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AU1 ► Do Pathogenic *Escherichia coli* Isolated from *Gallus gallus* in South Africa Carry Co-Resistance Toward Colistin and Carbapenem Antimicrobials?

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AU3 ► Abstract

Colistin and carbapenems are critically important antimicrobials often used as a last resort to manage multidrug-resistant bacterial infections in humans. With limited alternatives, resistance to these antimicrobials is of concern as organisms could potentially spread horizontally rendering treatments ineffective. The aim of this study was to investigate co-resistance to colistin and carbapenems among *Escherichia coli* isolated from poultry in South Africa. Forty-six *E. coli* strains obtained from clinical cases of breeder and broiler chickens were used. In addition to other antibiotics, all the isolates were tested against colistin and carbapenems using broth microdilution. Multiplex polymerase chain reactions were used to investigate the presence of colistin (*mcr-1* to 5) and carbapenem (*bla*_{OXA-48}, *bla*_{NDM-1}, and *bla*_{VIM}) resistance genes. Isolates exhibiting colistin resistance (>2 µg/mL) underwent a whole-genome sequencing analysis. Resistance to colistin (10.9%) and cefepime (6.5%) was noted with all colistin-resistant strains harboring the *mcr-1* gene. None of the *E. coli* isolates were resistant to carbapenems nor carried the other resistant genes (*mcr-2* to 5, *bla*_{OXA-48}, *bla*_{NDM-1}, and *bla*_{VIM}). The *mcr-1*-positive strains belonged to sequence types ST117 and ST156 and carried virulence genes *ompA*, *aslA*, *fdeC*, *fimH*, *iroN*, *iutA*, *tsh*, *pic*, *ast A* and *set 1A/1B*. In conclusion, clinical *E. coli* strains from chickens in this study possessed mobile resistance genes for colistin and several other clinically relevant antimicrobials but not carbapenems. Additionally, they belonged to sequence types in addition to carrying virulence factors often associated with human extraintestinal pathogenic *E. coli* infections. Thus, the potential risk of transmitting these strains to humans cannot be underestimated especially if sick birds are dispatched into the thriving poorly regulated Cornish hen industry. The need for routine veterinary surveillance and monitoring of antimicrobial resistance, AMU and the importance of strengthening regulations guiding the informal poultry sector remains important.

AU4 ►

Keywords: colistin, carbapenem, *mcr-1*, *E. coli*, chicken, AMR

Introduction

ANTIMICROBIAL RESISTANCE IS a major concern with both veterinary and human bacterial agents not only being multidrug resistant but also increasingly becoming extreme drug resistant (Durdu et al., 2019; Klima et al., 2014; Lubbers and Hanzlicek, 2013; Park et al., 2009; Sweeney et al., 2018; Walther et al., 2017). This concern has been reported in Gram-negative superbugs, such as *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Escherichia coli*, and *Acinetobacter*

baumannii, which are not only major human pathogens but are also responsive to few antimicrobials, notably colistin and carbapenems (Cassir et al., 2014; Parchem et al., 2016; Park et al., 2009). With such limited therapeutic selection, resistance to these remaining drugs is of concern (Durdu et al., 2019). While resistance in people would likely arise from the direct use of antimicrobials, the zoonotic potential of organisms and their role in transmissible resistance needs to be considered especially from foodborne microbial contamination.

For colistin resistance, concern lies with mobilized colistin resistance (*mcr*), which has emerged as a global concern in both human and animal health sector (Liu et al., 2016; Luo et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020a; Xavier et al., 2016; Yin et al., 2017). Since their first description by Liu et al. (2015), 10 different *mcr* coding genes have been identified (Li et al., 2020; Luo et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2020a).

AU5 ▶

The overuse of colistin in poultry, pig, and calves has been singled out as a major driver for *mcr* gene selection and resistance development (Liu et al., 2016; Luo et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2018; Trung et al., 2017). Of concern is that the *mcr* gene is transferable within and between bacterial species via plasmid conjugation conferring resistance to an otherwise known susceptible strain (Liu et al., 2016). Thus, with the relatively high incidence of these *mcr* genes among veterinary organisms, it raises the question on the subsequent threat on human health (Zhang et al., 2016).

