

# Phylogenetic Analysis of the Antibiotic Resistance Genes in *Salmonella* Species *in silico*

Nusrat Nahar\* and Ridwan Bin Rashid

Computational Chemistry and Bioinformatics Laboratory, Department of Pharmacy, State University of Bangladesh, Dhaka, Bangladesh

## Abstract

Antibiotic resistance is an emerging problem in both developed and developing countries. It has been responsible for 700,000 deaths worldwide. Some genotypes of bacteria are sensitive to certain antibiotics than others. Hence by conducting phylogenetic analysis of bacteria and detecting the presence of resistance genes in each genotype, we can select the antibiotic that would be most effective for the bacteria in that certain genotype. A total of forty-five *Salmonella* species were investigated for the presence of antibiotic resistance genes through *in silico* PCR (polymerase chain reaction) amplification and PFGE (pulsed-field gel electrophoresis) analysis was conducted to assess the phylogenetic relationship. Total twenty-eight antibiotic resistance genes were selected for screening the isolates and seventeen antibiotic resistance genes among the *Salmonella* strains were found. Almost all the isolates (n=43) exhibited PCR amplification product for *gyrA* genes while fluoroquinolone resistance *gyrB* (66.67%), *parC* (68.89%) and *parE* (15.56%) genes were also present. About 15.56% and 11.11% isolates were found to harbor adenylyltransferase gene, *aadA1* and *aadA2*, respectively while phosphotransferase gene was detected in only one isolate. Two isolates expressed both chloramphenicol acetyltransferase genes, *cat1* and *cat2*. Three isolates (6.67%) harbored chloramphenicol resistance gene *cmiA* gene while two isolates (4.44%) expressed florfenicol resistance gene, *floR*. Tetracycline resistance gene, *tetA* was more prevalent (8.89%) than *tetG* genes (2.22%). *Salmonella* harbored all three sulfonamide resistance genes while *sulII* was more prevalent (17.78%). Genotype 2 contained fifteen antibiotic resistance genes while genotype 3 contained only one antibiotic resistance genes. These investigations used a computer aided approach to genotype isolates and assess the difference in antibiotic resistance profile of *Salmonella* species based on genotype. This data helps to predict antibiotic resistance genes that might be present for an isolate of known genotype and select antibiotic for the treatment of *Salmonella* infections based on their phylogenetic group.

**Keywords:** *Salmonella*; *In silico*; Antibiotic resistance genes; Polymerase chain reaction; Pulsed-field gel electrophoresis; Genotype

## Introduction

Zoonotic bacterium *Salmonella* colonizes on the intestinal tract. Humans and animals are affected by many diseases caused by *Salmonella* such as acute gastroenteritis, bacteremia and many other extraintestinal localized infections. So, rapid identification of *Salmonella* is needed to prevent the spread of the diseases [1]. Poultry products are the potential source of *Salmonella* infections [2,3] that cause significant economic loss in the poultry industry [1,4].

Animals that contribute to food production are treated with antimicrobials for therapeutics or production purposes. These antimicrobials improved animal health and their growth rate or feed conservation was reported by one study [5]. This overuse of antimicrobials also contributed to the development of multidrug-resistant bacteria including zoonotic pathogen *Salmonella* [3]. Multidrug-resistant (MDR) *Salmonella* has been increased worldwide due to overuse of antibiotics in humans and animal's infections. One study documented that seafood, chickens and fishes were considered as the source of *Salmonella* infections [6]. Another investigation screened *Salmonella* collected from food handler and animal isolates that showed same RAPD fingerprinting patterns. So, the animal was the root of the source for food handler infections as food handlers used these collected samples [7].

Deaths due to drug-resistant infections are estimated to increase from 700,000 to 10 million annually by 2050, and the financial burden because of this might be as high as US\$100 trillion worldwide [8]. In developing countries, antimicrobials are used inappropriately in farming practices and this is contributed to the development of

multidrug-resistant bacteria [9]. Non typhoidal *Salmonella enterica* was responsible for 56,969 deaths globally in 2010 [10]. Typhoidal *Salmonella* was responsible for 210,000 deaths worldwide in 2000 [11]. In Nigeria, multidrug-resistant (MDG) *Salmonella* is of important concern as it was responsible for bacteremia in children [12].

Recently one group found that third-generation fluoroquinolones were effective for the treatment of adult patients [13]. World Health Organization listed fluoroquinolones as an important antibiotic and its use for the treatment of children was reported by one group [14]. However, a study found a *Salmonella* serotype from a human source that showed a reduction in fluoroquinolone susceptibility [15]. One study found that a single mutation in DNA topoisomerase gene was responsible for the development of fluoroquinolone resistant *Salmonella enterica* [16]. Presence of *gyrA* mutation is an indicator of fluoroquinolone resistance gene and hence fluoroquinolones cannot be prescribed for treating the infection [17]. Mutations in DNA gyrase, *gyrA* genes were usually restricted to clinical human and veterinary samples [16,18-20].

\*Corresponding author: Nusrat Nahar, Computational Chemistry and Bioinformatics Laboratory, Department of Pharmacy, State University of Bangladesh, Dhaka, Bangladesh, Tel: 09613782338; E-mail: nusratnahar17@gmail.com

Received December 26, 2017; Accepted January 15, 2018; Published January 22, 2018

Citation: Nahar N, Rashid RB (2018) Phylogenetic Analysis of the Antibiotic Resistance Genes in *Salmonella* Species *in silico*. J Bioanal Biomed 10: 1-12. doi:10.4172/1948-593X.1000198

Copyright: © 2018 Nahar N, et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

One study reported that chloramphenicol acetyltransferases (CAT), a plasmid-borne enzyme, was responsible for chloramphenicol resistance [21]. Another study documented nonenzymatic chloramphenicol resistance gene, *cmlA*, also conferred chloramphenicol resistance in *Salmonella* species [22]. *Salmonella* was also seen to harbour florfenicol resistance gene and it also showed cross-resistance to chloramphenicol [23].

In Iran, poultry originated *Salmonella* developed tetracycline resistance was reported by several authors [1,24-26]. Several reports found that *tetA* was the most common tetracycline resistance gene found in poultry [3,4,27]. One study reported that *tetA* and *tetB* genes both were present in *Salmonella* collected from human samples [28]. Another group found *tetD* resistance gene in *Salmonella* [29]. Other studies found tetracycline resistant *Salmonella typhimurium* that harbored *tetG* gene [30,31].

The *sulI* and *sulII* genes, encoding different forms of dihydropteroate synthase, are responsible for sulfonamide resistance [32]. Several studies documented that the *sulI* gene was linked to other resistance genes in class 1 integrons, while *sulII* gene was located on small nonconjugative plasmids [33] or large transmissible multi resistance plasmids [32]. Another study found sulfonamide resistance gene due to *sulIII* [34].

*Salmonella* usually develops their resistance mechanism by an enzymatic modification of the target compounds while other bacteria uses active efflux pump or enzymatic modification of 16S rRNA subunit to develop their resistance mechanism [35]. For strains isolated in USA, acetyltransferases, phosphotransferases, and nucleotidyltransferases genes modified and inactivated the aminoglycoside antibiotics and conferred their resistance [36,37].

The present study investigated the resistance genes profile of forty-five *Salmonella* species through *in silico* PCR amplification to determine the MDR gene profile and also identified the distribution pattern of the resistance genes within the genotypes by *in silico* PFGE analysis.

## Materials and Methods

### Strains used in the study

Strains used in the study are summarized in Table 1.

### Primers used in the study

Primers used for detection of antibiotic resistance genes are summarized in Table 2 [38].

