Comparison of Virulence Factors and R Plasmids of Salmonella spp. Isolated from Healthy and Ill Swine

KAREN W. SIMMONS, RICHARD E. WOOLEY,* AND JOHN BROWN

Department of Medical Microbiology, College of Veterinary Medicine, University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia 30602

Received 14 September 1987/Accepted 19 December 1987

The antibiotic resistances and virulence profiles of Salmonella spp. isolated from healthy (group 1) and ill (group 2) swine were compared. Parameters studied included colicin and siderophore production; mannosesensitive hemagglutination of erythrocytes; resistance to the lethal effect of serum complement; resistance to antibiotics; and the transmissibility of these characteristics to recipient organisms. Group ¹ (19 isolates) had 14 serotypes, and group 2 (20 isolates) had 2 serotypes. Isolates from group 2 were resistant to more antibiotics and had ^a greater ability to hemagglutinate erythrocytes and transfer R plasmids to recipient organisms, but a lesser ability to produce siderophore than group 1. All 39 isolates resisted the lethal effects of serum complement. Colicin was produced by ¹ of ¹⁹ from group ¹ and ⁰ of 20 from group 2. A donor Escherichia coli isolated from a pig with enteritis transferred R plasmids to 62% of group 1 and 0% of group 2 Salmonella spp. when they were used as recipient organisms. A transconjugant from the mating of donor E. coli to a group 1 Salmonella spp. was further able to pass an R plasmid to recipient E. coli and salmonellae. Plasmid isolation from group ¹ yielded ¹ of 19 strains with a 56-megadalton plasmid, while 20 of 20 strains from group 2 contained three to five plasmids from 2.4 to 60 megadaltons in size.

Salmonellosis, a major disease of swine, is one of the most economically important of the enteric and septicemic diseases affecting young pigs up to 4 months of age. Traditionally, Salmonella choleraesuis has been considered not only the most common but also the most important of the salmonellae producing clinical disease in swine (28). Enteric salmonellosis can also be caused by S . typhimurium, and the organism has been reported to be an endemic cause of diarrheic disease in swine (28). While S. choleraesuis and S. typhimurium are most often associated with clinical illness in swine, other Salmonella species, including S. heidelberg, S. anatum, S. dublin, S. derby, and S. enteritidis, have been isolated (10, 21, 27).

Distinct from yet related to clinical illness caused by Salmonella spp. is the occurrence of salmonellae in asymptomatic swine destined for slaughter. A number of Salmonella serotypes have been isolated at slaughter from the mesenteric lymph nodes of apparently healthy swine (13). The public health implications of this Salmonella reservoir in swine are clear, since almost one-half of the serotypes were also isolated from human salmonellosis outbreaks (4). Therefore, Salmonella serotypes in swine are of concern not only because of their disease-causing potential for swine, but also because of their public health significance for humans.

Salmonella virulence factors may contribute to the establishment of disease in a host. These factors include adhesion pili (15), colicin (bacteriocin) production (9), siderophore (enterobactin) production (30), and the ability to resist the lethal effects of serum complement (19). Also of significance is the organism's ability to resist antimicrobial agents and its ability to pass this trait on to other bacteria via R plasmids.

While much information is available about serotypes isolated from healthy swine (27), specific virulence factors and transferable (R) plasmids from these isolates have not been characterized. Therefore, this study was undertaken to characterize the virulence factors and R plasmids of salmoMATERIALS AND METHODS

nellae isolated from healthy swine and compare them with

Organisms. Nineteen Salmonella strains (group 1) were isolated over a 6-month period from 166 healthy swine that had passed anti- and postmortem inspections at a U.S. Department of Agriculture-inspected abattoir. Samples containing five to seven mesenteric lymph nodes were collected from the area of the large intestine of each carcass and frozen until processed for Salmonella isolation (13). Twenty Salmonella strains (group 2) isolated from clinically ill swine with enteritis were supplied by the Athens Diagnostic Assistance Laboratory. These isolates were also collected over a 6-month period from separate outbreaks of swine salmonellosis.

Mating recipients used in the study included Escherichia coli 1932 (29), E. coli LM-835 (Centers for Disease Control, Atlanta, Ga.), and Salmonella typhimurium 475 (Centers for Disease Control). Recipients were susceptible to the action of polymyxin B, chloramphenicol, streptomycin, kanamycin, tetracycline, sulfonamides, gentamicin, and ampicillin, but resistant to penicillin and nalidixic acid. E. coli 13515, a mating donor, was isolated from swine with enteritis and supplied by the Athens Diagnostic Assistance Laboratory. It was resistant to tetracycline, sulfonamides, streptomycin, polymyxin B, kanamycin, ampicillin, and gentamicin and susceptible to the action of chloramphenicol and nalidixic acid. E. coli V-517 was used as a source of reference plasmids (16).