Another concern is the increasing incidence of carbapenemase-producing *Enterobacteriaceae* from animal and animal products (Abdallah et al., 2015; Al Bayssari et al., 2015; Fischer et al., 2012; Köck et al., 2018). While it is not fully understood how this occurs as carbapenems use is highly limited in animals due to costs (Madec et al., 2017), the implications of carbapenemase-producing *Enterobacteriaceae* in animals are far reaching due to the potential for zoonotic transmission. In humans, carbapenemases render most penicillins, cephalosporins, and carbapenems ineffective (Doi and Paterson, 2015; Zmarlicka et al., 2015). Moreover, strains carrying genes encoding the carbapenemases have been shown to spread and persist (Abraham et al., 2016; Fischer et al., 2017) and have tendencies of transferring resistance genes to other microorganisms (Castanheira et al., 2013).

Of greater concern than the veterinary organisms carrying resistance to either carbapenems or colistin alone has been the co-occurrence of *mcr-1* and carbapenemase-encoding genes (*bla_{NDM}*) in *E. coli* strains in chicken meat, chicken ceca, cloaca swabs, and/or feces (Liu et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2017b; Yao et al., 2016). While not properly characterize, the co-expression of resistance genes has in part been attributed to environmental contamination from dogs, flies, and wild birds (Wang et al., 2017b), highlighting the need for a holistic approach in tackling antimicrobial resistance (AMR).

With both colistin and carbapenems resistance being individually noted in several apparently susceptible strains (Apostolakos and Piccirillo, 2018; Fattouh et al., 2016; Hassan et al., 2021; Karlowsky et al., 2017; Lentz et al., 2016), a scenario of silent co-resistance gene transfer to humans and/or animals is a concern. The aim of this study was to investigate co-resistance to colistin and carbapenems among *E. coli* isolated from poultry in South Africa, the virulence genes carried and their potential risk on human health. Furthermore, resistance to several other clinically relevant antibacterial agents was evaluated.

Materials and Methods

Study population and sampling

Ethical approval for this study was obtained from the University of Pretoria animal ethics committee (V098-17). The study used biobanked *E. coli* strains ($n=46$) isolated by Deltamune (Pty) Ltd bacteriology laboratory in 2018 from unhealthy domestic chicken (*Gallus gallus*) in Pretoria,

South Africa. Of the isolates, 40 (87%) originated from breeder hens, whereas the rest (13%, 6/46) were obtained from broiler birds. Samples were obtained during postmortem evaluation at multiple farm locations from suspected cases of colibacillosis. Additional information on specific tissues sampled during postmortem is not accessible; however, these are typically aseptically collected swab samples from presenting lesions.

Isolation of *E. coli*

Samples were processed within 36 h of collection using standard bacteriological methods, as previously published (Theobald et al., 2019). In brief, *E. coli* were isolated on 5% Oxoid blood tryptose agar and Oxoid MacConkey agar without salt and crystal violet (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Hampshire, United Kingdom). Plates were incubated aerobically for up to 24 h at 37°C. Single red non-mucoid presumptive *E. coli* colonies per sample were subjected to biochemical test using Kovack's reagent (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany), and oxidase reagent (Merck) with Selecta-media Hugh–Leifson tubes (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Antibacterial susceptibility testing

Susceptibility was determined using the WalkAway 40 plus MicroScan machine (Beckman Coulter, Inc., CA) as per instructions. Antibiogram was obtained automatically after 18–24 h of bacterial growth against selected agents (Table 2). For quality control, *E. coli* ATCC 25922 and a known colistin-resistant strain were included in the analysis. All interpretations were carried out using the EUCAST (European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing) and CLSI (Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute) guidelines of 2019 and 2018, respectively (CLSI, 2018; EUCAST, 2019).