### PCR amplification

*In silico* PCR amplification was performed on an online software <http://insilico.ehu.eus/PCR/> [39,40] and resulting PCR product is computed automatically with desired band size of a specific gene [40].

### PFGE digestion

PFGE digestion and construction of the dendrogram was done in the website <http://insilico.ehu.es/digest/>. The *XbaI* restriction enzyme was used that recognized the restriction sequence [39,40].

## Results and Discussion

### Genetic diversity of studied isolates

Genetic diversity of *Salmonella* species is determined by pulsed-field gel electrophoresis (PFGE) analysis. The *XbaI* was chosen as a

restriction enzyme that recognizes T'CTAG\_A sequence and different banding patterns were observed upon gel electrophoresis. Dendrogram was constructed in the website (Figure 1). This *in silico* PFGE analysis divided 45 isolates into five genotypes at 80% cutoff value.

### Genotypic distribution of aminoglycosides resistance genes

The gene products of *aadA1* and *aadA2* confers resistance to streptomycin and spectinomycin. The *aadA1* gene was present in 15.56% (n=7) of the isolates and gave 497 bp gene product (Figure 2). The *aadA2* gene was detected in 11.11% (n=5) of the isolates with 470 bp gene product (Figure 3). The *aadB* gene cassette confers resistance to tobramycin, gentamicin and kanamycin [41]. The gene *aadD* confers resistance to kanamycin and neomycin [42] as well as tobramycin [43]. The primer for *aadB* and *aadD* genes [38] didn't give any amplicon in any of the isolates (not shown). The *aph(3)-IIa* specifies resistance to neomycin, ribostamycin, butirosin, paromomycin and kanamycin. One isolate was found to harbour phosphotransferase gene, *aph(3)-IIa* with 582 bp gene product (Figure 4). The *aac(3)IIa* gene mediates alteration of dibekacin, kanamycin, gentamicin, netimicin, tobramycin [37]. The primer of *aac(3)IIa* gene (Ma et al., 2007) [38] didn't give any amplicon. One study reported that phosphotransferase gene *aph(3)-IIa* genes were detected in 10 (1.4%) isolates while 57% (n=8) isolates had the acetyltransferase gene *aac(3)IIa* [13]. Based on our data, treatment of *Salmonella* infection is going to have a better prognosis if tobramycin, gentamicin, kanamycin, neomycin, ribostamycin, butirosin, paromomycin are used instead of other aminoglycosides such as streptomycin and spectinomycin.

Genotype 1 contained all three aminoglycoside positive genes while genotype 2 and 3 contained adenylyltransferase genes *aadA1* and *aadA2*. About 22.22% isolates present in genotype 1 carried *aadA1* gene while 11.11% isolates present in genotype 1 carried both *aadA2* and *aph(3)-IIa* genes. Phosphotransferase gene *aph(3)-IIa* was present in only genotype 1. Genotype 3 contained no aminoglycosides or chloramphenicol resistance genes. About 11.76% and 17.65% isolates present in genotype 2 carried *aadA1* and *aadA2* genes while *aadA1* was encountered in higher frequency (27.27%) in genotype 5 as compared to *aadA2* genes (9.09%). Isolates belonging to genotype 3,4 are unlikely to be resistant to streptomycin and spectinomycin and infections caused these genotype can be tackled with these antibiotics. All of the isolates are sensitive to dibekacin, gentamicin, netimicin, tobramycin. Isolates in genotype 3 are sensitive to all aminoglycosides.

### Genotypic distribution of chloramphenicol resistance genes

The *cat* genes encode chloramphenicol acetyltransferase which detoxifies chloramphenicol and is responsible for chloramphenicol resistance in bacteria [44]. Only two isolates harbored the *cat1* gene and a 683 bp gene product was seen (Figure 5). These two isolates were also found to express the *cat2* gene and produced a 547 bp gene product (Figure 6) while the primer for *cat3* gene [38] didn't yield any amplicon (not shown). The *cml* and *floR* genes confer resistance to chloramphenicol and florfenicol by efflux of the antibiotics [45]. The *cmlA* gene was seen to be harbored in three isolates with an approximate length of 683 bp gene product (Figure 7) while the primer for *cmlB* gene [38] failed to detect any amplicon (not shown). The florfenicol resistance gene, *floR* was present in two isolates and gave 1213 bp gene product (Figure 8). One study has been documented that chloramphenicol resistance gene was found in six isolates while more (10 of the 14 multidrug-resistant) isolates were found to express the *floR* and *cat2* genes [13]. Two isolates harboured *cat3* and about 61% and 69% isolates expressed *cmlA* and *cmlB* genes, respectively [13].

Serial number	Isolate
1	NC_021870 <i>Salmonella bongori</i> N268-08
2	NC_015761 <i>Salmonella bongori</i> NCTC 12419
3	NC_010067 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>arizonae</i> serovar 62:z4, z23:--
4	NC_021818 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Cubana str. CFSAN002050
5	NC_022991 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Agona str. 24249
6	NC_011149 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Agona str. SL483
7	NC_021844 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Bareilly str. CFSAN000189
8	NC_022241 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Bovismorbificans str. 3114
9	NC_006905 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Choleraesuis str. SC-B67
10	NC_011205 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Dublin str. CT_02021853
11	NC_011294 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Enteritidis str. P125109
12	NC_011274 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Gallinarum str. 287/91
13	NC_022221 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Gallinarum/pullorum str. CDC1983-67
14	NC_016831 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Gallinarum/pullorum str. RKS5078
15	NC_021810 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Heidelberg str. 41578
16	NC_017623 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Heidelberg str. B182
17	NC_021812 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Heidelberg str. CFSAN002069
18	NC_011083 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Heidelberg str. SL476
19	NC_020307 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Javiana str. CFSAN001992
20	NC_011080 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Newport str. SL254
21	NC_021902 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Newport str. USMARC-S3124.1
22	NC_011147 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Paratyphi A str. AKU_12601
23	NC_006511 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Paratyphi A str. ATCC 9150
24	NC_010102 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Paratyphi B str. SPB7
25	NC_012125 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Paratyphi C strain RKS4594
26	NC_021984 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Pullorum str. S06004
27	NC_011094 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Schwarzengrund str. CVM19633
28	NC_022525 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Thompson str. RM6836
29	NC_003198 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Typhi
30	NC_004631 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Typhi Ty2
31	NC_016832 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Typhi str. P-stx-12
32	NC_021176 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Typhi str. Ty21a
33	NC_022569 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Typhimurium DT104
34	NC_003197 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Typhimurium LT2
35	NC_021820 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Typhimurium str. 08-1736
36	NC_016856 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Typhimurium str. 14028S
37	NC_017046 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Typhimurium str. 798
38	NC_016854 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Typhimurium str. D23580
39	NC_022544 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Typhimurium str. DT2
40	NC_016810 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Typhimurium str. SL1344
41	NC_016857 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Typhimurium str. ST4/74
42	NC_016860 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Typhimurium str. T000240
43	NC_021151 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Typhimurium str. U288
44	NC_016863 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Typhimurium str. UK-1
45	NC_021814 <i>Salmonella enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica</i> serovar Typhimurium var. 5- str. CFSAN001921

Table 1: Name of the isolates.

The *cmlA* and *floR* both genes were present in the same number in genotype 1 (11.11%) (Figure 9). Genotype 2 contained four chloramphenicol resistance genes (except *cmlB* gene) and about 5.88% isolates present in genotype 2 expressed all four chloramphenicol resistance genes. Twenty-five percent isolates present in genotype 4 harboured *cat1* and *cat2* genes while genotype 5 contained only *cmlA* genes (9.09%). Isolates in genotype 1 and 5 are likely to be resistant to chloramphenicol by enzyme detoxification rather than efflux while the reverse is true for genotype 2 and 4. All isolates of genotype 3 will be sensitive to chloramphenicol while all isolates in genotype 3-5 will be sensitive to florfenicol [46].

