Assiut University website: <u>www.aun.edu.eg</u>

EVALUATION OF THE TOLERANCE OF BIOFILM-FORMING SALMONELLA ISOLATED FROM DEAD IN SHELL EMBRYOS TO SOME DISINFECTANTS

MOHAMMED A. GAMALELDIN¹ AND ABEER G. HUSSEIN²

^{1,2} Poultry Diseases Department, Animal Health Research Institute (AHRI), Agriculture Research Center (ARC), 71511, Egypt.

Received: 21 April 2024; Accepted: 30 May 2024

ABSTRACT

Salmonella is a hazardous bacterium that can lead to dangerous human infections, as well as catastrophic losses in chicken production. Disinfectants are frequently used in chicken houses to prevent the spread of zoonotic infections such as Salmonella strains. The emergence of bacteria strains resistant to various disinfectants is a serious problem when using disinfectants. The resistance of certain Salmonella serotypes to quaternary ammonium compounds is a feature of these phenomena and some Salmonella spp. may carry the gacED1 and qacA/B genes, which are responsible for this resistance. So the purpose of this study was to identify Salmonella serotypes and determine the most important virulence genes of the serotypes obtained from samples taken from dead chicken embryos. Evaluation of the resistance of Salmonella strains against various disinfectants (Quaternary ammonium compounds QAC_S, iodine, and virkon S) and determined the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) to investigate the antibacterial potential of plant essential oil components, such as thymol, cinnamaldehyde, and zingiberene, against Salmonella serotypes. A total of 115 samples were collected from dead chicken embryos, after isolation Salmonella isolates were reported to be 16/115 (13.9%). The most prevalent serotypes were Salmonella typhimurium, Salmonella kentucky, Salmonella anatum and Salmonella poona. Through the treatment of the bacteria at various concentrations, the effectiveness of the disinfectant was determined. Research has shown that the type and concentration of the disinfectant affect its biocidal activity. PCR was also used to detect the presence of *qacED1* and *qacA/B* genes.

Keywords: Salmonella serotype; QACs; qacED1; thymol; cinnamaldehyde.

INTRODUCTION

In the past several years, the poultry industry has faced numerous difficulties, and *Salmonella* infections being one of the main among them. (Ruvalcaba-Gómez *et al.*, 2022). Within the *Enterobacteriaceae* family, the *Salmonella* genus is classified as an enteric Gram-negative, facultative anaerobe, non-spore-forming bacilli. (Bhunia, 2008; Barrow *et al.*, 2012).

There are over 2600 serovars in the *Salmonella* species (Mohanapriya *et al.*, 2023). *Salmonella* serovars can spread horizontally between flocks including the

Corresponding author: Abeer G. Hussein *E-mail address:* Abeergamal@ahri.gov.eg *Present address:* Poultry Diseases Department, Animal Health Research Institute (AHRI), Agriculture Research Center (ARC), 71511, Egypt.

vertical transmission of *Salmonella* bacteria to eggs, which results in the death of the embryos or the death of recently hatched chicks, causing significant morbidity and mortality (Vo *et al.*, 2006; Yang *et al.*, 2019). The primary cause of *Salmonella*, with a 48.5% incidence, is hatcheries. (Wang *et al.*, 2023) and *Salmonella* infection is frequently linked to both mortality of recently hatched chicks and dead-in-shell embryos. (Lister and Barrow, 2008).

The membrane proteins from bacteria that invade host intestinal cells are encoded by the invA gene (Yulian *et al.*, 2020). The invasion of host epithelial cells by *Salmonella* isolates is significantly facilitated by invA. For the majority of *Salmonella* species, this gene is extremely specific (Pardo *et al.*, 2019).

Many genes that encode virulence are the main factor that determines how severe Salmonella infection occurs. Most of the Salmonella virulence indicators found on Salmonella pathogenicity islands (SPIs) which are either chromosomal or plasmidbased include adhesion. invasion. intracellular proliferation, and toxin genes. (Miller et al., 2010). There are two primary SPI areas: the first harbors invasion genes. while the second is critical for intracellular pathogenicity and plays a major part in Salmonella infections that spread throughout the entire organism.

The poultry industry's extensive use of antibiotics has led to the emergence of *Salmonella* strains that are resistant to numerous antimicrobials, including sulfonamides, ampicillin, quinolones and tetracyclines (De Mesquita *et al.*, 2022).

A key component of the pathogenicity of many bacterial species, including *Salmonella* spp., biofilm is one of the principal causes of chronic infections and environmental persistence (Seixas *et al.*, 2014). One method that *Salmonella* is known to use to survive and proliferate in chicken farms is the creation of biofilms. (Merino *et al.*, 2019). These biofilms may include antibiotic-resistant bacteria, as well as other contribute their elements that to environmental persistence. (Dhanani et al., 2015 & Guillén et al., 2020). Features of virulence associated with resistance to antibiotics, and Salmonella's ability to form biofilms are thought to be an increasing risk to public health in both human and poultry production. (Karabasanavar et al., 2020).

