with resistance to neomycin, mostly in conjunction with tetracycline was low when compared other antibiotics, was found in 56 resistance to sulfisoxazole and/or with other frequently isolated serovars (14.8%) of S. anatum strains; 37 tetracycline. Resistance to kanamycin such as S. anatum, S. agona, S. heidel-
 (9.8%) of these combinations con- and neomycin together or in combina- berg and S. saintpaul (Table III). sisted of resistance to ampicillin, tion with other drug resistances was most common combination of drug carbenicillin, sulfisoxazole, and tetra- found in 43 (11.3%) S. anatum resistance in S. hadar was to kanacycline. Sixteen (4.2%) S. anatum strains.
strains were resistant to the aminogly-
The percentage of S. hadar strains (76 strains; 22.1%), or in combination strains were resistant to the aminogly-
cosides gentamicin, kanamycin, and resistant to ampicillin, carbenicillin and with other drug resistances (48 strains; cosides gentamicin, kanamycin, and resistant to ampicillin, carbenicillin and

resistance to sulfisoxazole and/or with other frequently isolated serovars tetracycline. Resistance to kanamycin such as S. anatum, S. agona, S. heideland neomycin together or in combina- berg and S. saintpaul (Table III). The tion with other drug resistances was most common combination of drug found in 43 (11.3%) S. anatum resistance in S. hadar was to kana-
strains. mycin and neomycin, either together

Antibiotic resistances; A = ampicillin, C = carbenicillin, Clt = cephalothin, Chl = chloramphenicol, Cot = cotrimoxazole, G = gentamicin, K = kanamycin, $N =$ neomycin, N it = nitrofurant $\sin S =$ sulfisoxazole, $T =$ tetracycline

^b Number of strains resistant to the antimicrobial agents

TABLE V. Biochemical tests performed to determine biotype

14.0%) (Table III and IV). Salmonella agona strains were commonly resistant to both gentamicin and sulfisoxazole (14.7% of the strains), and to ampicillin and carbenicillin both together and in combination with resistance to other antibiotics (18.8%). Salmonella heidelberg strains were resistant to a wide variety of combinations of antibiotics; resistance to ampicillin, carbenicillin, sulfisoxazole, and tetracycline occurred in 92 strains (31.6%). Salmonella saintpaul strains were commonly resistant to the antibiotics gentamicin, kanamycin, sulfisoxazole, and tetracycline (41.9%). Other frequently resistant serovars were S. bredeney, of which 68.5% of the strains were resistant to gentamicin, kanamycin, and sulfisoxazole, and S. indiana, of which 92.6% of strains were resistant to a wide variety of combinations of 2 to 8 antimicrobial agents (Tables III, IV).

BIOTYPING

Results of biochemical reactions enabled grouping of the Salmonella strains into numerous biotypes. The 7 most common biotypes (A-G), representing 2549 of the total of 2690 strains, are presented in Table V in order of frequency, with biotype A being the most prevalent. A total of 1825 strains belonged to biotype A, 395 to biotype B, 163 to biotype C, 82 to biotype D, 32 to biotype E, 27 to biotype F and 25 strains belonged to biotype G. Differences in biotype could in some cases be related to the serovar to which the strains belonged. A notable example is S. anatum, of which 303 of 379 strains (79.9%) belonged to biotype B. Also, 89.7% of S. anatum var 15+ strains belonged to biotype B. The S. saintpaul strains could be subdivided into 2 large groups: 53.6% belonged to biotype C (inositol fermenters), whereas 41.5% belonged to biotype A. Salmonella reading could also be grouped into 2 major groups: 75.7% were of biotype A, and 24.3% of biotype D (no production of hydrogen sulfide). No associations between biotype and resistance to antimicrobial agents were observed.

DISCUSSION

This study determined the frequency and type of resistance to antimicrobial agents, and the biochemical properties of 2690 Salmonella strains isolated from turkeys and their environment. A large number of strains were resistant to ¹ or more antimicrobial agents. Drug resistance occurred at high frequency against spectinomycin, sulfisoxazole, tetracycline, the aminoglycosides gentamicin, kanamycin, and neomycin, and the β -lactams ampicillin and carbenicillin. The different Salmonella serovars varied widely in number of resistant strains of a particular serovar and in type of drug resistance.