### Genotypic distribution of fluoroquinolone resistance genes

Mutations in *gyrA*, *gyrB* regions of DNA gyrase and *parC* and *parE* regions of DNA topoisomerase IV have been responsible for fluoroquinolone resistance [47]. The *gyrA* gene was found in 43 positive isolates out of 45 isolates studied here and gave 251 bp gene products (Figure 10). Thirty isolates (66.67%) were found to possess *gyrB* gene and produced 172 bp gene products (Figure 11). Hence the mutations in the *gyrA* subunit are more likely to contribute to resistance when compared to *gyrB*. Thirty-one (68.89%) isolates were found to express topoisomerase IV, *parC* gene with 262 bp gene

Gene	Primer sequence (5'-3')	Amplicon size bp	References
<i>aadA1</i>	TTTGCTGGTTACGGTGAC GCTCCATTGCCAGTCCG	497	[38]
<i>aadA2</i>	GGTGCTAAGCGTCATTGAGC GCTTCAAGGTTTCCCTCAGC	470	[38]
<i>aph (3)-IIa</i>	TCTGAAACATGGCAAAGTAG AGCCGTTTCTGTAATGAAGGA	582	[38]
<i>cat1</i>	AACCAGACCGTTCAGCTGGAT CCTGCCACTCATCGCAGTAC	550	[38]
<i>cat2</i>	AACGGCATGATGAACCTGAA ATCCCAATGGCATCGTAAAG	547	[38]
<i>cmIA</i>	GGCCTCGCTTACGTCATC GCGACACCAATACCCACTAGC	662	[38]
<i>floR</i>	ATGACCACCACAGCCCCG AGACGACTGGCGACTTCTCG	1213	[38]
<i>gyrA</i>	CGTTGGTGACGTAATCGG CCGTACCGTCATAGTTAT	251	[31]
<i>gyrB</i>	GCGCTGTCCGAAGTGTACCT CGGTGATCAGCGTCGCCACTTCC	172	[31]
<i>parC</i>	CTATGCGATGTCAGAGCTGG TAACAGCAGCTCGGCGTATT	262	[31]
<i>parE</i>	TCTTCCGATGAAGTGCTG ATACGGTATAGCGCGGTAG	238	[31]
<i>tetA</i>	TTGGCATTCTGCATTCATC GTATAGCTTGCCGGAAGTCCG	494	[38]
<i>tetG</i>	GCTCGGTGGTATCTCTGCTC CAAAGCCCCTTGCTTGTAC	550	[38]
<i>sull</i>	TTTCCTGACCCGCGCTCTAT GTGCGGACGTAGTCAGCGCCA	425	[38]
<i>sullI</i>	CCTGTTTCGTCCGACACAGA GAAGCGCAGCCGAATTCAT	435	[38]
<i>sullII</i>	ATGAGCAAGATTTTTGGAATCGTAA CTAACCTAGGGCTTTGGATATTT	792	[38]

Table 2: Primers for antibiotic resistance genes detection.

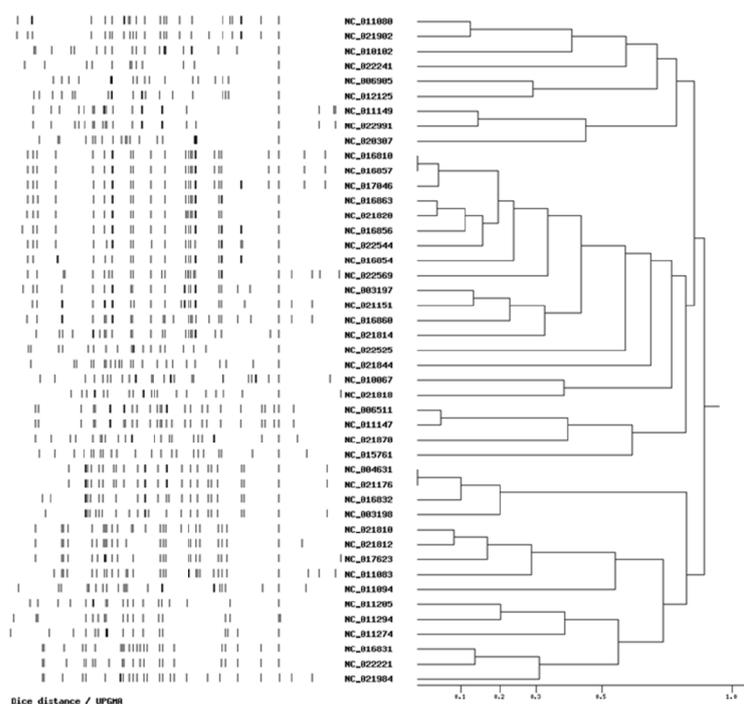


Figure 1: Phylogenetic diversity of *Salmonella* species identified by PFGE analysis.

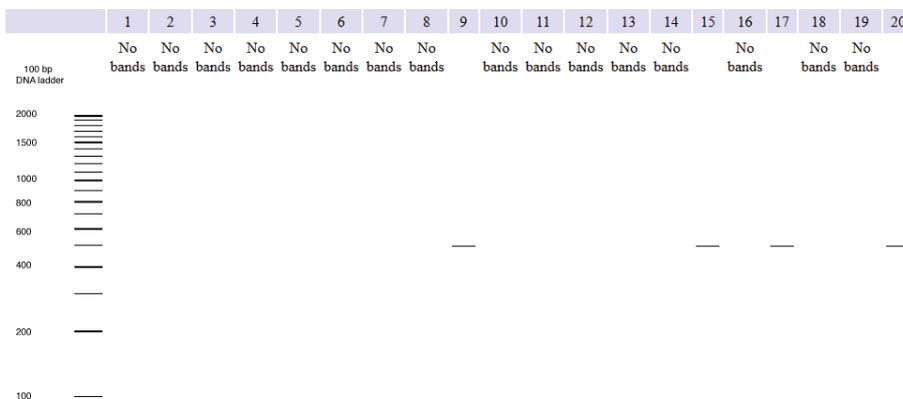


Figure 2: Detection of *aadA1* gene in *Salmonella* isolates. Isolates harbouring the gene gives a 497 bp amplicon.

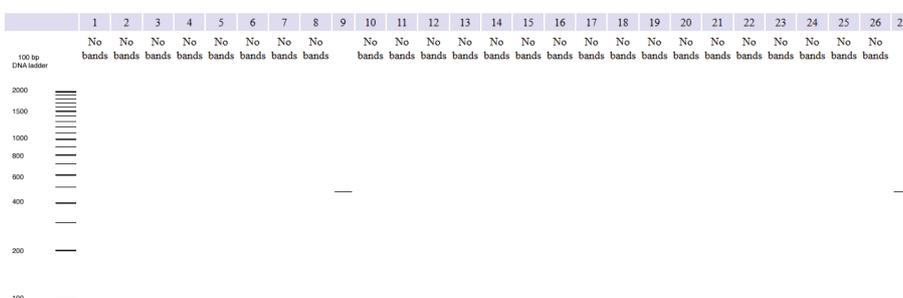


Figure 3: Detection of *aadA2* gene in *Salmonella* isolates. Isolates harbouring the gene gives a 470 bp amplicon.