Also, Abd El-basit et al. (2019) reported that all Salmonella strains tested by PCR were found to have the adrA, csgD, and gcpA genes. Additionally, each isolate of Salmonella formed biofilms. which increased their resistance to antibiotics and disinfectants and made the disease harder to cure. This caused many issues for the food industry, because it became a constant source of contamination.

The primary component of biosecurity programs is disinfectants (Dvorak, 2005). Using disinfectants is essential in poultry production to reduce the risk of infection and contamination with *Salmonella* (Galis *et al.*, 2013). Thus, the increasing lack of responsiveness to disinfectants is considered a serious hazard (Mc Carlie *et al.*, 2020). It is believed that *Salmonella* is a major cause of the spread of QAC resistance (Long *et al.*, 2016). The development of antimicrobial resistance has been related to the widespread use of disinfectants (Chapman, 2003).

MATERIAL AND METHODS

1. Sampling:

The samples were taken from dead chicken embryos collected from various broiler hatcheries. A total number of 115 samples from the intestines, liver, kidney, yolk sac, and spleen. After egg shells were cleaned with 70% ethyl alcohol and cut open with clean scissors, the dead embryos were examined for post-mortem and organ samples were taken out for additional bacteriological analysis.

2. Bacteriological examination

2.1. Isolation of bacterial agents

5 grams of all samples were pre-enriched in 45 milliliters of tryptic soy broth for 16–20 hours at 37°C after being aseptically cut into small pieces. A loopful from the preenrichment culture was streaked onto the xylose lysine deoxycholate agar (XLD; Oxoid), which was then incubated for 24 hours at 37°C. On XLD medium, the probable *Salmonella* colonies were purified. The isolates were biochemically identified according to **Zhang** *et al.* (2013). Using "O" and "H" antisera from (Difco), the isolates were serotyped using a slide agglutination test following the Kauffmann-White system.

2.2. Morphological examination: It was carried out following Cruichshank *et al.* (1975).

2.3. Biochemical identification

Using biochemical tests, pure colonies of isolates were recognized, according to Quinn *et al.* (2002) and Zhang *et al.* (2013).

3. Serological identification of Salmonella

The organisms' serotypes were determined using **Kauffmann and Das-Kauffmann** (2001).

4. Congo red dye agar test (CR Test):

The test was conducted using a strategy of Berkhoff and Vinal (1986). After being streaked on Congo red agar, the colonies were cultured at 37°C for 24 hours. Red colonies showing up within 24 hours were noted as a positive response. Negative colonies were deemed negative after they failed to bind the dye and continued to be white or gray even after 24 hours.

5. Antimicrobial susceptibility testing:

The following antimicrobials were found to be susceptible to the serotyped *Salmonella*: colistin (10µg), streptomycin (10µg), tetracycline (30µg), co-trimoxazole (25µg), neomycin (30µg) and amoxycillin (10µg), cephradine (30µg), cefotaxime (30µg) and enrofloxacin (5µg), using the disc diffusion method according to CLSI, (2013). Antimicrobial discs and the installed medium were provided by (Oxoid). To evaluate resistance or susceptibility, inhibition zones were evaluated. The acquired results are presented in the table (3).

6. Evaluation of the biocidal activity of the disinfectants:

Dilutions of disinfectants were made from the stock solutions to provide the following ratios: for iodine 1: 25, 1:50, 1: 100 and 1: 200 v/v of distilled water (DW), for QAC at rate 1: 25, 1:50, 1: 100 and 1: 150 v/v of DW, Virkon S at rate 1: 100, 1:200, 1: 500 and 1: 2000 v/v of DW. Two milliliters of previously made bacterial serial dilutions (10^7 CFU/mL) were combined with eight milliliters of diluted disinfectant solutions to test the disinfectants' biocidal activity. The homogeneously mixed mixture was according to the steps provided by Aksoy et al. (2020). The concoctions approved 24 hrs standing period. After distributing 0.1 ml of the mixture on nutrient agar, it was incubated at 37 °C for 24 hours. The disinfectants' dilution was evaluated according to the evaluation criteria for the antibacterial activity of the disinfectants.

7. Molecular identification of virulence genes, biofilm-formed genes and resistance genes of disinfectant:

extraction DNA from samples was performed using the QIAamp DNA Mini kit Germany, GmbH) (Qiagen, with modifications from the manufacturer's recommendations. Briefly, 200 µl of the sample suspension was incubated with 20 µl of proteinase K and 200 µl of lysis buffer at 56°C for 10 min. After incubation, 200 µl of 100% ethanol was added to the lysate. The sample was then washed and centrifuged, manufacturer's following the recommendations. Nucleic acid was eluted with 100 µl of elution buffer provided in the kit.

