

#### Menoufia Veterinary Medical Journal

https://vmmj.journals.ekb.eg



MVMJ. Vol. 1 (1)

# Molecular Characterization, Serotyping, and Antimicrobial Resistance Profiles of *Escherichia coli* Isolates from Companion Animals in El-Menoufia Governorate, Egypt

El-Hofy<sup>1</sup>,F. Alfayomy<sup>2</sup>,A,S. Ramadan<sup>3</sup>,M,M. Mosleh<sup>4</sup>,A,A.Essa<sup>5</sup>,R,I.

Bacteriology, immunology and mycology department, faculty.vet.Med.,Benha Univ.<sup>2</sup> Anatomy and Emberiology department.Fac.Vet.Med.,Menoufia Univ.<sup>3</sup> Bacteriology ,Mycology and Immunology department, Fac.Vet.Med.,Menoufia Univ.<sup>4</sup> department of bacteriology at Animal Health Research Institute, Shebeen-EL-KOM branch.<sup>5</sup>B.V.Sc.,Fac.Vet.Med.,Benha Univ.,(2019).

#### **ABSTRACT**

#### **Key words:**

Antimicrobial resistance, *E coli*, pet animals and Phylogroups ·

#### Correspondence

rawdaessa20@gmail.com

Article History Received: 04 Nov 2024. Accepted: 24 Nov 2024 They have been further divided into seven *E. coli* pathotypes based on the various virulence characteristics All domestic animals and the environment contain *Escherichia coli*, which is easily dispersed throughout various compartments. *E.coli* is also a "highly relevant and representative indicator of the global antimicrobial resistance (AMR) problem," according to the World Health Organization (WHO). It is categorized into multiple pathotypes that cause intestinal and extraintestinal diseases, including skin and soft tissue infections, gastroenteritis, urinary tract infections (UTI), and septicemia. A total no. of 100 (urine ,nasal and stool) samples were collected from the El-Menoufia governorate (40 dogs, 50 cats, and 10 Egyptian nisnas), In addition, further identification of *E.coli* species was performed using PCR targeting for the *16srRNA* gene. The results showed that *E.coli* was isolated with incidence of 19 (47.5%), 21 (42%) and 2 (20%) from dogs ,cats and Egyptian nisnas respectively. All detected *E. coli* isolates harbored the *16srRNA* gene.

PCR technique were applied to detect the beta lactamases resistance genes (blaSHV, blaTEM, blaCTXM, and blaOXA). Each isolate has the gene blaTEM, one isolate has the genes blaSHV and blaTEM, and four isolates have the genes blaTEM and blaCTXM. With the Incidence of (100%) blaTEM, (40%) blaCTXM and (10%) blaSHV.

and clinical changes brought about by pathogenic *E. coli* strains: Shiga-like toxin producing (STEC), enterotoxigenic/heat-labile/heat-stable enterotoxins generating (ETEC), diffusely adherent (DAEC), enteroinvasive (EIEC), enterohemorrhagic (EHEC), enteropathogenic (EPEC), and enteroaggregative (EAEC). From pets, phylogroup B2 was found to be quite prevalent. All isolates had the phylogenetic genes *chuA*, *yjaA*, and *tspE4.C2* detected by PCR, except for two isolates which lacked *tspE4.C2*.

#### INTRODUCTION

One of the earliest microorganisms to enter the human intestine after birth is *Escherichia coli*, a Gramnegative bacterium. On the other hand, *E. coli* frequently causes infections in the gastrointestinal system and other areas of both human and animal bodies. More specifically, appendicitis, pneumonia, meningitis, endocarditis, and gastrointestinal infections are among the several dangerous illnesses and diseases that *E. coli* can cause, but it usually causes urine infections [1, 2, 3].

Because it may cause severe infections in both humans and animals, *E. coli* is a unique bacterium in the world of microbiology. But it also has a significant impact on the autonomic microbiota of various hosts. The main mechanism of *E. coli* pathogenicity is the transfer of resistant *E. coli* between humans and animals through a variety of pathways. *E. coli* is a major source of resistance genes in veterinary and human medicine that may be the cause of treatment failures [4].

Escherichia coli (E. coli) is a common cause of gastrointestinal illnesses and a factor in the development of antibiotic resistance in both people and animals [5]. Shigatoxigenic E. coli (STEC), attaching and effacing shigatoxigenic E. coli (AESTEC), enterotoxigenic E. coli (ETEC), and enteropathogenic E. coli (EPEC) are

and cats, beta-lactam antibiotics are the most commonly prescribed antimicrobial medicines. However, a considerable rise in resistant *E. coli* isolates was seen following oral administration of amoxicillin-clavulanic acid [8].

Escherichia coli typically exhibited 100% ampicillin and 100% amoxicillinclavulanic acid resistance. Extendedspectrum β-lactamases (ESBLs) genotypes, particularly blaCTX-M, blaTEM, and blaSHV, were shown to be quite prevalent, may have important consequences for the health of pets, veterinary professionals, and pet owners as well as the environment [9].

Using molecular phylotyping on multiple strains of *E. coli* may help identify the links between them. Three genetic markers (*chuA*, *yjaA*, and *tspE4.C2*) were used to categorize *E. coli* isolates into four phylogenetic groupings (A, B1, B2, and D) [10].

some of the pathotypes of pathogenic *E. coli* that were grouped based on their virulence determinants [6].

The presence of AMR genes, particularly those associated with ESBL, in E. coli isolated from veterinarians and healthy pets suggests that these E. coli sources may act as reservoirs for antibiotic resistance, increasing the possibility of negative effects on humans and animals. This is because E. coli is considered a great indicator of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) for a variety of species [4]. These results emphasize how crucial it is to apply efficient AMR management strategies in veterinary clinics because both humans and animals might harbor bacteria resistant to widely used antibiotics [7]. When treating gastrointestinal disorders in dogs

While phylogroups A and B1 are closely connected to commensal or enteropathogenic *E.coli* associated with animal infection, the majority of virulent human extraintestinal strains are made up of B2 and, to a lesser degree, D phylogroups [11].