Serological typing. Salmonella isolates were typed by Charles F. Smyser, Department of Veterinary and Animal Sciences, University of Massachusetts at Amherst, Amherst, Mass.

Media. Bacterial strains were maintained in brain-heart infusion broth (BHI) (Difco Laboratories, Detroit, Mich.). Bacteria were mated in PenAssay broth, pH 7.6 (antibiotic medium No. 3; Difco). Transconjugants from most bacterial matings were selected on MacConkey agar with donor- and

Salmonella strains isolated from clinically ill pigs.

^{*} Corresponding author.

recipient-inhibiting concentrations of antibiotics. Transconjugants from matings of E. coli 13515 (donor) to Salmonella isolates (recipients) were selected on plates containing brilliant green agar (Difco) (5.8 g/100 ml) and selenite broth powder (Difco) (2.3 g/100 ml) plus a recipient (Salmonella) inhibiting concentration of antibiotic. This selective medium suppressed the growth of E. coli while allowing Salmonella transconjugants to grow as large brown colonies after 24 h of incubation at 37°C.

Antibiotic sensitivity tests. The disk diffusion method (3) was used to test for sensitivity for nalidixic acid, polymyxin B, chloramphenicol, streptomycin, kanamycin, tetracycline, sulfisoxazole, ampicillin, and gentamicin.

Colicin tests. Colicin production was tested by overlaying chloroform-killed colonies of the test organisms with a colicin-sensitive strain of E. coli K-12 (ATCC 23559). A colicin-producing control E . *coli* strain (ATCC 23558) was included on each plate (6).

HA tests. The ability of the test strains to hemagglutinate erythrocytes was tested in 96-well round-bottomed microtiter plates with ^a 3% suspension of guinea pig, chicken, and pig erythrocytes in saline solution. Combinations of $25 \mu l$ of culture, erythrocyte suspension, and either saline solution or 2% D-mannose were mixed and incubated at 25°C for 30 min before hemagglutination (HA) activity was monitored. Broth cultures (BHI) of the test organisms were incubated statically in air, with subcultures made every 48 to 72 h for six transfers before testing (12).

Bacterial matings and selection of transconjugants. R plasmids were transferred by mixing 0.2 ml of exponentially grown donor cells with 1.8 ml of an overnight culture of recipient cells in PennAssay broth. Mixtures were incubated at 25 and 37°C for 18 h (26). In trial 1, the 39 Salmonella isolates (donors) were mated with E. coli 1932, E. coli LM-835, and S. typhimurium 475. The resulting transconjugants were selected on MacConkey agar plates containing a donor-inhibitory concentration of nalidixic acid (30 μ g/ml) and a recipient-inhibiting concentration of sulfisoxazole (500 μ g/ml) or streptomycin (25 μ g/ml), depending on the antibiotic profile of the donor organism. Samples from selector plates were picked and reidentified, and their antibiotic susceptibility patterns were determined. Frequencies of transconjugants were expressed relative to the number of donor cells in the mating mixtures (26).

In trial 2, matings of E. coli 13515 (donor) to 13 Salmonella isolates from healthy swine (group 1) and 10 from swine with enteritis (group 2) were handled in a similar manner except that the selector plates were made of brilliant green agar (5.8 $g/100$ ml) and selenite broth powder $(2.3 \text{ g}/100 \text{ ml})$ plus tetracycline (100 μ g/ml) or gentamicin (10 μ g/ml). After 18 h at 37°C, Salmonella transconjugants appeared as large brown colonies. Transductional passage of R plasmids was determined by inoculating recipient cells with cell-free broth cultures from the donor strains and processing as described above (26).

In trial 3, the transconjugant that resulted from the conjugation of Salmonella sp. strain 1-3 and E . coli 13515 (designated 1-3 \times 13515) was mated to E. coli 1932, E. coli LM-835, and S. typhimurium 475 as described above. Selector plates were made of MacConkey agar containing nalidixic acid (30 μ g/ml) plus gentamicin (10 μ g/ml), tetracycline (100 μ g/ml), or streptomycin (25 μ g/ml). Mating mixtures were incubated at 25 and 37°C. Transconjugants of these matings and mating frequencies were determined as described above.

Plasmid isolation. Plasmid DNA from donor, recipient, and transconjugant cells was isolated and purified by the method of Birnboim and Doly (2) from overnight BHI cultures.

Agarose gel electrophoresis. Samples of $25 \mu l$ of plasmid DNA preparation were loaded into wells of a 0.75% agarose gel (MC Corp., Rockland, Maine) and run at ⁴⁰ V for ¹⁰ ^h on a horizontal electrophoresis apparatus (model MPH; IBI, New Haven, Conn.) with ^a constant-voltage power source (model 452; E-C Apparatus Corp., St. Petersburg, Fla.). Cells were stained with ethidium bromide and visualized on ^a UV transilluminator (model TM 36; Ultra-Violet Products, Inc., San Gabriel, Calif.) (2). Photographs were taken with Polaroid type 55 (4 by 5) film (Polaroid Corp., Cambridge, Mass.) with a no. 23A Wratten gelatin filter (Eastman Kodak Co., Rochester, N.Y.) on ^a Polaroid MP4 Land camera.