Multiplex polymerase chain reaction assay

All isolates were subjected to a multiplex polymerase chain reaction (PCR) to detect the presence of *mcr-1* to 5 genes associated with colistin resistance, and the *bla_{OXA-48}*, *bla_{NDM-1}*, and *bla_{VIM}* genes associated with carbapenem resistance. The gene primer sequences used were as described by previous researchers (Borowiak et al., 2017; Gonçalves et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2016; Poirel et al., 2011; Rebelo et al., 2018; Samuelsen et al., 2011).

Colistin multiplex reaction. MCR-1-positive strain and a *mcr-5* DNA available at the University of Pretoria were used as positive controls. For every *mcr* PCR conducted, 12.5 μ L of DreamTaq Green 2 \times Master Mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA), 6.5 μ L of nuclease-free water, 0.5 μ L of each primer solution (10 μ M), and a microliter of DNA lysate were used. The thermocycling condition was maintained at 94°C for 15 min +25 \times (94°C for 30 s + 58°C for 90 s + 72°C for 60 s) +72°C for 10 min, using a MiniAmp Plus Thermal Cycler (Thermo Fisher Scientific) (Cavaco et al., 2016).

Carbapenem multiplex reaction. For every *bla* PCR conducted, 12.5 μ L of 2 \times MyTaq HS Master Mix (Bioline, London, United Kingdom), 8.5 μ L of nuclease-free water, 0.5 μ L of each primer solution (10 μ M), and a microliter of DNA lysate were used. Positive and negative controls were included for all

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runs. The thermocycling condition was maintained at 95°C for 2 min +35 × (95°C for 30 s + 57°C for 40 s + 72°C for 60 s) +72°C for 3 min. Resulting amplicons were subjected to agarose gel electrophoresis, as described previously.

Whole-genome sequencing

Colistin-resistant isolates were subjected to whole-genome sequencing using an Illumina MiSeq Technology (Illumina, Inc., San Diego, CA), as previously described (Trung et al., 2017). Nucleotide sequences were blasted through the ResFinder, PlasmidFinder, and VFDB (Virulence Factor Database) databases to identify antibacterial resistance genes, plasmids, and virulence factors, respectively, within the strains (Carattoli et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2005; Zankari et al., 2012). Multilocus sequence typing was also undertaken to characterize strains into sequence types (ST) using the putative seven housekeeping genes, i.e., *adh*, *fumC*, *gyrB*, *icd*, *mdh*, *purA*, and *recA* (Paul et al., 2013; Wirth et al., 2006).

Data management and analysis

The antibacterial resistance phenotypes of strains were coded in SPSS (IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version AU7 ▶ 26.0; IBM Corp, Armonk, NY) with proportions of ABR and

multiple drug resistance (MDR) determined. The MIC₉₀ of the various drug compounds tested were extrapolated directly from the MicroScan machine. ◀AU8

Results

Antibacterial susceptibility

Following antibiogram analysis, almost all (97.8%, 45/46) strains were resistant to at least one antibacterial drug. *E. coli* were resistance to tetracycline (82.2%) and the beta lactams (ampicillin [63%], ampicillin/sulbactam [60.9%], and piperacillin [57.8%]). Significantly, 10.9% of isolates were resistance to colistin and 6.5% to the fourth-generation cephalosporin and cefepime. No carbapenem resistance was detectable (Table 1). Multiple drug resistance (MDR) was noted in 84.8% (39/46, 95% confidence interval 71.1–93.7) of the *E. coli* isolates, with two strains being phenotypically classified as ESBL producers by the MicroScan. ◀T1 ◀AU9

Multiplex PCR and gel electrophoresis

Following multiplex PCR, five strains demonstrated the presence of *mcr-1* gene (Fig. 1). These strains represent all colistin-resistant isolates obtained from this study. None of the strains carried *mcr-2* to 5; *bla*_{OXA-48}, *bla*_{NDM}, and *bla*_{VIM} genes. ◀F1

TABLE 1. ANTIBIOTIC RESISTANCE PROPORTION OF CLINICAL AVIAN *ESCHERICHIA COLI* ISOLATES OBTAINED FROM SOUTH AFRICA IN 2018

