Genetic Profiling of Pathogens Associated with Pyroxia of Unknown Origin Treated for Plasmodiasis in Bayelsa State, Nigeria

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Authors’ contributions
This work was carried out in collaboration among all authors. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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ABSTRACT
Antimicrobial resistance of Salmonella is an increasing problem and has become a public health issue worldwide. Moreover, the evidences on hazard of therapeutic failure due to the increasing incidence of antimicrobial resistance among typhoidal antibodies and malaria are on the increase. This study was aimed at the genetic profiling of pathogens associated with Pyroxia of unknown origin treated for Plasmodiasis in Bayelsa State, Nigeria. A total of 1200 samples (200 Stool and 1000 blood) were collected from consented subjects in Federal Medical Center and Niger Delta University Teaching Hospital Bayelsa State, Nigeria. Blood samples were used for detection of Malaria parasites and Typhoidal antibodies while the stool samples were used for culturing on Salmonella-Shigella Agar. Antibiotic sensitivity of the pure isolates were carried out using sensitivity disc, biochemical analysis using API 20E was carried out to actually differentiate bacterial from
each isolates and finally by genetic profiling of the resistant genes of the pure isolates using polymerase chain reaction. Antiobiotic of the isolates showed high resistance to Oxacillin (73.6%), Ampicillin (66.6%), Tetracycline (60.0%), and Erythromycin (53.3%) while Gentamycin, Chloramphenicol 18(60%) and Azithromycin 18(60%) had the highest sensitivity. The distribution of resistant genes from the genetic profiling showed that out of 20 amplified isolates, NDM resistant genes were 17(85%) followed by Bla TEM genes 14(70%) followed by CTXM and SHV genes as 11(55%) and 10(50%) respectively. The bacterial isolates showed high AMR and MDR to the commonly used antimicrobial drugs and the distribution of ESBL genes revealed a high level of resistant genes in Bayelsa State.

1. INTRODUCTION

“Pyrexia of unknown origin have been a recurrent issue in Nigeria where malaria is endemic and antibiotic-resistant bacteria are a major threat to public health, causing community outbreaks of infectious diseases. Moreover the evidences on hazard of therapeutic failure due to the increasing incidence of antimicrobial resistance among typhoidal antibodies and malaria are on the increase” [1]. “Also, the antimicrobial resistance of Salmonella is an increasing problem and has become a public health issue worldwide” [2]. “Antibiotics with the greatest percentage of resistant isolates include Amoxicillin, Clavulanic acid, Ampicillin, Cefotirax, Cefoxitin, Chloramphenicol, Streptomycin, Sulfonamides, and Tetracyclines; however, the percentage of isolates resistant to these drugs has increased since 1997. The use of many unprescribed antibiotics in patients has limited the number of positive cases and is the major cause of the significant antibiotics resistance in the treatment of Salmonelliosis” [3].

“Apart from being costly, the culture facilities are limited outside the teaching hospital and they are not employed on a routine basis. Moreover, the isolation and the identification of organism may take several days” [4]. “Several methods have been developed for the detection, identification and characterization of resistant genes of Salmonella species. Some of these methods include, the amplification of 16s RNA, multiplex sequencing typing and other methods” [5].

Molecular diagnosis of bacteria is one of the preferred method and most accurate method in the diagnosis but may be very expensive and not accessible in our rural areas for effective diagnosis [5]. “Culture can take from 4 to 7 days in order to isolate and confirm the presence of bacteria from the sample” [6]. “Conventional culture methods used for the isolation of Salmonella include, non-selective pre-enrichment followed by selective enrichment and plating on selective and differential agars. Suspected colonies are then confirmed biochemically and serologically. More recently, a number of alternative methods for the detection of bacteria in stool have been developed including, immune-assays, nucleic acid hybridization and polymerase chain reaction (PCR) techniques” [7]. “The Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) has become a powerful tool in microbiological diagnostics during the last decade. PCR based methods combine 4 simplicity with a potential for high specificity and sensitivity in detection of pathogens” [7].

1.1 Aim

Genetic profiling of pathogens associated with pyrexia of unknown origin treated for Plasmodiasis in Bayelsa State.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study was carried out at Federal Medical Center Bayelsa State and Niger Delta University Laboratory Amassoma in Bayelsa State. This study was carried out for duration of one year. Consented subjects were enrolled for this simple random sampling method. Stool and blood samples of febrile patients associated with Typhoidal antibodies and malaria parasites from male and female were all collected for the study.