Bacterial resistance to serum. Bacterial resistance to the lethal activity of serum (pig and rabbit) was determined by the rapid assay method of Moll et al. (17). The microtiter assay was done by inoculation of $100 \mu l$ of peptone-glucose broth with 100 μ l of twofold serum dilutions and 25 μ l of bacterial culture in log phase into 96-well microtiter plates. Plates were incubated for ³ h at 42°C and observed for color changes as an indication of bacterial growth.

Enterobactin (phenolate siderophore) assay. The bioassay for enterobactin was done in petri dishes (35 by 10 mm) containing 5 ml of low-iron agar with 30 μ g of deferrated ethylenediamine-N,N'-diacetic acid (EDDA) per ml and S. typhimurium LT-2 enb-7 (10^5 CFU/ml) as the indicator organism (5). The organisms used in the test included S. typhimurium LT-2 enb-7, a mutant unable to synthesize enterobacterin (ENT⁻) (20); E. coli AN193, an ENT⁻ mutant unable to synthesize dihydroxybenzoic acid but able to utilize enterobactin produced by other organisms (negative control); and E. coli AN194, an ENT^+ strain (positive control). These three organisms were supplied by J. B. Neilands. The test organisms were passed five times in low-iron medium, and an overnight culture was concentrated by centrifugation (5,000 \times g, 10 min) and filtration (0.45- μ m pore size filter). The culure filtrate was concentrated 100 times by an evaporator-concentrator (Savant model SVC-100H; Savant Instruments Inc., Farmingdale, N.Y.). Sterile disks (Difco) were placed on the solidified agar plates and inoculated with 10 μ l of the 100 \times culture filtrates of the test and control organisms and ¹⁰⁰ mM 2,3-dihydroxybenzoic acid (positive control). Plates were incubated for 24 and 48 h at 37 $^{\circ}$ C. Growth around the disks was recorded as $-$ (no growth), $+$ (small zone of growth), or $++$ (wide zone of growth).

Biostatistics. Mating frequencies are essentially percentages. For example, a mating frequency of $10^{-2.2}$ means that there is a mating once in every 158.48 chances $(1/158.49 =$ 0.006; 0.006 \times 100 = 0.63%). These data were analyzed by a chi-square-one-way analysis of variance. If statistically significant, the percentages were transformed to arcsins, and the arcsins were compared by Tukey's test (31). Comparison of two percentages was done by using the Z test of proportions. Analysis concerned with the effect of temperature and recipient organism (two-factor analysis of variance), the mating frequencies were transformed by using the arcsin transformation prior to analysis. Subsequently, the Tukey test was used. Arcsin means were retransformed into the familiar logarithic form for tabular presentation.

RESULTS

Serotypes and antibiotic profiles. Salmonella spp. isolated from the lymph nodes of healthy swine (group 1) were

TABLE 1. Serotypes and antibiotic resistance^a profiles of Salmonella isolates from healthy swine (group 1)

Isolate no.	Species	Antibiotic resistance profile		
$1-1$	S. derby	Sulfisoxazole		
$1-2$	S. indiana	Sulfisoxazole		
$1-3$	S. typhimurium	Sulfisoxazole		
$1-4$	S. heidelberg	Streptomycin, tetracycline, sulfisoxazole		
1-5	S. indiana	Tetracycline, sulfisoxazole		
$1-6$	S. derby	Sulfisoxazole		
$1-7$	S. manhattan	Sulfisoxazole		
$1-8$	S. infantis	Tetracycline, sulfisoxazole		
$1-9$	S. ohio	Sulfisoxazole		
$1-10$	S. montevideo	Sulfisoxazole		
$1-11$	S. infantis	Sulfisoxazole		
$1-12$	S. muenchen	Sulfisoxazole		
$1-13$	S. muenchen	Sulfisoxazole		
$1 - 14$	S. kentucky	Sulfisoxazole		
$1-15$	S. anatum	Sulfisoxazole		
$1-16$	S. anatum	Tetracycline, sulfisoxazole		
$1-17$	S. london	Sulfisoxazole		
$1-18$	S. agona	Sulfisoxazole		
$1-19$	S. worthington	Tetracycline, sulfisoxazole		

^a Antimicrobial agents tested were ampicillin, chloramphenicol, gentamicin, kanamycin, nalidixic acid, polymyxin B, streptomycin, sulfisoxazole, and tetracycline.

serologically typed into 14 different serotypes. Antibiotic resistance patterns showed that all 19 isolates were resistant to sulfisoxazole, 4 were resistant to tetracycline and sulfisoxazole, and ¹ was resistant to streptomycin, sulfisoxazole, and tetracycline (Table 1).