There is little information available the relationships regarding between harmful Escherichia coli strains that are Multi Drug Resistant (MDR). Finding the phylogenetic groups for pet strains of E.coli was also necessary to validate the connection between these species. So, this study aimed to examine the phylogenetic groups and AMR genes in E.coli species isolated from pets to investigate potential connections between pathogenic MDR strains.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### 1. 2.1. Sampling:

**2.** Throughout the months of June through July and September of 2023, a total no. of

100 clinical samples were collected from the El-Menoufia governorate. Nasal, urine, and stool samples were obtained from 100 clinical samples from companion animals (40 dogs, 50 cats, and 10 Egyptian nisnas), In order to isolate *E. coli* bacteria, the samples were sent in a sterile plastic bag that had preserved in an ice box to Microbiology lab, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine's, Shebin El-Kom University /Egypt. Transport media (peptone water) (Himedia, India) (Oxoid, UK) were used to incubate them for 12 to 18 hours at 37 °C [12].

# 3. 2.2. Bacteriological and biochemical identification of *E. coli* isolates:

A loopful of infected peptone broth was streaked individually on blood agar plates (Himedia, India), Macconkey's medium, and (Oxoid, UK) provided the Eosin Methylene Blue (EMB) agar medium, which was incubated for 24 to 48 hours at 37 °C. [13]. Every probable isolate that was seen under a light microscope had Gram's stain applied in order to identify the morphological characteristics that made E. coli appear red rod-shaped. By employing conventional biochemical techniques, the likely E. coli isolates were identified, including the urea hydrolysis test, citrate utilization test, oxidase test, catalase test, indole test and H2S production test (Himedia, India).

# **2.3.** Serological Identification of *E. coli* isolates:

In order to determine Enteropathogenic types, Quick diagnostic *E. coli* antisera sets (DENKA SEIKEN Co., Japan) were used to serologically identify the isolates [14].

#### 2.4. Antimicrobial Susceptibility Test:

Examination of Microbiological Susceptibility All confirmed *E. coli* 

isolates were screened using the Kirby-Bauer disk diffusion method, and the data interpreted according to guidelines set forth by the CLSI. [15]. The antibiotics that were employed were ampicillin\sulbactam (SAM,30),gentamycin (GEN,10) µg, ciprofloxacin (Cip, 10 µg), erythromycin (E15 µg), doxycycline (Do,30 μg), ceftriaxone (CRO, 30 trimethoprim\ μg), sulphamethaxazole (SXT, 25 μg), amoxicillin\clavulanate (AMC,20\10 µg) (Oxoid, Biogram) as antibiotics.

Briefly, 5 mL of regular saline solution was mixed with 100–200 µL of the bacterial overnight broth, which had been adjusted to meet the 0.5 McFarland standard (0.5 x10<sup>8</sup> cfu/mL). Then, using a sterile glass spreader, 100 µL was applied to Mueller-Hinton agar plates (Himedia, India). The plates were then impregnated with the previously indicated antimicrobial discs and incubated aerobically for 24 hours at 37 °C. Following that, the zone of inhibition diameters was measured and interpreted using the standards suggested by the CLSI. [15].

#### 2.5. Molecular identification:

#### 2.5.1. DNA Extraction:

The boiling procedure, as outlined by Jackson. [16], was used to extract bacterial DNA. In short, presumptive isolates were resuscitated and extracted from the broth cultures. An aliquot of 1000µL of cell suspension containing 10<sup>7</sup> cells/mL from each of Escherichia coli was transferred to microtubes and incubated. suspensions were centrifuged at 4,500 rpm for 5 min at 4°C, and the pellets obtained were used for DNA extraction by boiling method with a modification. The collected material was placed into a tube containing 50 µL nuclease-free water, then subjected to boiling at 100°C for five minutes. The mixture was centrifuged at 3000g for 10

The DNA-containing upper minutes. aqueous phase was transferred into a separate 2 ml Eppendorf tube and 0.7 volumes of cold absolute ethanol was added. The aqueous phase was recovered by centrifugation for 20 min, and genomic DNA was precipitated by ethanol. The pellet was washed in cold 70% ethanol then after a further centrifugation step the ethanol was removed, and the nucleic acid pellet was allowed to dry before being resuspended in aqueous TE buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, 1 mM EDTA, pH 8.0). The process requires three times centrifugation to collect the cells, to eliminate the cell debris after the boiling procedure to pellet the total precipitated DNA [17], and 1 milliliter of isolates on nutritional broth was created. The DNA templates were kept for subsequent molecular analysis at -20°C

# 2.5.2. Presumptive Isolate Molecular Identification

Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) methods were used to confirm the presumed isolates, and agarose gel electrophoresis (AGE) was used to evaluate the PCR results [18]. Table 1 lists the oligonucleotide primers that were employed as well as the cycling conditions.

### **2.5.2.1.** Molecular identification of *E. coli* isolates:

16SrRNA primer were used for detetion of 16SrRNA gene to confirm the isolated E. coli strains.

### 2.5.2.2. Phylogrouping of the *E. coli* isolates:

The Clermont method was used to phylogroup various *E. coli* strains according to the presence or lack of three particular genes (*chu*A, *yja*A, and *tspE4.C2*) in order to ascertain the relationships between *E. coli* pathotypes,

phylogroups, and antibiotic resistance (Table 1). According to Clermont. [10], Using the phylogenetic grouping approach, *E. coli* strains can be divided into four phylogroups: A (*chu*A-/*TspE4.C2*-), B1 (*chu*A-/*TspE4.C2*+), B2 (*chu*A + /*yja*A +), and D (*chu*A + /*yja*A-).

# 2.5.2.3. Molecular identification of ESBL *E. coli* isolates:

Despite their phonotypical resistance, the antibiotic resistance genes of every isolated strain of *E. coli* were described at the molecular level. According to Fang. [19], Using the multiplex PCR assay was optimized to detect all target genes in a single reaction, ESBLs encoding the genes *bla*TEM, *bla*SHV, *bla*CTXM, and *bla*OXA were found.

Table(1):PrimersequencesforoligonucleotidesSource:Germany'sMetabion.