2.1 Sample Collection

Stool and blood samples were collected from consented subjects in Federal Medical Center and Niger Delta University Teaching Hospital Bayelsa State. A total of 1200 participants were recruited for this study. The blood samples were used for testing for Malaria parasites while the stool samples was used for culturing on Salmonella-Shigella agar. Antibiotic sensitivity of the pure isolates were carried out using
sensitivity disc, biochemical analysis while API 20E was used to actually differentiate each bacterial isolates and finally by genetic profiling of the resistant genes of the pure isolates using polymerase chain reaction.

3. RESULTS

The demonstration of antibiotic susceptibility testing of the studied isolates showed that chloramphenicol had the least resistant of (0) 0.0% with ampicillin showing the highest resistant value of 20 (66.6%).

Furthermore, Gentamycin had the highest susceptibility of 22 (73.3%) followed by Chloramphenicol and Azithromycin 18 (60%) each, while Erythromycin 4 (13.3%).

More so, all the antibiotics reported varying intermediate values which ranges according to the measurements of clarity on plates (Table 1).

The study revealed that out of the 200 culture isolates, 33 (16.5%) produced hydrogen sulphides when exposed to API20E.

Our findings further revealed that of the 33 isolates that produced Hydrogen sulphide, 29 (87.8) were urease positive while 4 (12.1%) were urease negative when exposed to API technique (Table 2).

The distribution of resistant genes among the bacterial isolates demonstrated that out of 20 bacterial isolates, 1 (5%) had the NDM genes.

Our findings further revealed that the bacterial isolates had 14 (70%), 17 (85%) and 10 (50%) for BlaTem, CTXM and SH respectively (Table 3).

### Table 1. Susceptibility of the studied isolates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Antibiotics</th>
<th>Resistant</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Susceptible</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ampicillin</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>66.6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Azithromycin</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ciprofloxacin</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ceftriaxone</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erythromycin</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>53.3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gentamicin</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rifampicin</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choramphenical</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Augumentine</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Streptomycin</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total**

**N = 30**

**KEY:** F= Frequency, N= Number of isolates

### Table 2. Number and percentage of stool samples isolates exposed to API20E

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Results</th>
<th>(n=200)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H2S (%)</td>
<td>33(16.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urea (%)</td>
<td>167(83.5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3. The distribution of resistant genes among the selected bacterial isolates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genes</th>
<th>Total No. of Isolates</th>
<th>No. of Resistant Isolates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BlaTem</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14(70%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTXM</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>17(85%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NDM</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1(5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHV</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10(50%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The agarose gel plate 16srRNA PCR amplification showed the 16srRNA gene was 1500 base pair on the plate. The 1500bp represents the molecular weight of the gene. The molecular weight of each amplified gene is determined by subjecting the amplicon on gel electrophoresis at 130 volt, 500 milliAmpere within 25 -30 minutes for migration of bands according to their sizes alongside with the DNA ladder (Plate 1).

Agarose gel electrophoresis of CTX-M gene of some selected bacteria isolates. Lane C1, C2, C3, C5, C6, C7, C8, C9, C10, C11, C12, C13, C14, C15 and C16 represent the CTX-M gene bands (550bp). Lane M represents the 100bp Molecular ladder.

The agarose gel plate CTX-M PCR amplification showed that CTX-M gene was 550 base pair on the plate and the 550bp represents the molecular weight of the gene (Plate 2).

Agarose gel electrophoresis of NDM gene of some selected bacteria isolates. Lane C1 C2 C3 C4 C5 C6 C7 C8 C9 C10 C11 C12 C13 C14 and C15 represent the NDM gene band (621bp). Lane M represent the 100bp Molecular ladder of 1500bp.

The agarose gel plate of NDM PCR amplification showed the NDM gene was 621 base pair on the plate, which represents the molecular weight of the gene (Plate 3).