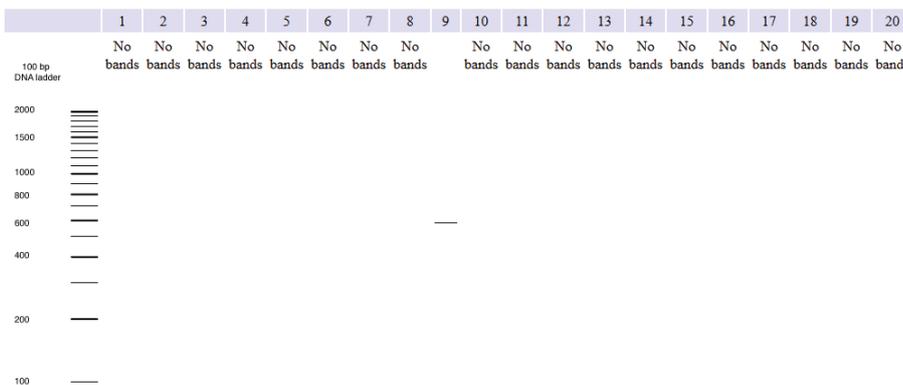


Figure 4: Detection of *aph (3')::Ila* gene in *Salmonella* isolates. Isolates harbouring the gene gives a 582 bp amplicon.

product (Figure 12) while *parE* gene was present in 15.56% (n=7) of the isolates with an approximate length of 238 bp gene product (Figure 13). Our data suggests mutations in DNA gyrase are more likely the reason of resistance in comparison to DNA topoisomerase IV. Genotype 2 and 5 carried all four fluoroquinolone resistance genes (Figure 14). All the isolates present in genotype 5 carried *gyrA* and *parC* genes (100%) while about 90.91% and 54.55% isolates present in genotype 5 expressed *gyrB* and *parE* genes. All the isolates present in genotype 4 carried all resistance genes except *parE*. The *gyrA* was more prevalent in genotype 1 (100%) while Genotype 3 harboured only *gyrA* gene (75%). Because of the high prevalence of atleast one gene responsible

for fluoroquinolone resistance through all genotypes, eradicating *Salmonella* with fluoroquinolone is unlikely to yield positive results. Fluoroquinolones are the most commonly used antibiotic in the poultry industry [47] where *Salmonella* is frequently isolated. Hence it is no surprise that the excessive use of fluoroquinolones have contributed to the widespread resistance.

#### Genotypic distribution of tetracycline resistance genes

The *tetA* and *tetG* both encode efflux proteins associated with pumping out tetracyclines from the cytosol to the extracellular environment [48]. Tetracycline resistance gene, *tetA* was detected in

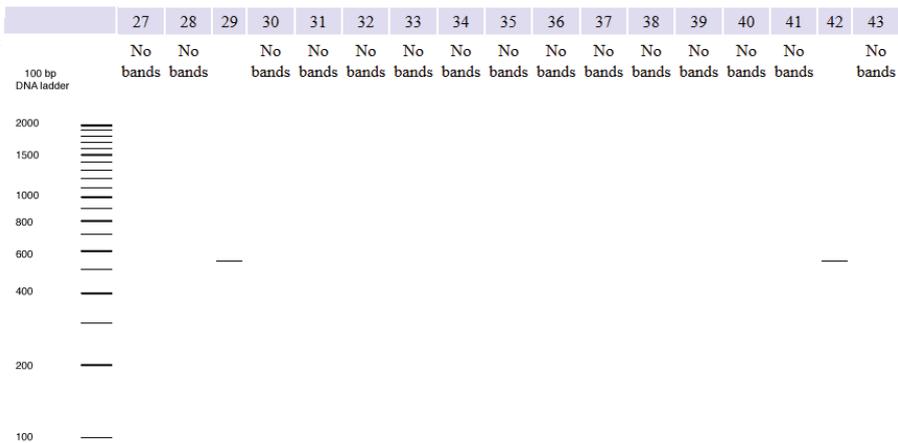


Figure 5: Detection of *cat1* gene in *Salmonella* isolates. Isolates harbouring the gene gives a 550 bp amplicon.

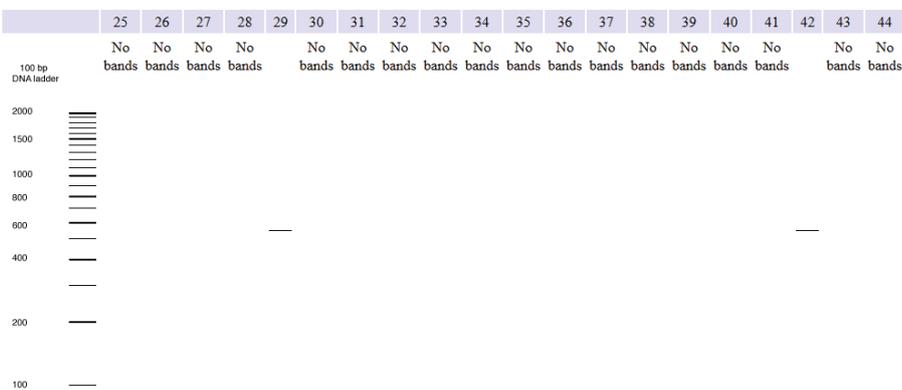


Figure 6: Detection of *cat2* gene in *Salmonella* isolates. Isolates harbouring the gene gives a 547 bp amplicon.

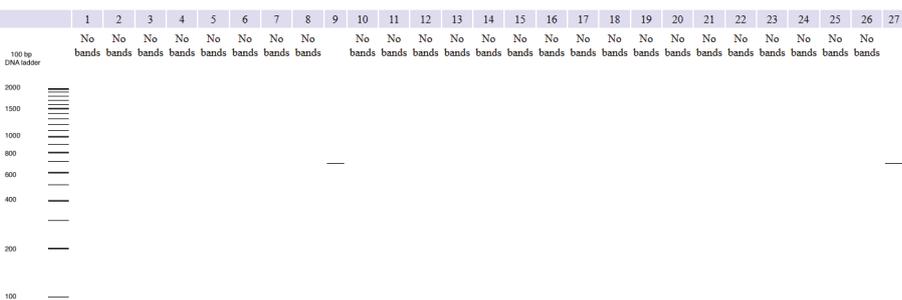


Figure 7: Detection of *cml* gene in *Salmonella* isolates. Isolates harbouring the gene gives a 662 bp amplicon.

8.89% (n=4) of the isolates with 494 bp gene product (Figure 15) while *tetG* gene was found in only one isolate (*Salmonella enterica* subsp. *enterica* serovar Typhimurium DT104) with an approximate length of 550 bp PCR product (Figure 16). Hence the *tetA* efflux protein is more common than *tetG* efflux protein. Resistance genes such as *tetM*, *tetO*, *tetS* confer resistance by ribosomal protection whereas *tetX* encodes proteins responsible for enzymatic alteration [48]. The primer for other tetracycline resistance genes [38] failed to give any amplicon product (not shown). The *tetA* gene was found in genotype 1, 2 and 5. Hence the isolates in other genotypes are unlikely to be tetracycline resistant because of *tetA* gene. About 11.11% and 18.18% isolates present in

genotype 1 and 5 carried the *tetA* genes. About 5.88% isolates present in genotype 2 expressed both *tetA* and *tetG* genes. Genotype 3 contained no tetracycline resistance genes and hence any isolate belonging to this genotype will be sensitive to tetracycline. Other than genotype 2, isolates belonging to other genotypes are unlikely to be resistant to tetracycline due to the efflux protein *tetG*.