Bacteria	Gene	Sequence 53	A mp lifi ed pro du ct	Cycling conditions of the different primers during cPCR	Reference
E. coli	16srRNA	F:CCC CCT GGA CGA AGA CTG AC R:ACC GCT GGC AAC AAA GGA TA	40 1 bp	1 cycle (95 °C, 8 min) 30 cycles (95 °C, 30 s/58 °C, 30 s/72 °C, 30 s) 1 cycle (72 °C, 7 min	Wang et al., 2002
Antibiotic resistance gene (ESBLs)	blaSHV	F:CTT TAT CGG CCC TCA CTC AA R:AGG TGC TCA TCA TGG GAA AG	23 7 bp	1 cycle (95 °C, 5 min) 30 cycle (94 °C, 30 s/62 °C, 90 s/ 72 °C, 1 min) 1 cycle (72 °C, 10 min	Fang et al., 2004
	blaTEM	F:CGC CGC ATA CAC TAT TCT CAG AAT GA R:ACG CTC ACC GGC TCC AGA TTT AT	44 5 bp		Monstein et al. 2007
	blaCTXM	F:TATCAGAGGTAGTTGG CGTCAT R:GTTCCATAGCGTTAAG GTTTCATT	59 3 bp		Boyd et al. 2004
	blaOXA	F:ACA CAA TAC ATA TCA ACT TCG C R:AGT GTG TTT AGA ATG GTG ATC	81 3b p		Ouellette et al., 1987
Phylogroup encoding genes	ChuA	F:GAC GAA CCA ACG GTC AGG AT R:TGC CGC CAG TAC CAA AGA CA	27 9 bp	1 cycle (94 °C, 5 min) 30 cycle (94 °C, 30 s/55 °C, 30 s/72 °C, 30 s) 1 cycle (72 °C, 7 min)	Clermont et al., 2000
	YjaA	F:TGA AGT GTC AGG AGA CGC TG R:ATG GAG AAT GCG TTC CTC AAC	21 1 bp		Clermont et al. 2000
	TspE4.C2	F:GAG TAA TGT CGG GGC ATT CA R:CGC GCC AAC AAA GTA TTA CG	15 2 bp		Boyd et al.2004

#### 3.RESULTS:

#### 3.1. Incidence of *E. coli*:

Bacteriological analysis of 100 pet animal (urine, nasal ,fecal) samples from the El-Menoufia governorate (dogs (n = 40), cats (n = 50), and Egyptian nisnas (n = 10)) revealed isolation of *E-coli* strains. *E-coli* isolates are Gram-negative and has a round, red rod-shaped bacillus that grows on EMB agar media with a characteristic metallic green sheen and on the MacConkey agar plates They are pink to dark pink, dry, donut-shaped, and have a dark pink area where bile salts have precipitated. With biochemical findings, indole, MR. and citrate test are positive, but VP, urea test and H2S are negative.

Table 2 and Figure 1 showing that the incidence of  $E.\ coli$  isolates were (6/15) 40%. (6/20)30 %, cat, and (1/4) 25% in urine samples of dogs, cats, and Egyptian nisnas, respectively. In stool samples (9/15) 60, (10/20) 25%, and (1/4) 25% of dogs, cats, and Egyptian nisnas, respectively. In nasal samples (4/10) 40%, (5/10) 50%, and (0/2) 0% of dogs, cats, and Egyptian nisnas, respectively.

Table (2): the prevalence of *E. coli* isolation by sample type:

Species	Types	Total	No. of positive	Incidence
\Samples		no.	samples	%
Dogs	Urine	15	6	40
	Stool	15	9	60
	Nasal	10	4	40
	Total	40	19	47.5
Cats	Urine	20	6	30
	Stool	20	10	50
	Nasal	10	5	50
	Total	50	21	42
Egyption	Urine	4	1	25
nisnas	Stool	4	1	25

Nasal	2	-	0
Total	10	2	20

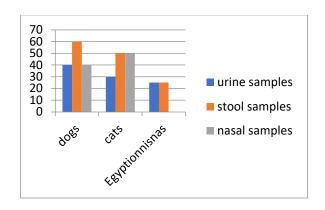


Fig. (1): the prevalence of *E. coli* isolation by sample type

#### 3.2. Results of *E. coli* Isolate Serotyping:

E. coli isolates from Egyptian nisnas (O119:K69 (EPEC/EHEC), auto agglutination) (urine, stool) were identified serologically (Table, 3). Dog E. coli isolates were identified by serology (O44:K74 (EPEC/EAggEC), O119:K69 (EPEC/EHEC), O164: K- (EIEC), O25:K11 (EPEC/ETEC), unidentified sample) (stool, nasal, urine, stool, respectively. But isolates from cats were (O44:K74 (EPEC/EAggEC), O44:K74 (EPEC/EAggEC), O119:K69 (EPEC/EHEC), O25:K11 (EPEC/ETEC), O125:K70 (EPEC/EHEC) (stool, nasal, urine, stool, stool), respectively.

Table (3): Serotyping of *E.coli* isolated from dogs, cats and Egyptian nisnas as pets (n=12):

Table (4): Patterns of antibiotic resistance in *E. coli* species isolated from household pets (dogs, cats, and Egyptian nisnas) (n= 42)

		Т		T .
Animal	Numbe	Type	Polyvalent	Monovalen
	r	of		t
		sampl		
		e		
Egyptia	2	Urine	II	O119:K69
n nisnas		Stool	auto	auto
			agglutinatio	agglutinatio
			n	n
Dogs	5	Stool	I	O44:K74
		Nasal	II	O119:K69
		Urine	III	O164:K-
		Stool	III	O25:K11
		Stool	unidentifie	Unidentifie
			d	d
Cats	5	Stool	I	O44:K74
		nasal	I	O44:K74
		Urine	II	O119:K69
		Stool	III	O25:K11
		Stool	I	O125:K70
Total	12	12	10	10

3.3.	Antimicrobial	susceptibility	patterns	of	<b>E</b> .
coli:					

The strains were highly susceptible to ciprofloxacin (73.8%), completely resistant to amoxicillin/calvulante (100%) and followed by ampicillin/sulpactam,

trimethoprim/sulphamethaxazole, erythromycin, doxycycline, and ceftriaxone (97.6%, 95.3%, 88.1%, 85.7%, and 80.9%), according to the results of the antimicrobial susceptibility patterns of *E. coli* is displayed in fig. (2) and table (4).