Plate 1. 16SrRNA plate
Agarose gel electrophoresis of some selected bacterial isolates. Lane 1 – 11 represents 16SrRNA gene bands (1500bp). Lane M represents the 100bp Molecular ladder

Plate 2. CTXM plate
Agarose gel electrophoresis of CTX-M gene of some selected bacteria isolates. Lane C1, C3-C5 and C12-C16 represents the CTX-M gene bands (500bp). Lane M represents the 100bp Molecular ladder
Agarose gel electrophoresis of SHV gene of some selected bacteria isolates. Lane C1, C2, C3, C4, C5, C6, C7, C8, C9, and C15 represent the SHV gene bands (293bp). Lane M represents the 100bp Molecular ladder.

The agarose gel plate of SHV PCR amplification revealed the SHV gene is 281 basepair on the plate, which represents the molecular weight of the gene (Plate 4).

Agarose gel electrophoresis of BlaTEM gene of some selected bacteria isolates. Lane C1, C2, C3, C4, C5, C6, C7, C8, C9, C10, C11, C12, C13, C14 and C15 represent the BlaTEM gene bands (401bp). Lane M represents the 100bp Molecular ladder.

The agarose gel BlaTEM PCR amplification showed the BlaTEM gene is 400 basepair on the plate which signifies the molecular weight of the gene (Plate 5).

4. DISCUSSION

Antibiotics resistance have established in this study which is a serious concern to febrile patients in Bayelsa State. After culturing faecal samples on DCA and SSA media, it was further subjected to API test, which 4 (12.1%) were negative to Urease and 29 (87.8%) were positive to urease a pointer of co-infection (Salmonella and Proteus infection) or high sensitivity of the API kit. “The isolate resistance to a range of antimicrobials have emerged and threaten to become a severe public health problem” [8].

The obtained result was similar with Habrun et al. (2012), who reported that “100% of the isolates were sensitive to Chloramphenicol and Streptomycin, while 92 of the isolates (58%) were susceptible to nalidixic acid”. In addition, Okamoto et al., (2009) reported that “Chloramphenicol is the most effective antimicrobial for treating Salmonella infection”.

Antibiogram of the isolates showed high resistance to ampicillin (66.6%) and Erythromycin (53.3%). Chloramphenicol, when compared with other antibiotics has been the “gold standard” therapy since its introduction in 1948. “Treatment with Chloramphenicol reduces typhoid fever mortality from approximately 20% to 1% and fever from 14-28 days to 3-5 days” [9]. “The re-emergence of certain bacterial isolates to Chloramphenicol and study results in India showed that a high sensitivity of Salmonella enterica serovar Typhi to Chloramphenicol (96%)” [10].

Contrary to this present study, a high resistance rate of bacteria to Ceftriaxone (75%), Chloramphenicol (83.7%), and Gentamicin (75.6%)” have been reported Asrat (2018). Also, Chlebicz, and Slizewska, [11] said that “100% of Salmonella isolates showed sensitivity to doxycycline”, while, Shivhare et al. (2000) reported “high sensitivity of Salmonella spp. to ofloxacin, while all the isolates were resistant to...
sulfonamides trimethoprim”. Moreover, our results agreed with Snow et al. [12], who reported that “all isolates from commercial layer flocks in the UK were sensitive to amikacin”. The products in this study are similar to Zdragas et al. (2012), who reported “5% resistance to streptomycin and 2% to nalidixic acid but differed from Khan et al. (2010) 87.9% of Salmonella were sensitive to ciprofloxacin”. However, in this study, an intermediate resistance was detected in S. typhi isolate for ciprofloxacin. This finding is of concern as ciprofloxacin is a broad-spectrum antibiotic used in treating other bacterial infections in the study area. It is also used to treat enteric fever due to the emergence of multiple drug resistant (MDR) to first-line drugs like Chloramphenicol, ampicillin, and cotrimoxazole. “All isolates were resistant to more than one antimicrobial, indicating multiple drug resistance. These findings confirm that humans are reservoirs of multi-resistant Salmonella. However, this did not correlate with the antimicrobial resistance gene, suggesting that other mechanisms of acquired resistance could be present” [13,14].

The agarose gel electrophoresis plate in this study showed 16srRNA PCR amplification. The 16srRNA gene is 1500 basepair.