#### Genotypic distribution of sulfonamide resistance genes

Sulfonamide resistance gene, *sulI* was detected in 7 isolates (15.56%) with 425 bp gene product (Figure 17) while 8 isolates (17.78%) gave 435 bp PCR products for *sulII* gene (Figure 18). The *sulIII* gene was present

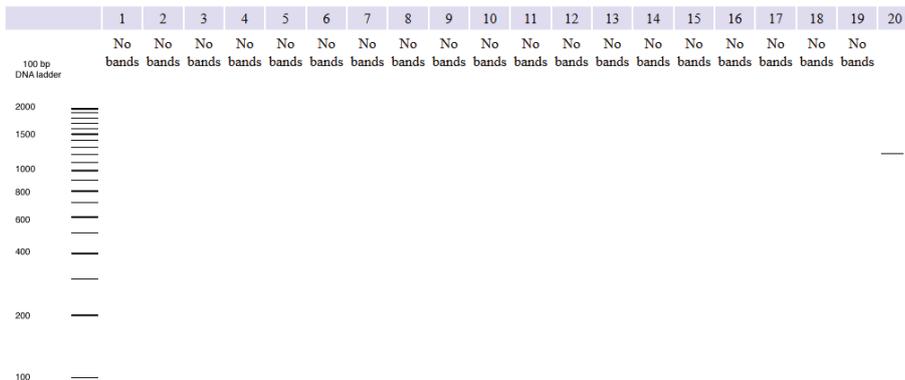


Figure 8: Detection of *floR* gene in *Salmonella* isolates. Isolates harbouring the gene gives a 1213 bp amplicon.

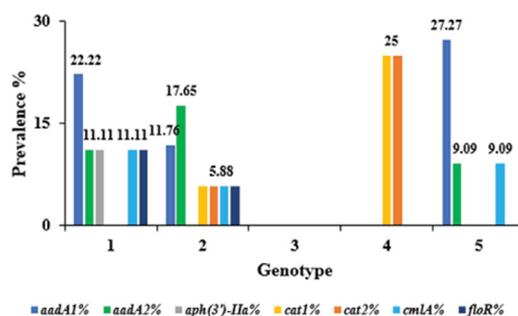


Figure 9: Genotypic distribution of aminoglycosides and chloramphenicol resistance genes. Genes encoding resistance proteins are as follows: *aadA1*: Aminoglycoside Adenyltransferase A1; *aadA2*: Aminoglycoside Adenyltransferase A2; *aph(3)-IIa*: Aminoglycoside O: Phosphotransferase IIa; *cat1*: Chloramphenicol Acetyltransferase 1; *cat2*: Chloramphenicol Acetyltransferase 2; *cmlA*: Non-Enzymatic Chloramphenicol Resistance A; *floR*: Florfenicol Resistance.

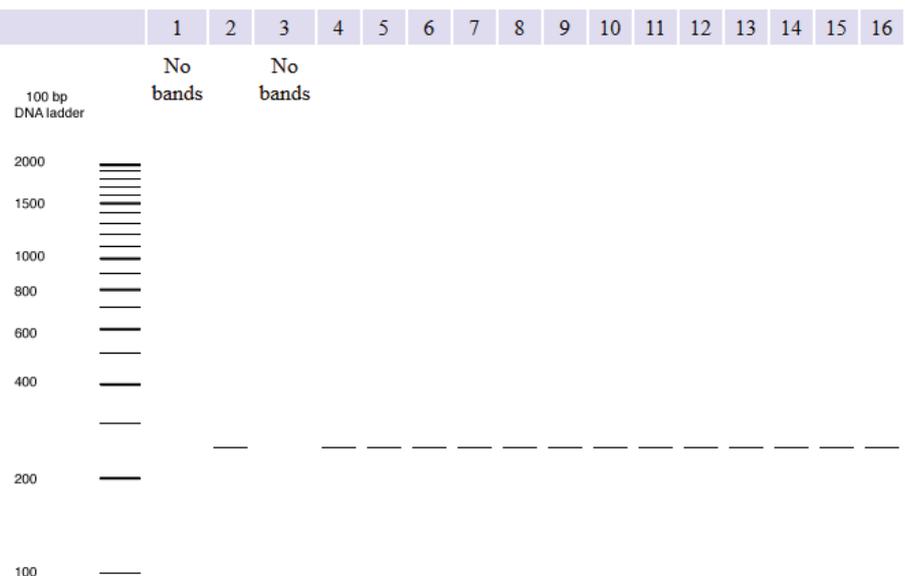
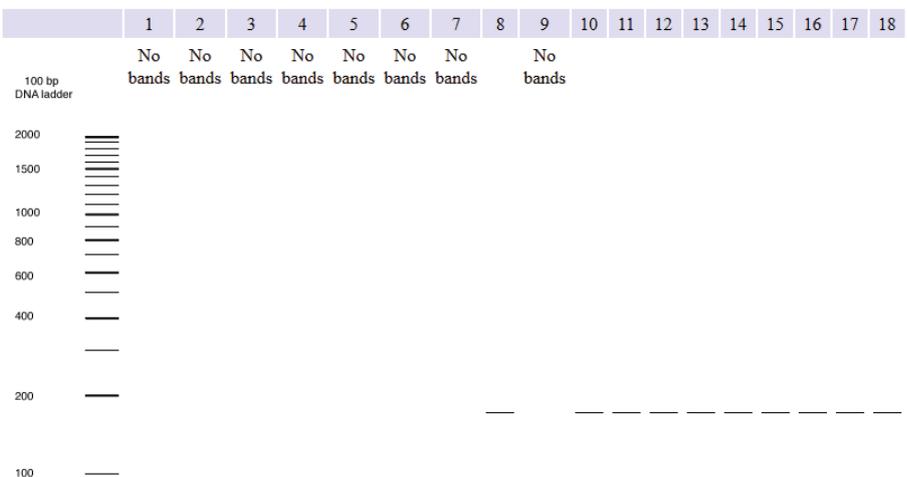


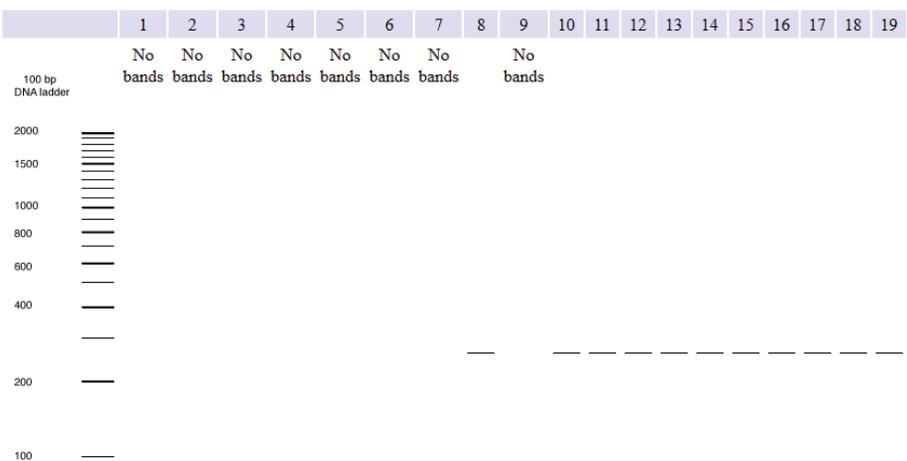
Figure 10: Detection of *gyrA* gene in *Salmonella* isolates. Isolates harbouring the gene gives a 251 bp amplicon.

in only three isolates and produced 792 bp gene products (Figure 19). Genotype 2 contained all five tetracycline and sulfonamide resistance genes (Figure 20). Genotype 1, 2 and 5 carried all three sulfonamide resistance genes. About 33.33% isolates present in genotype 1 harbored