Antimicrobi	Antimicrobial	R	%	In	%	S	%
al	Agents \conc.			t.			
Class							
Quinolones	Ciprofloxacin	4	9.5	7	16.7	31	73.8
	(CIP 10)						
Tetracyclin	Doxycycline	36	85.7	6	14.3	0	0
e	(DO 30)						
Cephalospo	Ceftriaxon	34	80.9	1	2.4	7	16.7
rins	(CRO 30)						
Macrolides	Erythromycin	37	88.1	5	11.9	0	0
	e (E 15)						
Sulfonamid	Trimethoprim	40	95.3	0	0	2	2.7
es	\sulphametha						
	xazole (SXT						
	25)						
Aminoglyc	Gentamicin	16	38.1	26	61.9	0	0
oside	(GEN 10)						
B-lactams	Amoxicillin\	42	100	0	0	0	0
Penicillins	Calvulante						
	(AMC 20\10)						
	Ampicillin\	41	97.6	1	2.4	0	0
	Sulpactam						
	(SAM 30)						

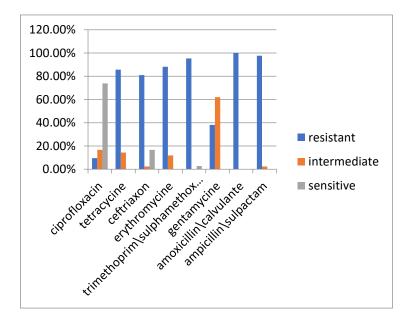


Fig. (2): Patterns of antibiotic resistance in E. coli species isolated from household pets (dogs, cats, and Egyptian nisnas) (n= 42)

# 3.4. Result of *16Sr*RNAgene detection in *E-coli* isolates by PCR:

Using the 16S rRNA primer, ten E. coli isolates were isolated from different samples of dogs (n = 4), cats (n = 4), and Egyptian nisnas (n = 2). All isolates have the I6S rRNA gene at 401 bp, as indicated in Fig( 10).

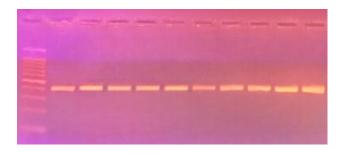


Fig 10: PCR for detecting *16srRNA* gene in *E. coli* strains.

Lane M: 100-1000 bp DNA marker; Lanes 1-10: Positive strains for *16srRNA* gene at 401 bp.

# 3.5. Multiplex PCR for detecting *bla*SHV, *bla*TEM, *bla*CTXM and *bla*OXA genes in *E. coli* strains.

*E. coli* isolates can be tested using multiplex PCR to find the beta lactam resistance genes (*bla*SHV, *bla*TEM, *bla*CTXM, and *bla*OXA). Every isolate has the gene *bla*TEM, while isolate number seven has the genes *bla*SHV and *bla*TEM, and isolates 1, 3, 4, and 6 have the genes *bla*TEM and *bla*CTXM, as indicated in table (5) and Fig( 11).

Table (5): Multiplex PCR results for B lactam resistance genes

No.	Type	blaSH	blaTE	blaCTX	blaOX
of	and	V gene	M	M	A
isolat	origin		gene	gene	gene
e	of				
	sampl				
	e				
1	Urine	-	+	+	-
	(cat)				

2	Urine	_	+	_	_
2		_	T	-	_
	(nisna				
	s)				
3	Nasal	-	+	+	-
	(dog)				
4	Nasal	-	+	+	-
	(cat)				
5	Stool	-	+	-	-
	(dog)				
6	Urine	-	+	+	-
	(dog)				
7	Stool	+	+	-	-
	(cat)				
8	Stool	-	+	-	-
	(nisna				
	s)				
9	Stool	-	+	-	=
	(cat)				
10	Stool	-	+	-	-
	(dog)				

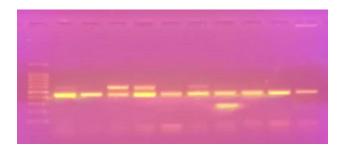


Fig 11: Multiplex PCR for detecting *bla*SHV, *bla*TEM, *bla*CTXM and *bla*OXA genes in *E. coli* strains.

Lane M: 100-1000 bp DNA marker.

Lanes 2, 5, and 8, 9, 10: Positive strains for *bla*TEM gene at 445bp.

Lanes 1, 3,4, and 6: Positive strains for *bla*TEM and *bla*CTXM genes at 445 and 593bp, respectively.

Lane 7: Positive strains for *bla*SHV and *bla*TEM genes at 237and 445 bp, respectively.

#### 3.6. Phylogenetic grouping of *E. coli*

By using PCR, phylogenetic genes (*chuA*, *yjaA*, and *tspE4.C2*) were found. All isolates have (*chuA*, *yjaA*, *TspE4.C2*) genes except isolates number (1,9) don't have (*tspE4.C2*) gene and all isolates from (B2) phylogenetic group as shown in table (6) and fig(12).

Table (6): PCR-based Phylogentic grouping of *E. coli* 

N	Type	chuA	Yja	tsp <b>E</b>	Phyl	Pathogenesis
0.	&	Gene	$\boldsymbol{A}$	4.C2	ogro	
of	origin		Gen	gene	up	
	of		e			
is	sampl					
ol	es					
at						
e						
1	Urine(	+	+	-	B2	EHEC/EPEC
	cat)					
2	Urine(	+	+	+	B2	EPEC
	nisnas					
	)					
3	Nasal	+	+	+	B2	EHEC/EPEC
3		+	+	+	D2	EHEC/EFEC
	(dog)					
L.	NT 1				D2	EA EC/EDE
4	Nasal	+	+	+	B2	EAggEC/EPE
	(cat)					С
5	Stool	+	+	+	B2	EaggEC/EPE
	(dog)					С
6	Urine(	+	+	+	B2	EIEC
	dog)					
7	Stool	+	+	+	B2	EaggEC/EPE

	(cat)					С
8	Stool(	+	+	+	B2	auto
	nisnas					agglutination
	)					
9	Stool	+	+	-	B2	EHEC/EPEC
	(cat)					
10	Stool	+	+	+	B2	ETEC/EPEC
	(dog)					

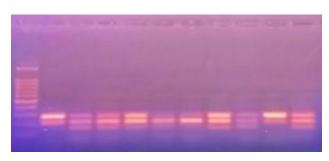


Fig 12: Triplex PCR for detecting *chuA*, *yjaA* and *TspE4*.C2 genes in *E. coli* isolates.

Lane M: 100-1000 bp DNA marker.

Lanes 1 and 9: Positive strains for *yjaA* and *chuA* genes at 211 and 279 bp, respectively.

Lanes 2,3,4,5,6,7,8 and 10: Positive strains for *TspE*4.C2, *yjaA* and *chuA* genes at 152, 211 and 279 bp, respectively.