“Various virulence determinants in Salmonella species are associated with chromosomal and plasmid factors” [14]. All the identified isolates were subjected to PCR genotyping for the detection of some virulence determinants.
Molecular identification of the bacterial isolate resistant genes showed that the blaTEM gene, a gene encoding for β-lactamases resistance, was reported in the present study. This study result showed that 14 (70%) out of 20 bacterial isolates had the blaTem gene which was similar to an analysis performed by Hur et al., (2011), who said that 90.5% of penicillin-resistant bacterial isolates carried the blaTEM gene. In another study, the percentage of blaTEM was 10% which was identified in ten bacterial isolates (Ahmed et al. 2009). However, the blaTEM gene was detected in 51.6% resistant bacterial isolates from the study of Yang et al., (2010). Aslam et al. [15] reported that the percentage of blaTEM gene in isolated from retail meats in Canada was 17%, and this gene was the most common resistance gene found. According to Lu [16], a total of 108 S. indiana possessed the 81.2% blaTEM gene in their study. Similarly, SHV gene, encoding for streptomycin resistance was reported in the present study with a rate of 10(50%). This is in consonance with Shahada et al. (2006) who noted that all streptomycin-resistant S. infantis in Japan carried the SHV gene. Meanwhile Mohamed (2004) recorded 53.1% of study isolates possessed the SHV gene whereas on the contrary, Sheng et al. [17] reported a lower rate of SHV gene (3%) in only three isolates out of seventy-three bacterial isolates.

The results of this current study also revealed the detection of 16srRNA and NDM genes in the examined isolates. The detection of the 16srRNA NDM gene in the isolates was 17 (85%) out of 20 bacterial isolates which was also reported in other studies (Borges et al., 2013; Ahmed, 2016). However, lower frequencies of 80% (Streckel et al. 2004) and 50% in Zou et al. [18] were reported in bacteria isolates. “This variation could be attributed to recombination, which frequently occurs in the location of this gene” (Hopkins & Threlfall, 2011). “Consistent with the current results of the 16srRNA gene, it was previously identified in 100 and 88.2% of isolated from chicken samples in Brazil” (Boerges et al. 2013) and Egypt [19], respectively.

“Regarding results of the NDM gene, the obtained frequency of the NDM gene was comparable with other findings” (Chuanchuen et al., 2010; Ahmed, 2016). “However, different studies in Egypt reported detecting the gene with higher frequencies ranging from 100%” [20] to 41.2% [19]. “The considerable differences in virulence determinants of Salmonella serovars are attributed to the variation in sample sources, types of serovars, and the presence or absence of plasmids carrying virulence-associated genes” (Porwollik et al., 2004).

“These results indicate a high probability of identity between the R-plasmids found in bacterial, which usually encoded resistance to amoxicillin, Tetracycline, Chloramphenicol, sulfamethoxazole–trimethoprim, and cotrimoxazole. The cause of the increase in R factor-carrying bacteria is the selective pressure caused by antibiotics. It has been shown that the use of antibiotics in animals significantly increases the pool of R factor-carrying bacteria in the environment. It seems likely that the use of antibiotics for other non-medical purposes also helps the increase of the reservoir of R factors” (Hussian, 2015). “Many antimicrobial agents include penicillin, cephalosporin, Tetracycline, spectinomycin, Chloramphenicol, fusidic acid, sulfonamides, heavy metal, and other plasmid-mediated antibiotic resistance has been reported” [19,21-26].

5. CONCLUSIONS
Antibiotic misuse and self-medication is a great challenge to the world as more bacteria have continued to produce antibiotic resistant genes. The high susceptibility of chloramphenicol, gentamycin and ceftriaxone are indicative of the sustenance in the use of gentamycin and ceftriaxone as first-line antibiotic options for typhoid fever. The bacterial isolates showed high AMR and MDR to the commonly used antimicrobial drugs and the distribution of ESBL genes revealed a high level of resistant genes in Bayelsa State. It could be concluded that the antimicrobial resistance genes of the bacterial isolates were extensively vast in the study area, thus leading to minimizing the influence of antibiotics efficacy in both treatment and prevention. Therefore, other tools of prevention and treatment are essential to avoid this problem.

CONSENT AND ETHICAL APPROVAL
An informed, written consent was obtained from all participants after explanation of the purpose of the study. Ethical approval was gotten from the ethics committee from Federal Medical Center, Bayelsa State, Nigeria where the study was carried out.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT
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COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

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