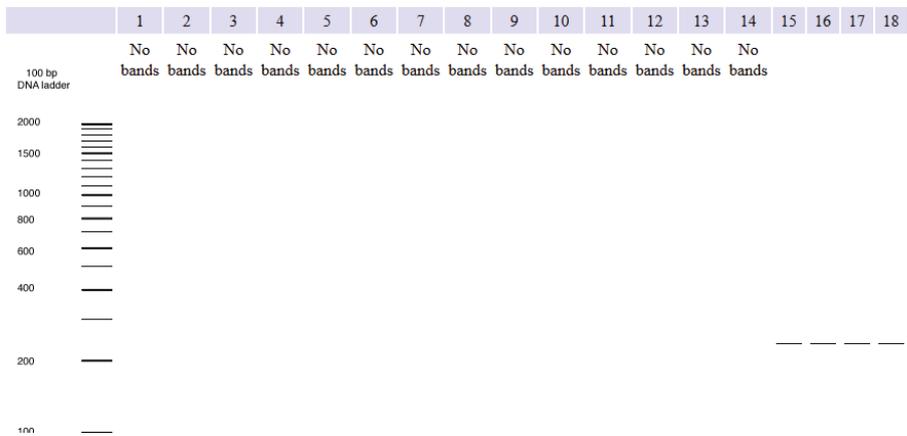
*sulI* gene while 11.11% isolates in genotype 1 carried both *sulII* and *sulIII* genes. Twenty-five percent isolates in genotype 4 expressed *sulII* genes. Genotype 3 contained no sulfonamide resistance genes and hence any isolate from this genotype will be sensitive to sulfonamides.



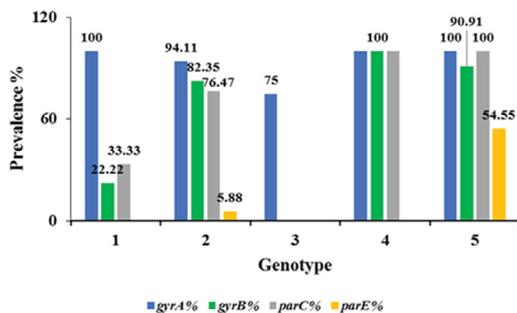
**Figure 11:** Detection of *gyrB* gene in *Salmonella* isolates. Isolates harbouring the gene gives a 172 bp amplicon.



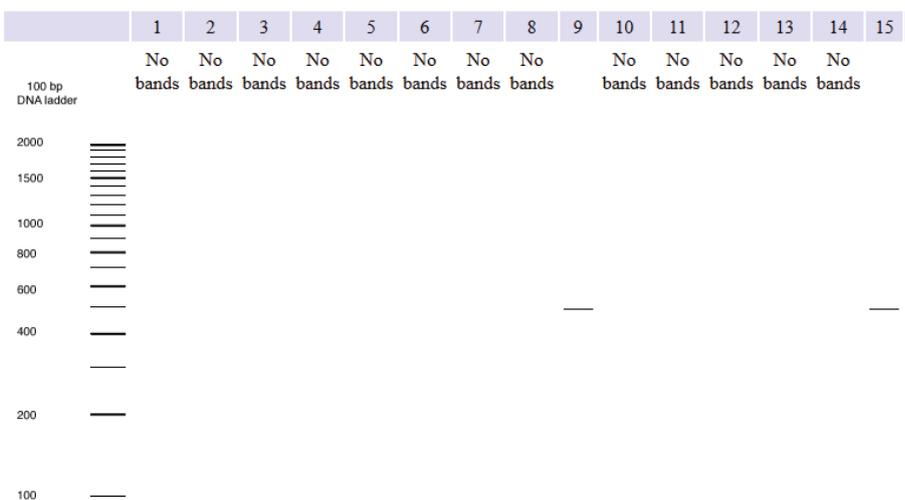
**Figure 12:** Detection of *parC* gene in *Salmonella* isolates. Isolates harbouring the gene gives a 262 bp amplicon.



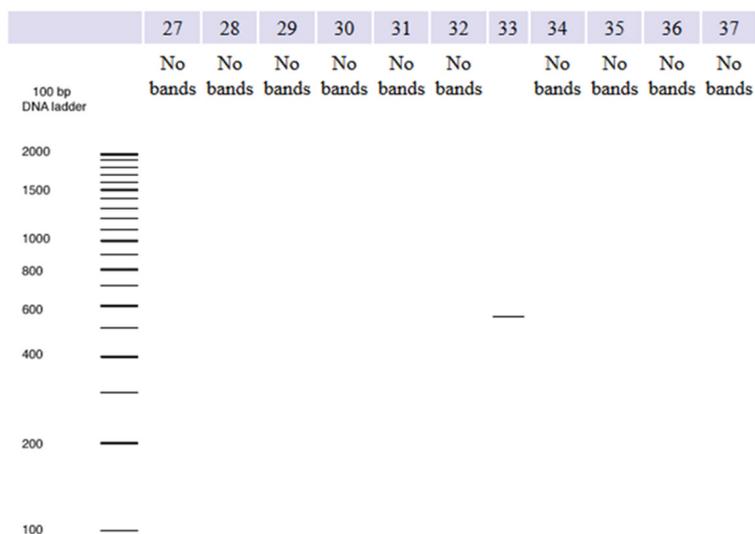
**Figure 13:** Detection of *parE* gene in *Salmonella* isolates. Isolates harbouring the gene gives a 238 bp amplicon.



**Figure 14:** Genotypic distribution of fluoroquinolone resistance genes. Genes encoding resistance proteins are as follows: *gyrA*: gyrA Subunit of DNA Gyrase; *gyrB*: gyrB Subunit of DNA Gyrase; *parC*: parC Subunit of DNA Topoisomerase IV; *parE*: parE Subunit of DNA Topoisomerase IV.



**Figure 15:** Detection of *tetA* in *Salmonella* isolates. Isolates harbouring the gene gives a 494 bp amplicon.



**Figure 16:** Detection of *tetG* in *Salmonella* isolates. Isolates harbouring the gene gives a 550 bp amplicon.

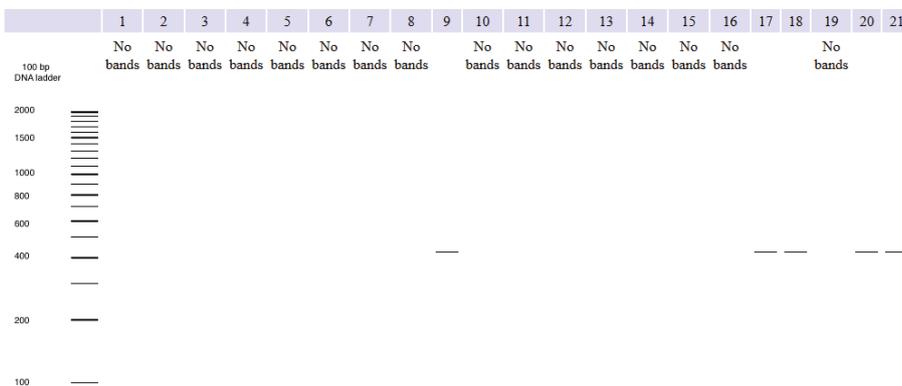


Figure 17: Detection of *sull* gene in *Salmonella*. Isolates harbouring the gene give a 425 bp amplicon.