Salmonella spp. isolated from swine with enteritis (group 2) were serologically typed into S. choleraesuis subsp. kunzendorf(19 isolates) and S. muenchen (1 isolate). Twelve isolates were resistant to ampicillin, tetracycline, streptomycin, and sulfisoxazole; 4 isolates were resistant to streptomycin and sulfisoxazole; 3 isolates were resistant to ampicillin, streptomycin, and sulfisoxazole; and ¹ isolate was resistant to ampicillin, streptomycin, sulfisoxazole, tetracycline, chloramphenicol, and kanamycin (Table 2).

Colicin, HA, and serum resistance tests. Colicin production was observed in one isolate (no. 1-11) from group ¹ and none from group 2. Mannose-sensitive (MS) HA of erythrocytes was observed in 63.2% (12 of 19) of the isolates in group ¹ (1, 3, 4, 8 to 10, 12 to 14, and 16 to 18). In group 2, 90% (18 of 20) were MS positive (isolates ⁷ and ¹⁶ were negative). The percentage of MS positives in group ² (90%) was significantly larger ($Z = 1.99$, $P < 0.05$) than the percentage of positives in group ¹ (63.2%). All Salmonella isolates from groups ¹ and 2 were resistant to the lethal activity of pig and rabbit serum. Recipient E. coli strains 1932 and LM-835 were sensitive to the action of pig and rabbit serum. Transconjugants resulting from the matings of 1932 and LM-835 to the Salmonella donors were also sensitive to the action of both types of serum. Recipient S. typhimurium 475 was resistant to the action of serum; therefore, passage of serum resistance from donors to recipient 475 could not be determined.

Mating frequencies and antibiotic profiles of transconjugants. In trial 1, one isolate from group ¹ (no. 1-4) mated with the recipient organisms. All isolates from group 2 mated with at least one of the three recipients. Results of these matings, showing mating frequencies and antibiotic resistance markers transferred, are shown in Table 3.

The data for the mating frequencies of group 2 were analyzed by a two-factor analysis of variance. Mating temperature (factor 1) was not significant ($F = 0.11$, df = 1/114) and recipient (factor 2) was highly significant ($F = 12.28$, df $= 2/114$, $P < 0.001$). The mean frequencies of mating of the recipients were compared by Tukey's test (Table 4). For each temperature, the $E.$ coli strains had mean frequencies of mating not significantly different from each other but significantly lower than those of S. typhimurium 475.

The data on the number of antibiotic markers transferred to each recipient at each temperature were analyzed the same way. Neither temperature $(F = 0.12, df = 1/114)$ nor recipient ($F = 0.57$, df = 2/114 was significant.

The percentage of transfer of the tetracycline marker at the different temperatures for each of the three recipients was analyzed by using a Z test of proportion. No significant differences were found. For recipient strains 1932, 835, and 475, the calculated Z values were 0.33 ($P = 0.74$), 0.64 ($P =$ 0.52), and 1.01 ($P = 0.31$), respectively.

In trial 2, mating of donor E. coli 13515 to 13 isolates from group ¹ and 10 from group 2 resulted in eight successful matings when group ¹ acted as the recipient (strains 1-2, 1-3, 1-9, 1-10, 1-12, 1-15, 1-17, and 1-18) and no matings with group 2. All successful matings occurred at 25°C but not 37°C, and all involved transfer of the antibiotic markers for streptomycin, tetracycline, kanamycin, and gentamicin resistance. Donor E. coli 13515 was resistant to ampicillin, streptomycin, sulfisoxazole, tetracycline, polymyxin B, kanamycin, and gentamicin and susceptible to the action of nalidixic acid and chloramphenicol (Table 5).

An analysis of the mating frequencies of group ¹ as recipients showed that significant ($\dot{F} = 477.2$, df = 7/ ∞ , P < 0.001) differences existed between the serotypes (Table 5). A Tukey's test to locate these differences demonstrated a stepwise effect of significant differences. Only isolate 1-18 had a mating frequency significantly smaller than the other serotypes.