#### **4.DISCUSSION**

One of the most important pathogens and the most prevalent commensal habitant of the gastrointestinal tracts of warm-blooded animals is *E. coli*. It is a member of the Enterobacteriaceae family of bacteria. *Escherichia coli* continues to be one of the most frequent causes of several common bacterial infections in pets. *E. coli* is the most frequent cause of newborn meningitis, septicemia, enteritis, urinary tract infections, and other clinical illnesses. Diarrhea in pets is also frequently linked to *E. coli* [20]. Pathogens known as Enteropathogenic *Escherichia coli* (EPEC) are linked to gastrointestinal disorders. Antimicrobial resistance may hinder required therapies, and EPEC can be present in dogs and cats [21].

The current study's bacteriological analysis of 100 pet animal samples (40 dogs, 50 cats, and 10 Egyptian Nisnas) collected from the El-Menoufia governorate showing that *E. coli* were isolated with an incidence of 19 (47.5%) in dogs, 21(42%) in cats, and 2(20%) in Egyptian Nisnas. These findings were consistent with kukanih.et al.[22], who indicated that *E. coli* isolated in pets had an incidence of 43% in dogs and cats.

Using the 16SrRNA primer in this study, ten *E. coli* isolates were examined by PCR. All isolates had the *16SrRNA* gene at 401 pb. This outcome was consistent with Handl et al. [23], who found that *16S rRNA* gene was present in most *E. coli* strains.

A varied set of bacteria commonly linked to gastrointestinal diseases are known as diarrheagenic *Escherichia coli* (DEC) strains. According to their virulence factors, some strains of *E. coli* can be

categorized as pathotypes, including Shiga toxinproducing E. coli (STEC), enteropathogenic E. coli enterotoxigenic Е. coli (EPEC). (ETEC). enteroaggregative E. coli (EAEC), enteroinvasive E. coli (EIEC), and enterohaemorrhagic E. coli (EHEC) [24]. Prior to the discovery of specific virulence components in dangerous strains, E. coli was mostly classified by the serologic identification of the O (lipopolysaccharide, LPS) and H (flagellar) antigens [20]. O44:K74 (EPEC/EAggEC), O119:K69 (EPEC/EHEC), O25:K11 (EPEC/ETEC), and O164: K- (EIEC) were the serologically identified dog isolates of E. coli in this study. This result was consistent with Ali et al. [25] who said that the serotype O164:K-(EIEC) of E. coli was also recovered from dogs.

The cat's E. coli strains which detected in this study identified serologically O44:K74 was O119:K69 (EPEC/EAggEC), (EPEC/EHEC), O25:K11 (EPEC/ETEC), and O125:K70 (EPEC/EHEC). This results agreeded with Krause et al. [26] who stated that pets and domestic animals are a substantial natural reservoir of AEEC strains, some of which are known to be human pathogens (O145:[H28],O177:[H11], O26:[H11],O128:H2, O103:H2).

To the best of our knowledge, the serological identification of *E. coli* from Egyptian nisnas, which was (O119:K69) (EPEC/EHEC), may have been the first documented in Egypt.

The pathogenic types of *E. coli* strains are determined by the host's clinical signs and the kind of virulence factor that is present. A collection of strains from the same species that produce a common disease is called

a pathotype. Three pathotypes are extra intestinal (ExPEC), and there are at least seven primary pathotypes of enteric *E. coli*. When contaminated food or water is ingested, intestinal diseases spread through the fecal-oral pathway. The majority of EPEC strains cause diarrhea in children and animals, particularly in cases when cleanliness is poor. Hemorrhagic colitis, or HUS, is frequently caused by the food-borne bacteria EHEC. Because they produce Shiga-like toxins (also called Shiga toxin producing *E. coli*, or STEC) that are similar to those produced by Shigella dysenteriae, typical EHEC strains are the most virulent diarrhoeagenic *E. coli* that have been identified to date [20,27].

According to the current investigation, E. coli's antimicrobial susceptibility patterns were 100% resistant to amoxicillin and calvulanate, extremely sensitive to ciprofloxacin (73.8%), and very resistant trimethoprim and sulphamethaxazole (95.3%). These findings concurred with Rybarikova et al. [28], who found that ampicillin, ciprofloxacin, and amoxicillin/clavulanic acid had lesser resistance at 35%, 2.0%, and 1.0%, respectively, and higher resistance to sulfamethoxazole/trimethoprim and nalidixic acid at 81% and 50%. Almeida et al. [29] who found reduced resistance to gentamicin and ciprofloxacin, disagreed with the same findings. Furthermore, Sobur et al. [30] found reduced gentamicin and ciprofloxacin resistance at 13.2% and 16.98%, respectively. He also showed how extended use of antibiotics contributes to the development of multidrug-resistant strains, hence monitoring antibiotic use is essential to lowering the risk of multidrug resistance.

In present study, the antimicrobial susceptibility patterns of *E. coli* in Egyption nisnas were 100% susceptible to ciprofloxacin and totally resistant to amoxicillin and calvulante. The resistant patterns of bacteria have been varied by geographical location and by time so periodically testing of antibiotic resistant is really important. *E. coli* strains are the leading causes of serious bacterial infections in health society .Mobile genetic elements including transposons, plasmids and integrons contribute to lateral transfer of resistance genes in bacteria. *E. coli* 

can be intrinsically resistant to some special antibiotics and have gens which are responsible for resistance to some of antibiotics such as aminoglycosides, flouroquinolones and  $\beta$ -lactamas[31–32].

Additionally, it was noted that dogs and cats may host multidrug-resistant (MDR) bacteria, and that MDR and Extended-spectrum beta-lactamases (ESBLs) are produced by *E. coli.* may spread zoonotically. Similarly, people can affected by their pets resistant bacteria [33],[34].

Numerous studies review and assess E. coli and other Enterobacteriaceae that produce ESBL/AmpC, with an emphasis on the molecular epidemiological and phylogenetic data now accessible for the chromosomal background and the acquired episomal  $\beta$ -lactamase types [35].

The PCR used in this research to determine the beta lactamases resistance genes (blaSHV, blaTEM, blaCTXM, and blaOXA) in isolates of E. coli showed that every isolate had the gene blaTEM, isolate number seven had the genes blaSHV and blaTEM, and isolates 1, 3, 4, and 6 had the genes blaTEM and blaCTXM, as indicated in table (5). These findings concurred with Ewers et al. [35] who found that the most significant intermediary of resistance to a variety of  $\beta$ -lactam antibiotics in E. coli is the synthesis of β-lactamase. The most common producers of β-lactamases are encoded on plasmids in E. coli. Gram-negative bacteria are increasingly developing multidrug resistance due to β-lactamases, which also give resistance to cephalosporins and penicillins.