<i>Drug compounds</i>	<i>Estimate (%)</i>	<i>95% CI Lower-upper</i>	<i>MIC₉₀</i>	<i>BP</i>
Amikacin	2.2 (1/45)	0.1–11.5	8	>16
Ampicillin	63.0 (29/46)	47.5–76.8	>16	>8
Aztreonam	10.9 (5/46)	3.6–23.6	8	>4
Cefotaxime	47.8 (22/46)	32.9–63.1	8	>2
Cefoxitin ^a	39.1 (18/46)	25.1–54.6	>16	≥32
Ceftazidime	41.3 (19/46)	27.0–56.8	16	>4
Cefuroxime	47.8 (22/46)	32.9–63.1	>16	>8
Chloramphenicol	11.1 (5/45)	3.7–24.1	>16	>8
Ciprofloxacin ^a	15.2 (7/46)	6.3–28.9	>2	≥4
Colistin	10.9 (5/46)	3.6–23.6	>4	>2
Doripenem ^a	0.0 (0/45)	0.0–07.9	1	≥4
Ertapenem	0.0 (0/46)	0.0–07.7	0.5	>0.5
Gentamicin	37.8 (17/45)	23.2–52.5	>8	>4
Imipenem	0.0 (0/46)	0.0–07.7	1	>4
Levofloxacin ^a	8.7 (4/46)	02.4–20.8	4	≥8
Meropenem	0.0 (0/46)	0.0–07.7	1	>8
Minocycline ^a	20.0 (9/45)	9.6–34.6	>8	≥16
Nalidixic acid ^a	45.7 (21/46)	30.9–61.0	>16	≥32
Nitrofurantoin	2.2 (1/46)	0.1–11.5	32	>64
Norfloxacin	33.3 (15/45)	19.5–48.0	>1	>1
Piperacillin	57.8 (26/45)	42.2–72.3	>64	>16
Piperacillin/tazobactam	0.0 (0/45)	0.0–07.7	8	>16/4
Tetracycline ^a	82.2 (37/45)	67.9–92.0	>8	≥16
Tigecycline ^a	0.0 (0/46)	0.0–07.7	1	>1
Trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole	30.4 (14/46)	17.7–45.8	>4	>4/76
Tobramycin	6.7 (3/45)	1.4–17.9	4	>4
Cefepime	6.5 (3/46)	1.4–17.9	1	>4
Ampicillin/sulbactam	60.9 (28/46)	45.4–74.9	16	>8/4
Amoxicillin/clavulanate	43.5 (20/46)	28.9–58.9	>16	>8/2

Values in parenthesis (n/N).

^aCLSI and EUCAST breakpoints were used for interpretation.

BP, break point; CI, confidence interval; CLSI, Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute; EUCAST, European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing; MIC₉₀, minimum inhibitory concentration required to kill 90% of the bacterial population.

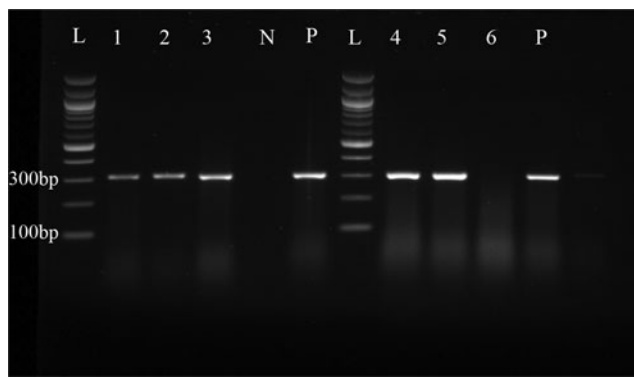


FIG. 1. Gel image of APEC strains carrying the *mcr-1* gene (309 bp) following PCR and electrophoresis. APEC, avian pathogenic *Escherichia coli*; L, DNA step ladder; N, negative control; numerals 1–5, positive strains; 6, negative strain; P, positive control; PCR, polymerase chain reaction.