TABLE 2. Serotypes and antibiotic resistance a profiles of Salmonella isolates from ill swine (group 2)

Isolate no.	Species	Antibiotic resistance profile ^b	
$2-1$	S. choleraesuis subsp. kunzendorf	A	
$2 - 2$	S. choleraesuis subsp. kunzendorf	A	
$2 - 3$	S. choleraesuis subsp. kunzendorf	A	
$2 - 4$	S. choleraesuis subsp. kunzendorf	В	
$2 - 5$	S. choleraesuis subsp. kunzendorf	A	
$2 - 6$	S. choleraesuis subsp. kunzendorf	A	
$2 - 7$	S. choleraesuis subsp. kunzendorf	A	
$2 - 8$	S. choleraesuis subsp. kunzendorf	A	
$2-9$	S. choleraesuis subsp. kunzendorf	A	
$2-10$	S. choleraesuis subsp. kunzendorf	с	
$2 - 11$	S. choleraesuis subsp. kunzendorf	Ċ	
$2 - 12$	S. choleraesuis subsp. kunzendorf	В	
$2 - 13$	S. choleraesuis subsp. kunzendorf	A	
$2 - 14$	S. muenchen	D	
$2 - 15$	S. choleraesuis subsp. kunzendorf	C	
$2 - 16$	S. choleraesuis subsp. kunzendorf	в	
$2 - 17$	S. choleraesuis subsp. kunzendorf	A	
$2 - 18$	S. choleraesuis subsp. kunzendorf	A	
$2-19$	S. choleraesuis subsp. kunzendorf	В	
$2 - 20$	S. choleraesuis subsp. kunzendorf	A	

 α See Table 1, footnote a .

^b A, Ampicillin, streptomycin, sulfisoxazole, tetracycline; B, streptomycin, sulfisoxazole; C, ampicillin, streptomycin, sulfisoxazole; D, ampicillin, chloramphenicol, kanamycin, streptomycin, sulfisoxazole, tetracycline.

TABLE 3. Trial 1: mating frequencies and antibiotic resistance markers transferred from Salmonella isolates to recipient organisms

Donor	Recipient		Mating frequency ^b (log_{10})	Antibiotic markers transferred ^c	
strain	strain ^a	25° C	37°C	$25^{\circ}C$	37°C
$1-4$	1932 835 475	-4.6 -4.8 -4.7	-5.9 -6.7	A A A	A A
$2 - 1$	1932 835 475	-5.7 -3.9 -5.4	-7.3 -5.1 -5.9	В C В	
$2 - 2$	1932 835 475	-6.4	-6.8	в	В
$2 - 3$	1932 835 475	-5.6 -3.3 -5.9	-5.3	C C B	C
$2 - 4$	1932 835 475	-5.8	-6.8	В	B
$2 - 5$	1932 835 475	-2.7 -4.7 -4.0	-2.4 -4.1 -4.1	с C В	c c B
2-6	1932 835 475	-5.5 -6.5 -4.9	-7.2 -6.0 -6.6	c с B	C c B
$2 - 7$	1932 835 475	-7.2 -7.0 -5.3	-6.8	D D $\mathbf C$	В
$2 - 8$	1932 835 475	-6.4 -7.3 -7.3	-8.6 -6.6 -7.3	C C В	C с в
2-9	1932 835 475	-5.6	-7.3 -5.8	C	c B
$2-10$	1932 835 475	-5.9	-6.0	в	В
2-11	1932 835 475	-4.6 -3.9 -4.0	-4.2 -4.7 -2.9	В Е B	E E B
$2 - 12$	1932 835 475		-8.3		B
$2 - 13$	1932 835 475	-1.2 -0.9 -0.8	-1.4 -2.2 -0.7	В C В	$\mathbf C$ c B
$2 - 14$	1932 835 475	-5.3	-5.9	В	в
$2-15$	1932 835 475	-6.5	-5.7	в	
$2 - 16$	1932 835 475	-6.0	-7.3	в	в

TABLE 3-Continued

ts were E. coli 1932, E. coli LM-835, and recipient S. typhimurium 475.

-, No mating occurred.

Antibiotic resistance markers transferred: A, streptomycin, sulfisoxazole, tetracycline; B, streptomycin, sulfisoxazole; C, ampicillin, streptomycin, sulfisoxazole, tetracycline; D, ampicillin, streptomycin, tetracycline; E, ampicillin, streptomycin, sulfisoxazole; F, ampicillin, tetracycline.

In trial 3, mating of donor $1-3 \times 13515$ to E. coli 1932, E. coli LM-835, and \overline{S} . typhimurium 475 resulted in successful matings at 25°C for \overline{E} . coli 1932 and \overline{S} . typhimurium 475 but $C = \frac{C}{\pi} \int \frac{d\mu}{d\mu} d\mu$ and $\frac{d\mu}{d\mu} \int \frac{d\mu}{d\mu} \int \frac{d\mu}{d\mu} d\mu$ and $\frac{d\mu}{d\mu} \int \frac{d\mu}{d\mu} \int \frac{d\mu}{d\mu} \int \frac{d\mu}{d\mu} d\mu$ B B not at 37° C. Successful matrices of 1-3 \times 13515 to E. coll LM-835 occurred at 25 and 37°C (Table 6). Antibiotic markers passed to recipients were resistance to tetracycline, streptomycin, kanamycin, and gentamicin via a 60-megadalton (MDa) plasmid.