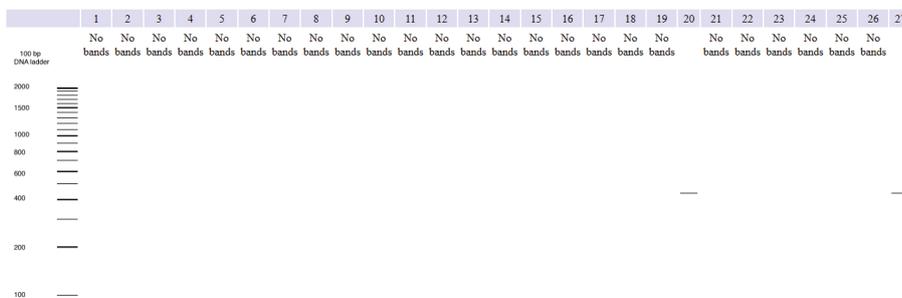


Figure 18: Detection of *sullI* gene in *Salmonella*. Isolates harbouring the gene give a 435 bp amplicon.

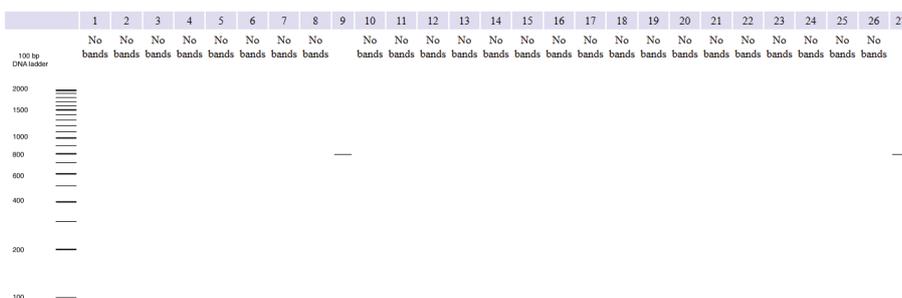


Figure 19: Detection of *sullII* gene in *Salmonella*. Isolates harbouring the gene give a 792 bp amplicon.

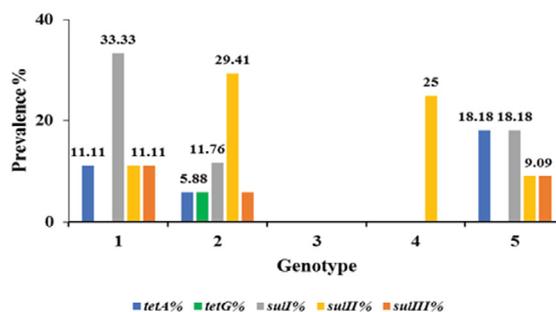


Figure 20: Genotypic distribution of tetracycline and sulfonamide resistance genes. Genes encoding resistance are as follows: *tetA*: Tetracycline Resistance Protein A; *tetG*: Tetracycline Resistance Protein G; *sullI*: Sulfonamide Resistance Gene I; *sullII*: Sulfonamide Resistance Gene II; *sullIII*: Sulfonamide Resistance Gene III.

## Conclusion

Our study used a computer aided approach to genotype and detects antibiotic resistance genes and assesses the how the prevalence of these genes varies across the genotypes. Our data suggests that the resistance profile of *Salmonella* as well as the mechanism of resistance varies across genotypes. Genotype 3 was sensitive to all antibiotics except the fluoroquinolone family. The present study found that therapeutic value of fluoroquinolone antibiotic is limited since *Salmonella* strains since resistance genes were present across all genotypes. However, prevalence of resistance genes in genotype 3 was lower. Isolates in genotype 1 and 5 were resistant to chloramphenicol by enzyme detoxification rather than efflux while the reverse is true for genotype 2 and 4. Mutations in *gyrA*, *gyrB* regions of DNA gyrase was more prevalent and hence has a greater contribution to fluoroquinolone resistance rather than mutations in *parC* and *parE* regions of DNA topoisomerase IV. Resistance due tetA efflux pump was more common than tetG pump and was only found in genotype 1, 2 and 5. Tetracycline resistance due to ribosomal protection or enzyme modification in *Salmonella* was not seen. Resistance due to sulfonamide was primarily due to *sulII* followed by *sulI* and *sulIII*. Treatment of *Salmonella* infection is going to have a better prognosis if tobramycin, gentamicin, kanamycin, neomycin, ribostamycin, butirosin, paromomycin are used instead of other aminoglycosides such as streptomycin and spectinomycin because resistance genes for these were not present. It can be concluded that treatment process of *Salmonella* infections is difficult since *Salmonella* strains harboured many antibiotic resistance genes. A collaborative scheme was to be setup to supervise the antibiotic administration in animals to prevent the antimicrobial resistance and also improved its therapeutic efficacy.