Whole-genome sequencing

Sequencing confirmed the presence of the *mcr-1* gene, together with several other resistance genes and plasmids (Table 2), and were in agreement with the phenotypic resistance displayed.

T2 ▶

All five strains carried virulence genes coding for the flagella (*flgGH*, *fliIMPG*, *flhA*), enterobactin (*entDFSCBEA*, *fepACGDB*, *fes*), type I fimbriae (*fimBEHGFDCIA*), type III

secretion system (*espXRLY*), curli (*csdBDEFG*), adhesin (*fdeC*), outer membrane protein (*ompA*), and chemotaxis regulatory protein (*cheY*). In addition, some strains possessed genes coding for heat stable enterotoxin (*astA*), putative arylsulfatase (*aslA*), toxin subunit (set 1A/B), serine protease precursor (*pic*), temperature-sensitive hemagglutinin (*tsh*), aerobactin, salmochelin receptor, and the *shu* locus protein.

Discussion

Despite having a very organized poultry industry, South Africa also has a thriving informal poultry sector where trade of live birds is poorly regulated (Abolnik, 2007). A common practice is the trade of spent breeder and layer hens from commercial farms to the informal township markets where they are slaughtered and dressed in the open (Abolnik, 2007; Fourie, 1995). With some local consumer’s preference for this so-called “Cornish” or “Rocks” hens as source of poultry meat and about 25 million birds in production at any given time (Abolnik, 2017), the potential risk of an antibacterial resistant strain being transmitted to a human cannot be underestimated. More so that human contact with some of these live birds could potentially pose a risk.

Carbapenem and colistin resistance

Unlike studies in China which demonstrated chicken *E. coli* lineage co-harboring *mcr-1* and carbapenemase resistance genes (Lin et al., 2020; Liu and Song, 2019; Yang

TABLE 2. RESISTOME AND PLASMID CONTENT OF AVIAN PATHOGENIC *ESCHERICHIA COLI* STRAINS ISOLATED FROM CHICKEN

ID	Phenotypic resistance	Resistance genes	Plasmids	Sequence types
1	Ampicillin, chloramphenicol, colistin, tetracycline, sulfamethoxazole	tet(A), blaTEM-1B, mcr-1.1, mdf(A), tet(34), aac(3)-Ib, aadA2, cmlA1, ant(3'')-Ia, sul3, mef(B), tet(M)	IncFII, ColRNAI, IncFIA(HI1), Col(MG828), IncHI1B(R27), IncHI1A, p0111, IncFIB(AP001918)	7329
2	Colistin, norfloxacin, tetracycline, trimethoprim, sulfamethoxazole, minocycline ⁱ	mcr-1.1, ant(3'')-Ia, dfrA14, mdf(A), tet(34)_1, tet(M), qnrS1, tet(A)	IncFIA(HI1), IncHI1B(R27), IncHI1A, IncX1, p0111	155
3	Ampicillin, chloramphenicol, ciprofloxacin, colistin, levofloxacin, norfloxacin, minocycline, nalidixic acid, nitrofurantoin, piperacillin, tetracycline, trimethoprim, sulfamethoxazole, ampicillin/sulbactam	mcr-1.1, aph(6)-Id, aph(3'')-Ib, sul2, oqxB, oqxA, tet(B), ant(3'')-Ia, dfrA14, tet(34), aph(3')-Ia, blaTEM-1B, mdf(A)	Col156, ColpVC, Col(MG828), Col(MG828), Col(MG828), IncI2, p0111, IncII, IncFIA, IncFIB(AP001918), IncFIC(FII), IncFII	156
4	Colistin, nalidixic acid, tetracycline, trimethoprim, sulfamethoxazole, minocycline ⁱ , norfloxacin ⁱ	tet(A), sul3, mcr-1.1, mdf(A), aph(3'')-Ib, aph(6)-Id, ant(3'')-Ia, dfrA12, aadA2, sul1	Col(MG828), IncI2, IncFIB(AP001918), IncHI2A, IncFIC(FII), IncFII, IncFIC(FII), IncFII, IncHI2, TrfA	117
5	Ampicillin, chloramphenicol, colistin, minocycline, piperacillin, tetracycline, trimethoprim, sulfamethoxazole, ampicillin/sulbactam, tobramycin ⁱ	catA1, ant(3'')-Ia, dfrA17, tet(B), oqxA, oqxB, sul2, aph(3'')-Ib, aph(6)-Id, mcr-1.1, blaTEM-1B, aph(3')-Ia, mdf(A), tet(34)	IncFIB(AP001918), IncQ1, Col156, IncFIC(FII), IncFII, IncI2	5764