Plasmid isolation. Recipient organisms contained no plasmids. Only isolate 1-4 from group 1 showed one 56-MDa plasmid. Salmonella strains from group 2 had three to five plasmids, ranging from ⁶⁰ to 2.4 MDa in size. Donor E. coli 13515 had four plasmids from 60 to 2.0 MDa. Table 7 lists the donor antibiotic resistance profiles and their plasmids along with the R markers and plasmids transferred via conjugation to the recipient organisms. Figures ¹ and 2 show plasmid screens of matings between salmonellae and recipients (Fig. 1) and $E.$ coli 13515 and recipient salmonellae (Fig. 2).

Enterobactin. In group 1, 15 of 19 $(78.9%)$ isolates produced enterobactin. Wide zones of growth occurred in ⁸ of E 19 (42. 1%) and small zones occurred in 7 of 19 (36.8%) of the

TABLE 4. Comparison^a of the frequencies of transfer from Salmonella isolates from clinically sick swine to recipient organisms at 25 and 37°C in trial ¹

	$Log10$ mean frequency of mating			
Temperature	E. coli			
	Strain	Strain	S. typhimurium	
	1932	LM-835	475	
$25^{\circ}C$	$-2.235a$	$-2.5a$	-4.41	
37° C	$-2.355a$	$-2.105a$	-5.145	

^a Data were analyzed initially by a two-factor analysis of variance: temperatures ($F = 0.11$, df = 1/114, not significant), recipients ($F = 12.28$, df = 2/114, $P < 0.001$), and interaction ($F = 0.48$, df = 2/114, not significant). Means were compared by a Tukey test.

 b Frequencies followed by the letter a are not significantly different at the</sup> 5% level of significance.

TABLE 5. Trial 2: mating frequencies^{a} of *E. coli* 13515 with Salmonella isolates of group 1 at 25°C

Donor	Recipient	Mating frequency $(log_{10})^b$
E. coli 13515	$1-15$	$-2.2a$
	$1-3$	$-2.7ab$
	$1-17$	$-2.9abc$
	$1-9$	$-3.4abc$
	$1-2$	-3.6 bcd
	$1-12$	-3.6 bcd
	$1-10$	$-4.2cd$
	$1-18$	$-6.4d$

^a Data were initially analyzed by a chi-square-one-way analysis of variance $(F = 477.2, df = 7/\infty, P < 0.001)$. Proportions were compared by a Tukey test (5% level of significance).

^b Antibiotic resistance markers transferred included streptomycin, kanamycin, tetracycline, and gentamicin. Frequencies followed by the same letter are not significantly different at the 5% level of probability.

filtrates. Four of 19 (21.1%) culture filtrates produced no detectable enterobactin. Group ¹ filtrates that produced wide zones included 1-2, 1-3, 1-6, 1-8, 1-10, 1-17, 1-18, and 1-19. Those producing small zones included 1-1, 1-5, 1-7, 1-9, 1-13, 1-14, and 1-15. Group ¹ filtrates that did not produce enterobactin included 1-4, 1-11, 1-12, and 1-16.

In group 2, 7 of 20 (35%) produced enterobactin, with 1 of 20 (5%) producing wide and 6 of 20 (30%) producing small zones. Thirteen of 20 filtrates (65%) did not produce detectable enterobactin. Group 2 filtrate 2-4 produced wide zones, and small zones were produced by 2-2, 2-3, 2-5, 2-10, 2-12, and 2-15. No enterobactin was detected from filtrates 2-1, 2-6, 2-7, 2-8, 2-9, 2-11, 2-13, 2-14, 2-16, 2-17, 2-18, 2-19, or 2-20.

A Z test of proportions comparing 78.9% with 35% established that these percentages were significantly different $(Z$ $= 2.76, P = 0.006$.

DISCUSSION

Virulence factors and R plasmids of Salmonella spp. isolated from healthy (group 1) and ill (group 2) swine were studied to determine their potential public health significance. The parameters studied included serotypes of isolates; antibiotic resistance profiles; colicin and enterobactin production; ability to hemagglutinate erythrocytes; ability to resist serum complement; presence of plasmids; and the ability to transfer R plasmids to other recipient organisms.

Apparently healthy swine harbor a wide variety of Salmonella serotypes (13, 27). Of the 12 most common serotypes found in swine in the United States, 5 are among the 12 most common types in humans (4). These serotypes, which were isolated from group 1, included S. heidelberg, S. typhimurium, S. infantis, S. agona, and S. montevideo. The predominant serotype isolated from ill swine was S. choleraesuis subsp. kunzendorf, which is of low incidence in human salmonellosis (4).