## References

1. Salehi TZ, Mahzounieh M, Saeedzadeh A (2005) Detection of *invA* gene in isolated *Salmonella* from broilers by PCR method. *Int J Poultry Sci* 4: 557-559.
2. Antunes P, Réu C, Sousa JC, Peixe L, Pestana N (2003) Incidence of *Salmonella* from poultry products and their susceptibility to antimicrobial agents. *Int J Food Microbiol* 82: 97-103.
3. Shahada F, Chuma T, Tobata T, Okamoto K, Sueyoshi M, et al. (2006) Molecular epidemiology of antimicrobial resistance among *Salmonella enterica* serovar *Infantis* from poultry in Kagoshima, Japan. *Int J Antimicrob Agents* 28:302-307.
4. Nogrady N, Toth A, Kostyak A, Paszti J, Nagy B (2007) Emergence of multidrug-resistant clones of *Salmonella Infantis* in broiler chickens and humans in Hungary. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 60: 645-648.
5. Schwarz S, Chaslus-Dancla E (2001) Use of antimicrobials in veterinary medicine and mechanisms of resistance. *Vet Res* 32: 201-225.
6. Bhowmick PP, Devegowda D, Ruwandeepika HA, Karunasagar I, Karunasagar I (2009) Presence of *Salmonella*. *J Fish Dis* 32: 801-805.
7. Smith SI, Fowora MA, Goodluck HA, Nwaokorie FO, Aboaba OO, et al. (2011) Molecular typing of *Salmonella* spp isolated from food handlers and animals in Nigeria. *Int J Mol Epidemiol Genet* 2: 73-77.
8. Jasovský D, Littmann J, Zorzet A, Cars O (2016) Antimicrobial resistance-a threat to the world's sustainable development. *Ups J Med Sci* 121: 159-164.
9. Van TT, Moutafis G, Istivan T, Tran LT, Coloe PJ (2007) Detection of *Salmonella* spp. in retail raw food samples from Vietnam and characterization of their antibiotic resistance. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 73: 6885-6890.
10. Kirk MD, Pires SM, Black RE, Caipo M, Crump JA, et al. (2015) World Health Organization estimates of the global and regional disease burden of 22 foodborne bacterial, protozoal and viral diseases, 2010: A data synthesis. *PLoS Med* 12: e1001921.
11. Crump JA, Luby SP, Mintz ED (2004) The global burden of typhoid fever. *Bull World Health Organ* 82: 346-353.
12. Fashae K, Ogunsola F, Aarestrup FM, Hendriksen RS (2010) Antimicrobial susceptibility and serovars of *Salmonella* from chickens and humans in Ibadan, Nigeria. *J Infect Dev Ctries* 4: 484-494.
13. Adesiji YO, Deekshit VK, Karunasagar I (2014) Antimicrobial-resistant genes associated with *Salmonella* spp. isolated from human, poultry, and seafood sources. *Food Sci Nutr* 2: 436-442.
14. Collignon P, Powers JH, Chiller TM, Aidara-Kane A, Aarestrup FM (2009) World Health Organization ranking of antimicrobials according to their importance in human medicine: A critical step for developing risk management strategies for the use of antimicrobials in food production animals. *Clin Infect Dis* 49: 132-141.
15. Akinyemi OK, Smith SI, Oyefolu AO, Fasure KA, Coker AO (2006) Trends of multiple drug resistance in *Salmonella enterica* serovar typhi in Lagos, Nigeria. *East Cent Afr J Surg* 12: 83-88.
16. Piddock LJ (2002) Fluoroquinolone resistance in *Salmonella* serovars isolated from humans and food animals. *FEMS Microbiol Rev* 26: 3-16.
17. Randall LP, Coldham NG, Woodward MJ (2005) Detection of mutations in *Salmonella enterica gyrA*, *gyrB*, *parC* and *parE* genes by denaturing high performance liquid chromatography (DHPLC) using standard HPLC instrumentation. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 56: 619-623.
18. Ling JM, Chan EW, Lam AW, Cheng AF (2003) Mutations in topoisomerase genes of fluoroquinolone-resistant salmonellae in Hong Kong. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 47: 3567-3573.
19. Eaves DJ, Liebana E, Woodward MJ, Piddock LJ (2002) Detection of *gyrA* mutations in quinolone-resistant *Salmonella enterica* by denaturing high-performance liquid chromatography. *J Clin Microbiol* 40: 4121-4125.
20. Eaves DJ, Randall L, Gray DT (2004) Effect of mutations within the QRDR of *gyrA*, *gyrB*, *parC* or *parE* in quinolone-resistant *S. enterica* from humans and animals. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 48: 4012-4015.
21. Cannon M, Harford S, Davies JA (1990) A comparative study on the inhibitory actions of chloramphenicol, thiamphenicol and some fluorinated derivatives. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 26: 307-317.
22. Dorman CJ, Foster TJ (1982) Nonenzymatic chloramphenicol resistance determinants specified by plasmids R26 and R55-1 in *Escherichia coli* K-12 do not confer high-level resistance to fluorinated analogs. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 22: 912-914.
23. Nogrady N, Gado I, Fekete PZ, Paszti J (2005) Chloramphenicol resistance genes in *Salmonella enterica* subsp. *enterica* serovar Typhimurium isolated from human and animal sources in Hungary. *Vet Med-Czech* 50: 164-170.
24. Jafari RA, Ghorbanpour, Jaideri M (2007) An investigation in *Salmonella* status in backyard chicken in Iran. *Int J Poul Sci* 6: 227-229.
25. Mirzaie S, Hassanzadeh M, Ashrafi I (2010) Identification and characterization of *Salmonella* isolates from captured house sparrows. *Turk J Vet Anim Sci* 34: 181- 186.
26. Morshed R, Peighambari SM (2010) Drug resistance, plasmid profile and random amplified polymorphic DNA analysis of Iranian isolates of *Salmonella enteritidis*. *New Microbiol* 3: 47-56.
27. Abbasoglu D, Akcelik M (2011) Phenotypic and genetic characterization of multidrug-resistant *Salmonella infantis* strains isolated from broiler chicken meats in Turkey. *Biologia* 66: 406-410.
28. Tajbakhsh M, Hendriksen RS, Nochi Z, Zali M, Aarestrup FM, et al. (2012) Antimicrobial resistance in *Salmonella* spp. recovered from patients admitted to six different hospitals in Tehran, Iran from 2007 to 2008. *Folia Microbiol* 57: 91-97.
29. Fonseca EL, Myktyczuk OL, Asensi MD, Reis EMF, Ferraz LR, et al. (2006) Clonality and antimicrobial resistance gene profiles of multidrug-resistant *Salmonella enterica* serovar *Infantis* isolates from four public hospitals in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. *J Clin Microbiol* 44: 2767-2772.
30. Walker RA1, Lindsay E, Woodward MJ, Ward LR, Threlfall EJ (2001) Variation in clonality and antibiotic-resistance genes among multiresistant *Salmonella enterica* serotype typhimurium phage-type U302 (MR U302) from humans, animals, and foods. *Microb Drug Resist* 7: 13-21.
31. Randall LP, Cooles SW, Osborn MK, Piddock, LJV, Woodward MJ (2004) Antibiotic resistance genes, integrons and multiple antibiotic resistance in thirty-five serotypes of *Salmonella enterica* isolated from humans and animals in the UK. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 3: 208- 216.

32. Enne VI, Livermore DM, Stephens P, Hall LMC (2001) Persistence of sulfonamide resistance in *Escherichia coli* in the UK despite national prescribing restriction. *Lancet* 357: 1325-1328.
33. Sköld O1 (2000) Sulfonamide resistance: Mechanisms and trends. *Drug Resist Updat* 3: 155-160.
34. Perreten V, Boerlin P (2003) A new sulfonamide resistance gene (sul3) in *Escherichia coli* is widespread in the pig population of Switzerland. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 47: 1169-1172.
35. Frye JG, Jackson CR (2013) Genetic mechanisms of antimicrobial resistance identified in *Salmonella enterica*, *Escherichia coli* and *Enterococcus* spp. isolated from U.S. food animals. *Front Microbiol* 4: 135.
36. Shaw KJ, Rather PN, Hare RS, Miller GH (1993) Molecular genetics of aminoglycoside resistance genes and familial relationships of the aminoglycoside-modifying enzymes. *Microbiol Rev* 57: 138-163.
37. Ramirez MS, Tolmasky ME (2010) Aminoglycoside modifying enzymes. *Drug Resist Update* 13: 151-171.
38. Ma M, Wang H, Yu Y, Zhang D, Liu S (2007) Detection of antimicrobial resistance genes of pathogenic *Salmonella* from swine with DNA microarray. *J Vet Diagn Invest* 19: 161-167.
39. San Millán RM, Martínez-Ballesteros I, Rementería A, Garaizar J, Bikandi J (2013) Online exercise for the design and simulation of PCR and PCR-RFLP experiments. *BMC Res Notes* 6: 513.
40. Bikandi J, San Millán R, Rementería A, Garaizar J (2004) *In silico* analysis of complete bacterial genomes: PCR, AFLP-PCR and endonuclease restriction. *Bioinformatics*. 20: 798-799.
41. Jones LA, McIver CJ, Kim MJ, Rawlinson WD, White PA (2005) The aadB gene cassette is associated with blaSHV genes in *Klebsiella* species producing extended-spectrum  $\beta$ -lactamases. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 49: 794-797.
42. Schwarz S, Gregory PD, Werckenthin C, Curnock S, Dyke KGH (1996) A novel plasmid from *Staphylococcus epidermidis* specifying resistance to kanamycin, neomycin and tetracycline. *J Med Microbiol* 45: 57-63.
43. Pourmaras S, Slavakis A, Polyzou A, Sofianou D, Maniatis AN, et al. (2001) Nosocomial spread of an unusual methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* clone that is sensitive to all non- $\beta$ -lactam antibiotics, including tobramycin. *J Clin Microbiol* 39: 779-781.
44. Shaw WV, Packman LC, Burleigh BD, Dell A, Morris HR, et al. (1979) Primary structure of a chloramphenicol acetyltransferase specified by R plasmids. *Nature* 282: 870-872.
45. Schwarz S1, Kehrenberg C, Doublet B, Cloeckert A (2004) Molecular basis of bacterial resistance to chloramphenicol and florfenicol. *FEMS Microbiol Rev* 28: 519-542.
46. González I, Georgiou M, Alcaide F, Balas D, Liñares J, et al. (1998) Fluoroquinolone resistance mutations in the parC, parE, and gyrA genes of clinical isolates of viridans group streptococci. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 42: 2792-2798.
47. Gouvêa R, dos Santos FF, de Aquino MHC (2015) Fluoroquinolones in industrial poultry production, bacterial resistance and food residues: A review. *Rev Bras Ciênc Avic* 17: 1-10.
48. Roberts MC (2011) Environmental macrolide-lincosamide-streptogramin and tetracycline resistant bacteria. *Front Microbiol* 2: 40.