Except for gentamicin, resistance phenotype associated with the specific aminoglycoside resistance gene identified was not tested for.

et al., 2016), none of the *E. coli* isolates in this study demonstrated phenotypic nor genetic resistance toward carbapenems. This absence of carbapenem resistance supports information that the carbapenems are not used for production due to cost. Also, it was important to demonstrate the absence of resistance since migratory birds and stray dogs have been implicated in the transmission of resistance (Wang et al., 2017b). While the co-expression of colistin and carbapenem resistance was not identified, five colistin-resistant strains that carried the *mcr-1* gene were noted.

This level of colistin resistance was similar to 13.6% (108/797) reported by Perreten et al. (2016). The observation was somewhat unexpected as South Africa has a restriction on use of colistin in the food-producing industry, a policy that came to effect in 2016. Countries that have implemented a similar restriction such as China, Portugal, and Great Britain have shown a decline in prevalence of *mcr-1*-associated colistin resistance in <5 years (Duggett et al., 2018; Fournier et al., 2020; Theobald et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2020b). While more recent data have now shown a decline in South Africa (3.61%) (NDoH, 2022), the present high colistin resistance could be indicative of continued colistin use despite the current veterinary restriction or due to colistin-resistant organism circulating in the farms.

Virulence factors and sequence types

AU10 ► WGS analysis in the *mcr-1*-containing strains ($n=5$) revealed that these strains possessed several virulence genes (*ompA*, *aslA*, *fdeC*, *csxBDEFG*, *fimH*, *iroN*, *iutA*, *iucDCBA*, *chuVUYWT*, *shuXAS*), known to play key roles in bacterial serum resistance, invasion of brain microvascular endothelial cells, adhesion, biofilm formation, iron acquisition, persistence, and evasion of host defense mechanisms (Burkhard and Wilks, 2007; Chairatana et al., 2015; Connell et al., 1996; de Lorenzo et al., 1986; Easton et al., 2014; Furrer et al., 2002; Gophna et al., 2001; Hoffman et al., 2000; Kim, 2001; Krishnan and Prasadarao, 2012; Müller et al., 2009; Nesta et al., 2012; Prasadarao et al., 1996; Prigent-Combaret et al., 2000; Saldaña et al., 2009; Shulman et al., 2018; Suits et al., 2009; Thompson et al., 1999; Tong and Guo, 2009; Vizcarra et al., 2016; Warner et al., 1981).

More importantly, some of these strains carried genes (*tsh*, *aslA*, *pic*) similar to those reported in human extraintestinal pathogenic *E. coli* and could potentially have zoonotic implications (Ewers et al., 2007; Habouria et al., 2019; Moulin-Schouleur et al., 2006; Navarro-Garcia and Elias, 2011; Ronco et al., 2017). These genes play vital roles in hemolysis and invasion of the brain microvascular endothelial cells.

AU11 ► The ST117 strain stood out as it carried additional genes coding for toxins (*astA*, *set 1A/1B*) and hemolysin (*tsh*). This APEC lineage has frequently been associated with avian colibacillosis (Cummins et al., 2019; Ronco et al., 2017) and is being viewed as an emerging human pathogen globally associated with blood and urinary tract infections (Cummins et al., 2019; Macesic et al., 2017; Manges and Johnson, 2012; Mora et al., 2012; Quan et al., 2017; Vincent et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2017a). Indeed, this sequence type has been isolated from chicken meat meant for human consumption in the Netherlands (Kluytmans-Van Den Bergh et al., 2016).