Colicin was produced by one isolate from group ¹ and none from group 2. This closely approximates previously reported figures of 2% (22) and 10% (9) production of colicin in Salmonella spp. Colicin production by Salmonella spp. in the intestinal tract results in suppression of resident flora and increased growth of Salmonella organisms (9). In systemic infections, colicins may confer on their host salmonellae a greater ability to survive in the blood, peritoneal fluid, and alimentary tract of the infected animal (7). In addition, colicinogeny may occur in association with drug resistance and is often cotransferable with drug resistance plasmids (9, 22).

All the *Salmonella* isolates in groups 1 and 2 were resistant to the lethal effects of pig serum, but the phenotype was not transferred to a serum-sensitive E. coli recipient. Serum is normally bactericidal for a wide range of both smooth and rough gram-negative bacteria by a system involving antibody, complement activation, and, possibly, other serum proteins (24). Some smooth strains, however, are insensitive to this system, and serum resistance may contribute to the pathogenicity of the enterobacterial strains. Surface components such as capsules, 0 antigens, peptidoglycan, proteins, and pili all play a role in increasing the virulence of bacteria. In addition, certain antibiotic resistance plasmids may also encode an outer membrane protein which interacts with other bacterial surface structures in a highly specific way to provide protection against serum (18, 24). The outer membrane protein has the potential not only to increase serum resistance, but also to increase phagocytosis resistance independently of the bacterial capsule (1).

MS HA of erythrocytes was observed in both group ¹ (63.2%) and group 2 (90%) isolates. Approximately 80% of all Salmonella isolates exhibit MS activity; that is, they

Donor ^a	Recipient	Selector plate	Temp of mating (C)	Mating frequency ^b (log_{10})
$1 - 3 \times 13515$	E. coli 1932	Nalidixic acid $+$ streptomycin		
		Nalidixic acid + tetracycline	25	-5.5
		Nalidixic acid $+$ gentamicin	25	-4.8
	E. coli LM-835	Nalidixic α cid + streptomycin	25	-4.4
		Nalidixic α cid + tetracycline	25	-6.7
		Nalidixic acid $+$ gentamicin	25	-4.2
			37	-6.7
	S. typhimurium 475	Nalidixic acid + streptomycin	25	-5.0
		Nalidixic $\text{acid} + \text{tetrac}$	25	-4.9
		Nalidixic acid $+$ gentamicin	25	-4.8

TABLE 6. Trial 3: mating frequencies and antibiotic resistance markers transferred by the $1-3 \times 13515$ transconjugant conjugated with E. coli 1932, E. coli LM-835, and S. typhimurium 475

^a Donor 1-3×13515 transconjugant antibiotic resistance profile: resistant to penicillin, gentamicin, streptomycin, kanamycin, sulfisoxazole, and tetracycline; susceptible to nalidixic acid, ampicillin, chloramphenicol,

Successful matings passed streptomycin, sulfisoxazole, tetracycline, and gentamicin resistance to recipient organisms by a 60-MDa plasmid.

 c , No mating occurred.

Donor			Recipient			
Isolate no.	Resistance profile	Plasmid(s) (MDa)	Strain no.	Mating temp (C)	Resistance markers transferred ^a	Plasmid(s) transferred (MDa)
$1-4$	Streptomycin, sulfisoxazole,	56.0	1932	25	A	56.0
	tetracycline		835	$25 + 37$	A	56.0
			475	$25 + 37$	A	56.0
$2-11$	Ampicillin, streptomycin,	30.0, 26.0, 12.0, 5.5,	1932	25	B	26.0, 12.0, 5.5, 2.4
	sulfisoxazole	2.4	1932	37	C	30.0, 26.0, 12.0, 5.5, 2.4
			835	$25 + 37$	$\mathbf C$	30.0, 26.0, 12.0, 5.5, 2.4
			475	$25 + 37$	\bf{B}	12.0, 5.5, 2.4
$2-16$	Streptomycin, sulfisoxazole	32.0, 12.0, 5.5, 2.4	475	25	B	5.5, 2.4
$2 - 17$	Ampicillin, streptomycin,	40.0, 32.0, 26.0, 12.0,	1932	25	B	12.0, 5.5, 2.4
	sulfisoxazole, tetracycline	5.5, 2.4	1932	37	C	40.0, 26.0
			835	25	D	40.0, 26.0, 12.0, 5.5, 2.4
			475	25	$\, {\bf B}$	12.0, 5.5, 2.4
E. coli 13515	Ampicillin, streptomycin,	60.0, 37.0, 3.4, 2.0	$1-2$	25	E	60.0
	sulfisoxazole, tetracycline,		$1-3$	25	E	60.0
	polymyxin B, kanamycin,		$1-9$	25	E	60.0
	gentamicin		$1-10$	25	E	60.0
			$1-12$	25	E	60.0
			$1-15$	25	E	60.0
			$1-17$	25	E	60.0
			$1-18$	25	E	60.0

TABLE 7. Antibiotic resistance and associated R plasmids transferred via conjugation between donors and recipient organisms