There are numerous  $\beta$ -lactamase types that have been identified. Moreover, Awosile et al. [36] found that the *bla*SHV gene was present in a low percentage (1.1%), whereas the percentages of *bla*TEM, *bla*CMYII, and *bla*CTXM were 84.1%, 52.2%, and 30.7%, respectively.

Moreover, in the present study multiplex PCR for identifying beta lactamase resistance genes (blaSHV, blaTEM, blaCTXM, and blaOXA) in

Egyption nisnas isolates of *E. coli* showed that every isolate possessed the *bla*TEM gene.

BlaTEM-1 genes were found in ampicillin and/or amoxicillin resistant *E. coli* [37]. The *E. coli* isolates may be grouped into four phylogenetic groups (A, B1, B2, and D) according to the results of amplification for the C2 non-coding region and the *chuA*, *yjaA*, and *tspE4* genes [38]. *E. coli* strains were classified into phylogroups A, B1, B2, C, D, E, and F according to the Clermont procedure [39], which is based on the presence or lack of the genes *arpA*, *chuA*, *yjaA*, *trpA*, and *TspE4* [21].

Conditional extraintestinal pathogens B2 and D are members of a potentially pathogenic group that have virulence-related genes, while A and B1 groups are frequently identified in symbiotic groups [40].

Phylogenetic genes (*chuA*, *yjaA*, and *tspE4.C2*) were studied in the current investigation using multiplex PCR. It was shown that all isolates had these genes, with the exception of isolates 1 and 9, which lacked the *tspE4.C2* gene. Table (5) lists every isolate from the (B2) phylogenetic group. Using PCR, phylogenetic genes (*chuA*, *yjaA*, and *tspE4.C2*) may be found in Egyptian Nisnas isolates.

In the present study, the detected isolates were belonged to B2 which is the more virulent strains. This results in agreement with et al. litster et al.[41] who reported that the more virulent strains of ExPEC recovered from UTIs usually belong to the B2 and D phylogenetic groups of E. coli and E. coli phylogenetic group B2 was the most prevalent strains [42]. One potential zoonotic agent that could cause UTIs in humans is the E. coli phylogroup B2 [43]. Numerous studies have consistently indicated that the B2 phylogroup is substantially related with UTI in people [44] and [45]. Lazarus et al. [46] stated that the strains' molecular phylotyping revealed the existence of the B2 phylogroup, which accounts for a percentage of extraintestinal infections in humans. Conversely, Staji et al. [47] found that phylogroup B1 accounted for the majority of E. coli strains recovered from pets.

There is an anthropozoonotic relationship, which supports the theory that B2 UPEC strains are more

commonly derived from "animals that live with humans." Phylogroup B2 has been shown to include extraintestinal virulent strains (extraintestinal pathogenic *E. coli* [ExPEC]), which express numerous virulence factors, However, more recently, an increase in B2 phylogroup strains was observed in human [43].

#### 4. CONCLUSIONS

MDR E. coli strains are becoming a significant problem that spreads widely among pets and reduces the effectiveness of therapeutic medications. The main cause of diarrhea in pets may be pathogenic strains of Escherichia coli. Resistance to β-lactam antibiotics can be transmitted through antimicrobial phenotypic resistance, especially in isolates that are resistant to extended-spectrum cephalosporin (ESC. one or more resistance genes in combination. Controlling the use of antibiotics in pets and maintaining good cleanliness helps stop multidrug resistance in animals from the spreading.so extensive using antibiotics in treatment of pet animals should be controlled.

In the end, it helps to stop the using of ineffective antibiotics by facilitating the creation of biosecurity protocols antimicrobial usage standards. **Future** research should broaden the sampling and additional locations incorporate samples. Furthermore, deeper insights on MDR E. coli bacteria from diarrheal pets may be obtained by the use of whole genome or gene sequencing.

#### 5. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Collate acknowledgements in a separate section at the end of the article before the references and do not, therefore, include them on the title page. List here those individuals who provided help during the research (e.g., providing language help, writing assistance or proofreading the article, etc.).

#### Authors' declarations

#### **Publication consent**

Each author has demonstrated their consent for the publication of the current manuscript.

#### Data and material availability:

All data of this study is provided.

#### Conflict of interests.

All authors have stated the absence of any conflicts of interest.

#### Funding.

This research did not receive funding from any specific grant.

#### Authors' contributions.

K.M.S: Conceptualization, Formal Analysis, Investigation, Supervision, Resources, Writing – original draft

A.R.S: Data collection, Formal Analysis, Project administration, Resources, Writing – review and editing.

M.M.Z: Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal Analysis, Resources, Supervision, , Writing – review and editing.

#### **REFERENCES**

- [1] Zhao, W.-D., Liu, D.-X., Wei, J.-Y., Miao, Z.-W., Zhang, K., Su, Z.-K., Zhang, X.-W., Li, Q., Fang, W.-G., and Qin, X.-X. (2018). Casprl Is a Host Receptor for Meningitis-Causing *Escherichia Coli*. Nat. Commun. 9, 2296.
- [2 ]Akuzawa ,N.and Kurabayashi, M. (2018).Native Valve Endocarditis Due to Escherichia Coli Infection: A Case Report and Review of the Literature. BMC Cardiovasc. Disord. 18, 19.
- [3] Sarowska, J., Koloch, B.F., Kmiecik, A.J., Madrzak, M.F., Ksiazczyk, M., Ploskonska, G.B., and Krol, I.C.(2019). Virulence Factors, Prevalence and Potential Transmission of Extraintestinal Pathogenic *Escherichia Coli* Isolated from Different Sources: Recent Reports. Gut Pathog. 11, 10.
- [4] Poirel, L., Madec, J.Y., Lupo, A., Schink, A.-K., Kieffer, N., Nordmann, P., and Schwarz, S. (2018). Antimicrobial Resistance in *Escherichia coli*. In Antimicrobial