The large number of gentamicinresistant Salmonella strains is likely the result of practices such as dipping hatching eggs into gentamicin sulfate by turkey breeders to prevent mycoplasmosis (6,7,8,29) caused by Mycoplasma synoviae, M. gallinarum, and M. iowae (48), and the injecting of day-old poults with gentamicin, spectinomycin, and norfloxacin as preventative measures against E. coli and other infections. Resistance of Salmonella to gentamicin in this study (25.8%) was slightly lower than the percentage of gentamicin-resistant Salmonella isolates (28.0%) from turkeys reported by Blackburn et al. (29) in the U.S. in 1984. Apparently enrofloxacin, one of the fluoroquinolones, has largely replaced gentamicin in egg dipping practices over the past 4-5 y. In 1990-1991, however, when the isolates were obtained, some operations may still have been using gentamicin. Resistance to one of the aminoglycosides may result in cross-resistance to other aminoglycosides because the R plasmid-specified enzymes, broadly classified as phosphotransferases, acetyltransferases, and adenyltransferases, often affect more than ¹ of the aminoglycosides (47). This may explain the common occurrence of combined resistance against 2 or 3 of the drugs in this family.

Despite the likely use of enrofloxacin for dipping eggs, or for injecting day-old poults, resistance of Salmonella to ciprofloxacin, another fluoroquinolone, was not found in this study. This observation is of importance to public health because ciprofloxacin is used increasingly in

human patients for treatment of acute or extra-intestinal tract salmonellosis, for elimination of the excretion of Salmonella in the feces, and for treatment of infections caused by Escherichia coli, other Enterobacteriaceae, and other pathogens including Mycobacterium spp., and Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Treatment of human Salmonella infections using ciprofloxacin has met with considerable success (12,49). However, resistance of Salmonella to the fluorquinolones, and the inability of enrofloxacin or ciprofloxacin to completely curtail excretion of Salmonella, has been reported in poultry as well as in humans (13,50,51).

Widespread natural resistance against spectinomycin has been reported (47) and may explain the high percentage of spectinomycin resistant strains observed in the present study. Furazolidone, sulfonamides, β -lactamases, tetracyclines, neomycin, and spectinomycin have all been used in the treatment of poults and turkeys infected with S. arizonae, in acute outbreaks of paratyphoid and other infections, and for the prevention of such infections in turkeys, any of which may account for the drug resistances noted in the present study. Although the use of chloramphenicol in food-producing animals has been prohibited for more than 10 y in Canada, there was a small number of flocks from which high numbers of chloramphenicol-resistant Salmonella were isolated.

Biotyping of the Salmonella isolates showed that tests with 2 substrates, xylose and inositol, which provided the most discrimination of strains of $S.$ typhimurium in the scheme of Duguid et al. (33,36), also distinguished S. anatum and S. anatum var $15+$ strains (which were 80-90% xylose oxidation negative), and divided the S. saintpaul strains into 2 major groups of inositol fermenters and nonfermenters. It is interesting to note that almost 25% of the S. reading did not produce hydrogen sulfide. In recent years, we have observed an increasing number of Salmonella heidelberg strains isolated from turkeys or their environment that also do not produce hydrogen sulfide.

In summary, the main findings of this study are as follows: i) none of the strains were resistant to the

antimicrobial effects of amikacin, ciprofloxacin, or polymyxin B; ii) resistance to the antimicrobial effects of cephalothin, chloramphenicol, cotrimoxazole, and nitrofurantoin was low; iii) a considerable number of strains were resistant to ampicillin, carbenicillin, tetracycline, gentamicin, kanamycin, neomycin, or sulfisoxazole; iv) a high percentage of strains were resistant to spectinomycin; v) Salmonella serovars differed markedly in their drug resistance profiles; and vi) biotyping showed that the S. anatum, S. saintpaul, and S. reading serovars could be divided into distinct biotypes.

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