^a Antibiotic resistance markers transferred: A, streptomycin, sulfisoxazole, and tetracycline; B, streptomycin and sulfisoxazole; C, ampicillin, streptomycin, and sulfisoxazole; D, ampicillin, streptomycin, sulfisoxazole, and tetracycline; E, streptomycin, tetracycline, kanamycin, and gentamicin.

possess type ¹ pili. Since mannose is ubiquitous in mammalian cell membranes, MS adhesion to mammalian host cells by type 1-piliated bacteria is widespread. Although many Salmonella isolates produce type 1 pili, their role in intestinal colonization is subject to debate. It has been proposed that type ¹ pili mediate the MS adherence of S. typhimurium to intestine and to both human buccal and rat urinary tract epithelial cells and therefore play a significant role in intestinal colonization and in urinary tract infections (6, 14). However, the definitive physiological functions of the type ¹ pili in Salmonella spp. are still unknown.

Enterobactin production occurred in a significantly greater

FIG. 1. Plasmid screen of Salmonella sp. strain 2-17 (A) and transconjugants resulting from conjugation with *E. coli* 1932 at 25°C
(B), *E. coli* 1932 at 37°C (C), *E. coli* LM-835 at 25°C (D), and S. typhimurium 475 at 25°C (E). Sizes are indicated in megadaltons. CR, Chromosomal.

FIG. 2. Plasmid screen of E. coli 13515 donor (A), recipient Salmonella sp. strain 1-3 (C), and transconjugant $1-3 \times 13515$ (B). Sizes are indicated in megadaltons. CR, Chromosomal.

number of group ¹ isolates (78.9%) than group ² isolates (35%). Enterobactin production by Salmonella spp. has been shown to be related to virulence in mice (30).

Plasmids were observed in a greater number of isolates from group 2 than those from group 1. In mating studies, the Salmonella isolates from group ² acted as donors of R plasmids to other enteric bacteria at a greater rate than those from group 1. From ⁵¹ to 85% of Salmonella species isolated from swine may contain conjugative R plasmids, and they most commonly encode resistance to tetracycline, streptomycin, and sulfonamides (11, 25). In this study, the most common R plasmid in the Salmonella isolates encoded resistance to streptomycin and sulfonamides by a lowmolecular-weight plasmid. In further studies, the isolates in group 1 acted as recipient bacteria to an E . *coli* swine isolate at ^a greater frequency than those from group 2. A transconjugant resulting from the mating of the E . *coli* swine isolate with a group 1 Salmonella isolate was able to pass R plasmids to both E. coli and Salmonella recipient bacteria.

Enteropathogenic E. coli strains routinely harbor many distinct virulence plasmids that may encode a variety of phenotypes, such as enterotoxin production, colonization antigens, colicin synthesis, and hemolysin production (7). The genes involved are usually found on separate plasmids, but several large conjugative plasmids encoding both toxin production and antibiotic resistance have been reported and probably arose by recombination between an enterotoxin plasmid (ENT) and an R plasmid or by transpositional events (7). The occurrence of enterotoxin-drug resistance plasmids may be important in increasing the number of enterotoxigenic E. coli in environments where antibiotics are used as feed additives or in therapy.

One-half of all antibiotics produced in the United States are fed to food-producing animals in subtherapeutic doses as a feed supplement (8). The use of these antibiotics disrupts the normal flora of the intestine, resulting in an increase in and emergence of antibiotic-resistant Salmonella strains and prolonged fecal shedding of these organisms into the environment (23). Most of the antibiotic-resistant Salmonella spp. that infect humans are of animal origin (23). The fatality rate for people infected with drug-resistant Salmonella strains is 21 times greater than for individuals infected with non-antibiotic-resistant Salmonella strains (23).

The demonstration that E. coli and Salmonella isolates act as both donor and recipient organisms in the transfer of antibiotic resistance is of public health importance. Large numbers of salmonellae are required to produce food poisoning, usually resulting from the growth of the organism in food. In turn, this indicates that the environmental conditions under which food is processed and stored are of paramount importance. Temperatures which permit the multiplication of contaminating salmonellae would also permit the transfer of antibiotic resistance between and among E. coli and salmonellae.

The rigorous antemortem inspection standards of the Food Safety and Inspection Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture make it unlikely that swine with clinical signs of salmonellosis would enter the human food chain (13). This would indicate that swine without clinical signs of salmonellosis can introduce Salmonella strains into the human food chain. Human cases of salmonellosis are caused by serotypes isolated from healthy swine. These are serotypes whose virulence abilities are expressed by MS HA of erythrocytes, resistance to complement, enterobactin production, and lastly the ability to act as both donor and recipient in the transfer of antibiotic resistance.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This work was supported by the Veterinary Medical Experiment Station, College of Veterinary Medicine, The University of Georgia.

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