- Resistance in Bacteria from Livestock and Companion Animals; Schwarz, S., Cavaco, L.M., Shen, J., Eds.; ASM Press: Washington, DC, USA, 289–316. ISBN 978-1-68367-052-0.
- [5] Awosile, B., Reyes-Velez ,J., Cuesta-Astroz ,Y., Rodríguez-Lecompte ,J.C., Saab, M.E., Heider, L.C., Keefe ,G., Sánchez, J., and McClure, J.T. (2020). Short communication: whole-genome sequence analysis of 4 fecal *bla*CMY-2-producing Escherichia coli isolates from Holstein dairy calves. J Dairy Sci 103:877–883. https:// doi. org/ 10. 3168/ jds. 2019- 16560.
- [6] Thiry ,D., Saulmont, M., Takaki ,S., De Rauw ,K., Duprez, J.N., Iguchi ,A., Piérard, D., and Mainil ,J.G. (2017). Enteropathogenic *Escherichia coli* O80:H2 in young calves with diarrhea, Belgium. Emerg Infect Dis 23:2093–2095. https://doi. org/10.3201/eid2312.170450.
- [7] Buranasinsup, S., Wiratsudakul, A., Chantong, B., Maklon, K., Suwanpakdee, S., Jiemtaweeboon, S., and Sakcamduang, W. (2023). Prevalence and characterization of antimicrobial-resistant *Escherichia coli* isolated from veterinary staff, pets, and pet owners in Thailand. Journal of Infection and Public Health, 16, 194-202.
- [8] Jones ,P.H., Dawson, S., and Gaskell, R.M (2014). Surveillance of diarrhea in small animal practice through the small animal veterinary surveillance network (SAVSNET). Vet J. 201(3): 412-41.
- [9] Lott ,P., Stelick ,A., Wiedmann, M. and Martin ,N. (2024). Gram-negative post pasteurization contamination patterns of single-serve fluid milk produced in 4 different processing facilities, Journal of Dairy Science, 107, 3, 1334-1354.

- [10] Clermont ,O., Bonacorsi, S., and Bingen, E. (2000). Rapid and simple determination of the *Escherichia coli* phylogenetic group. Appl Environ Microbiol 66:4555–4558. https:// doi. org/ 10. 1128/ AEM. 66. 10. 4555- 4558. 2000.
- [11] Carlos ,C., Pires, M.M., Stoppe ,N.C., Hachich ,E.M., Sato ,M.I.Z., Gomes ,T.A.T., Amaral ,L.A., and Ottoboni ,L.M.M. (2010). *Escherichia coli* phylogenetic group determination and its application in the identification of the major animal source of fecal contamination. BMC Microbiol 10:161. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2180-10-161.
- [12] Rawy, D.K., El-Mokhtar ,M .A., Hemida, S .K., Askora, A., and Yousef , N. (2020). Isolation, characterization, and identification of *klebsiella pneumoniae* from Assiut university hospital and sewage water in Assiut governorate, Egypt. Assiut University journal of Botany and Microbiology, 49
- [13] Cruickshank, J.G, Duguid J.R, Marmion B.P, and Swain R.H.A (1975). Text book of medical microniology, 12 ed *Chu*rchill, living stone, Edinburgh and new york.
- [14] Kok,T., Worswich, D., and Gowans, E. (1996).Some serological techniques for microbial and viral infections. In Practical Medical Microbiology (Collee, J.; Fraser, A.; Marmion, B. and Simmons, A., eds.), 14th ed., Edinburgh, *Chu*rchill Livingstone, UK
- [15] Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (2017). Performance Standards for Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing. Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute; Wayne, NY, USA. 27th Informational Supplement. CLSI Document M100-S27.
- [16] Jackson, D.P., Lewis, F.A., Taylor, G.R., Boylston, A.W., and Quirke, P. (1990). Tissue

- extraction of DNA and RNA and analysis by the polymerase chain reaction. J. Clin. Pathol. 43:499–504. doi: 10.1136/jcp.43.6.499.
- [17] Ebomah, K., Adefisoye, M., and Okoh, A. (2018). Pathogenic Escherichia coli Strains Recovered from Selected Aquatic Resources in the Eastern Cape, South Africa, and Its Significance to Public Health. Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health. 15:1506. doi: 10.3390/ijerph15071506.
- [18] Sambrook,J., Fritscgh,E.F., and Mentiates,S. (1989). Molecular coloning. A laboratory manual.Vol !., Cold spring Harbor Laboratory press, New York.
- [19] Fang,H., Ataker F., Hedin .G. and Dornbusch K. (2008).Molecular epidemiology of extended-spectrum betalactamases among Escherichia coli isolates collected in a Swedish hospital and its associated health care facilities from 2001 to 2006, J Clin Microbiol ;46(2):707-12, doi: 10.1128/JCM.01943-07.
- [20] Kaper, J.B., Nataro, J.P., and Mobley, H.L(2004). Pathogenic *Escherichia coli*. Nat. Rev. Microbiol. 2004, 2, 123–140.
- [21] Feitosa, C. B., Dos Santos, G. S., Gaeta, N. C., Schiavi, G. D. S., Vasconcelos, C. G. C., Filho, J. M., and Cortez, A. (2024). Enteropathogenic and Multidrug-Resistant *bla* CTX-M-Carrying *E. coli* Isolates from Dogs and Cats. Animals, 14(17), 2463
- [22] KuKanich, K., Lubbers, B., & Salgado, B. (2020). Amoxicillin and amoxicillin-clavulanate resistance in urinary *Escherichia coli* antibiograms of cats and dogs from the Midwestern United States. Journal of veterinary internal medicine, 34(1), 227-231.

- [23] Handl,S., Dowd ,S. E., Garcia-Mazcorro,J. F., Steiner, J. M., and Suchodolski, J. S. (2011). Massive parallel 16S rRNA gene pyrosequencing reveals highly diverse fecal bacterial and fungal communities in healthy dogs and cats. FEMS microbiology ecology, 76(2), 301-310.
- [24] Gomes. T.A.T., Elias. W.P., Scaletsky. I.C.A., Guth. B.E.C., Rodrigues. J.F., Piazza. R.M.F., Ferreira. L.C.S., and Martinez. M.B.(2016). Diarrheagenic *Escherichia coli*. Braz. J. Microbiol.47, 3–30.
- [25] Ali, D. H. and Metwally, A. (2015). Characterization of enteropathogenic *E. coli* and antibiotic resistance properties in diarrheic pets.
- [26] Krause, G., Zimmermann,S., and Beutin, L. (2005). Investigation of domestic animals and pets as a reservoir for intimin-(eae) gene positive *Escherichia coli* types. Veterinary microbiology, 106(1-2), 87-95.
- [27] Servin, A.L.(2005). Pathogenesis of Afa/Dr diffusely adhering *Escherichia coli*. Clin. Microbiol. Rev. 18, 264–292.
- [28] Rybaříková "J., Dolejská, M., Materna ,D., Literák, I., Čížek ,A. (2010). Phenotypic and genotypic characteristics of antimicrobial resistant Escherichia coli isolated from symbovine flies. cattle and sympatric insectivorous house martins from a farm in the Czech Republic (2006-2007). Res Vet Sci 89:179–183. https://doi. org/10. 1016/j. rvsc. 02.016
- [29] Almeida, J.L. Giuffrida ,R. and Andrade, R.A.P.and Chaves ,M.P.(2014). Muscoid Diptera as potential vectors of bacterial agents on dairy farms in the northern region of Paraná, Brazil. Semin Ciênc Agrár 35:3127–3137. https://doi.org/10.5433/1679-0359. v 35n6p 3127