Similarly, another *E. coli* sequence type (i.e., ST156) often associated with human infections was identified in the present

study (Bilal et al., 2021; He et al., 2017; Lin et al., 2020; Rashid et al., 2015). This sequence type has been isolated from fresh vegetables, human blood stream infections, and avian fecal swab in China (Lin et al., 2020; Liu and Song, 2019; Yang et al., 2016). Additionally, *E. coli* ST155 associated with human blood stream and urinary tract infections in Germany and Uganda, respectively, was also identified in the present study (Decano et al., 2021; Neumann et al., 2020). Two other rare sequence types (i.e., ST5764 and ST7329) were identified from a broiler and breeder hen, respectively.

Resistance to other antibacterials

Although the focus of this study was mainly on colistin and carbapenem resistance, a high proportion (82.2%) of isolates were resistant to tetracycline, with strains recruited for WGS possessing several *tet* genes (*tet A*, *tet B*, *tet M*, and *tet 34*). This may be due to the tetracyclines being readily available for over-the-counter use (Eagar and Naidoo, 2017; Mendelson et al., 2018) and being the second most consumed class of veterinary antimicrobials in SA, including the use for growth promotion (SANDH, 2018). **◀AU12**

Furthermore, they are widely used for treatment of bacterial infections, mycoplasma, chlamydial, and rickettsia avian diseases (Chopra and Roberts, 2001). Similar high proportions of tetracycline resistance have also been reported in other countries, including China, Nigeria, Egypt, Zimbabwe, and Senegal (Ahmed et al., 2013; Jiang et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2017; Olanmoye et al., 2013; Saidi et al., 2012; Vounba et al., 2018). In contrast, in Europe where more effective control measures are in place, the prevalence's of resistance are much lower (Mesa-Varona et al., 2020; VMD, 2019). From this, it is likely that the over-the-counter availability of the tetracyclines in South Africa is a major contributor to the resistance seen.

The proportions of isolates resistant to the penicillin's and cephalosporin's were also high due to the blaTEM-1B gene, which codes for β -lactamase enzymes, and could have resulted from the common use of the cephalosporin's, particularly ceftiofur to prevent mortality in day-old chicks (Agunos et al., 2017; Dutil et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2017). This higher than expected cephalosporin resistance could present a problem for humans if transferred through the food chain (Agunos et al., 2017; Dutil et al., 2010; Vieira et al., 2011), and potentially necessitate an increase use for last line defense drugs such as carbapenems and/or colistin (Gauzit et al., 2015; Nordmann and Cornaglia, 2012; Wilson, 2017).

Limitations

The origin of isolates used in this study is limited to one laboratory source; therefore, the results cannot be extrapolated to entire poultry population in the country due to variations in drug use patterns. In addition, only strains resistant to colistin were subjected to whole-genome sequencing. However, the latter does not preclude any meaningful conclusion drawn from strains lacking such analysis as our phenotypic data were consistent with the WGS results.

Conclusions

The *mcr-1* colistin gene is still present in *E. coli* isolates from the SA poultry industry, and it is a public health

concern. More so that some of these positive strains carry virulence genes similar to those associated with human diseases. The results seem to suggest that carbapenem resistance-associated genes and other colistin resistance determinants are uncommon among *E. coli* isolates in the poultry sector. Of concern is the high prevalence of resistance to the tetracycline and β -lactam classes of antibiotics, which could potentially present a problem if transferred through the food chain to humans. The outcome highlights the need for routine veterinary surveillance and monitoring of AMR to curb the spread. In addition, regulations guiding veterinary use of antimicrobials and practices in the poultry informal sector must be strengthened.

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Authors' Contributions

V.N.: Conceptualization, methodology, writing—review and editing, supervision, funding acquisition, and resources. I.Z.H.: Methodology, investigation, formal analysis, writing—original draft, review and editing, and project administration. D.N.Q.: Methodology, formal analysis, writing—review and editing, and supervision.

Disclosure Statement

No competing financial interests exist.

AU13 ► Funding Information

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