- [30] Sobur, A., Haque, Z.F., Sabuj ,A.A., Ievy, S., Rahman, A.T., El Zowalaty ,M.E., and Rahman, T. (2019). Molecular detection of multidrug and colistinresistant *Escherichia coli* isolated from house flies in various environmental settings. Future Microbial 14:847–858. https://doi.org/10.2217/fmb-2019-0053.
- [31] Magiorakos, A.P., Srinivasan, A., Carey, R.B., Carmeli, Y., Falagas, M.E., Giske, C.G., Harbarth, S., Hindler, J.F., Kahlmeter, G., and Olsson-Liljequist, B., (2012). Multidrug-resistant; extensively drug-resistant and pandrug-resistant bacteria: An international expert proposal for interim standard definitions for acquired resistance. Clin. Microbiol. Infect. 18, 268–281.
- [32] Bassetti. M.,Righi, E. (2013). Multidrugresistant bacteria: What is the threat? Hematology. 428–432.
- [33] Das, S., Kabir, A., Chouhan, C.S., Shahid, M.A.H., Habib, T., Rahman, M., and Nazir, K.N.H. (2023). Domestic cats are potential reservoirs of multidrug-resistant human enteropathogenic *E. coli* strains in Bangladesh. Saudi J. Biol. Sci. 30, 103786.
- [34] Jin. M., Osman, M., Green, B.A., Yang. Y., Ahuja, A., Lu. Z., and Cazer, C.L.(2023). Evidence for the transmission of antimicrobial resistant bacteria between humans and companion animals: A scoping review. One Health, 17, 100593.
- [35] Ewers, C., Bethe,A., Semmler, T., Guenther, S., and Wieler, L.H.(2012). Extended-spectrum beta-lactamase-producing and AmpC-producing Escherichia coli from livestock and companion animals, and their putative impact on public health: A global perspective. Clin. Microbiol. Infect, 18, 646–655.

- [36] Awosile, B., McClure, J., Sanchez, J., Rodriguez-Lecompte, J. C., Keefe, G., & Heider, L. C. (2018). Salmonella enterica and extended-spectrum cephalosporin-resistant *Escherichia coli* recovered from Holstein dairy calves from 8 farms in New Brunswick, Canada. Journal of dairy science, 101(4), 3271-3284.
- [37] Chang, S. K., Lo, D. Y., Wei, H. W., and Kuo, H. C. (2015). Antimicrobial resistance of Escherichia coli isolates from canine urinary tract infections. Journal of Veterinary Medical Science, 77(1), 59-65.
- [38] Ejrnæs , K., Stegger, M., Reisner, A. Ferry, S. Monsen, T., Holm, S.E. (2011). Characteristics of *Escherichia coli* causing persistence or relapse of urinary tract infections: phylogenetic groups, virulence factors and biofilm formation Virulence, 2 . 528-537.
- [39] Clermont, O., Christenson, J.K., Denamur, E., and Gordon, D.M.(2013). The Clermont *Escherichia coli* phylo-typing method revisited: Improvement of specificity and detection of new phylo-groups. Environ. Microbiol. Rep.5, 58–65.
- [40] Wang,Y., Zhou, J., Li, X., Ma,L., Cao, X., Hu,W., and Liu, Y. (2020). Genetic diversity, antimicrobial resistance and extended-spectrum β-lactamase type of *Escherichia coli* isolates from chicken, dog, pig and yak in Gansu and Qinghai Provinces, China. Journal of Global Antimicrobial Resistance, 22, 726-732.
- [41] Litster, A., Moss, S., Platell , J., and Trott, D.J. (2008). Occult bacterial lower urinary tract infections in cats—Urinalysis and culture findings, Veterinary Microbiology, 136, 1–2.130-134, ISSN 0378-
- 1135,https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vetmic.10.019.

- [42] Jakobsen, L., Garneau, P., Kurbasic, A., Bruant, G., Stegger, M., Harel, J., and Frimodt-Møller, N. (2011). Microarray-based detection of extended virulence and antimicrobial resistance gene profiles in phylogroup B2 *Escherichia coli* of human, meat and animal origin. Journal of medical microbiology, 60(10), 1502-1511.
- [43] Osugui, L., de Castro, A. P., Iovine, R., Irino, K., and Carvalho, V. M. (2014). Virulence genotypes, antibiotic resistance and the phylogenetic background of extraintestinal pathogenic *Escherichia coli* isolated from urinary tract infections of dogs and cats in Brazil. Veterinary microbiology, 171(1-2), 242-247
- [44] Takahashi, A., Kanamaru, S., Kurazono, H., Kunishima, Y., Tsukamoto, T., Ogawa, O., and Yamamoto, S. (2006). Escherichia coli isolates associated with uncomplicated and complicated cystitis and asymptomatic bacteriuria possess similar phylogenies, virulence genes, and O-serogroup profiles. Journal of clinical microbiology, 44(12), 4589-4592
- [45] Chaudhuri, R. R., and Henderson, I. R. (2012). The evolution of the *Escherichia coli* phylogeny. Infection, Genetics and Evolution, 12(2), 214-226.
- [46] Lazarus,B., Paterson,D.L., Mollinger, J.L., and Rogers,B.A. (2014). Do human extraintestinal *Escherichia coli* infections resistant to expandedspectrum cephalosporins originate from food-producing animals? A SysTEMatic Revi.
- [47] Staji ,H., Badagliacca,P., Salehi ,T.Z., Lopes, F., Iorio ,M., Tonelli ,A., and Masson ,L. (2017). Pathotyping of diarrhoeagenic cattle *Escherichia coli* strains isolated in the Province of Tehran, Iran. Vet Ital 53:345–356.