7.1. Oligonucleotide Primer. Primers used were supplied from Metabion (Germany) are listed in table (1).

7.2. PCR amplification.

PCR Primers were utilized in a 25- μ l reaction containing 12.5 μ l of Emerald Amp Max PCR Master Mix (Takara, Japan), 1 μ l of each primer of 20 pmol concentrations, 5.5 μ l of water, and 5 μ l of DNA template. The reaction was performed in an applied biosystem 2720 thermal cycler.

7.3. Analysis of the PCR Products.

The products of PCR were separated by electrophoresis agarose on 1.5% gel (Applichem, Germany, GmbH) in 1x TBE buffer at room temperature using gradients of 5V/cm. For gel analysis, 20 µl of the PCR products were loaded in each gel slot. A gene ruler 100 bp ladder (Fermentas, thermo, Germany) and Genedirex 100-3000 bp DNA ladder H3 RTU (Genedirex, Taiwan) were used to determine the fragment sizes. The gel was photographed by a gel documentation system (Alpha Innotech, Biometra) and the data was analyzed through computer software.

8. Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) determinations of essential oils:

Initially, sterile 96-well polystyrene plates were filled with various concentrations (2048, 1024, 512, 256, 128, 64, 32, 16, 8, 4, μg/mL, respectively) 2, and 1 of antimicrobial compounds (such as thymol, cinnamondehyde). Zingiberene, and Antimicrobial agents (10 μ L) were applied to wells 1 through 13 whereas well 14 served as a growth control without any antimicrobial agent addition. The direct bacterial suspension method was then used to create bacterial suspensions with turbidity equal to 0.5 McFarland standards. Following the addition of 100 μ L (10⁷ CFU/mL) suspensions of Salmonella isolates to each well, the wells were sealed, and for checking the findings, each plate was incubated for 24 hours at 37°C. At 37°C for 24 hours, the lowest concentration at which no discernible bacterial growth occurs is known as the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) as described by Tang et al. (2022).

Table 1: Primers sequences, target genes, amplicon sizes and cycling conditions.

Target		Amplified	Primarv	Amplif	fication (35 cycles)		Final	
gene	Primers sequences	segment (bp)	denaturation	Secondary denaturation	Annealing	Extension	extension	Reference
adr	ATGTTCCCAAAAATAATGAA		94°C	94°C	50°C	72°C	72°C	
A	TCATGCCGCCACTTCGGTGC	1113 bp	5 min.	30 sec.	1 min.	1.2 min.	12 min.	Bhowmick
gcp	CTATTTCTTTTCCCGCTCCT	1713 hn	01°5 min	94°C	57°C	72°C	72°C	et al., 2011
A	GTGCCGCACGAAACACTGTT	1713 Up	94 J IIIII.	30 sec.	1 min.	2 min.	12 min.	
	CATGGCTGGTCAGTTGGAG		94°C	94°C	60°C	72°C	72°C	Yang et
hilA	CGTAATTCATCGCCTAAACG	Amplified segment (bp) 1113 bp 1713 bp 150 bp 362 bp 284 bp 422 bp 361 bp	op 5 min.	30 sec.	30 sec.	30 sec.	7 min.	al., 2014
	TAA GCC CTA CACAAA TTG							Chuonahu
Qac	GGA GAT AT	362 bn	94°C	94°C	58°C	72°C	72°C	en <i>et al.</i>
ED1	GCC TCC GCA GCG ACT	00 2 0p	5 min.	30 sec.	40 sec	40 sec	10 min.	2007
	GGGCAA		94°C	94°C	55°C	72°C	72°C	Olivoira at
invA -	TCATCGCACCGTCAAAGGA	284 bp	5 min.	30 sec.	30 sec.	30 sec.	72 C 7 min.	al., 2003
	ACC							, 2000
	CCT GTA TTG TTG AGC GTC							
avr	TGG	422 hn	94°C	94°C	58°C	72°C	72°C	Huehn et
\boldsymbol{A}	AGA AGA GCT TCG TTG AAT	422 op	5 min.	30 sec.	40 sec.	45 sec.	10 min.	al. 2010
	GTC C							
Qac	GCAGAAAGTGCAGAGTTCG	361 bp	94°C	94°C	53°C	72°C	72°C	Noguchi et
A/B	CCAGICCAATCATGCCIG	1	5 min.	30 sec.	40 sec.	40 sec.	10 min.	al., 2005
	AGTCGAGCTCATGAAAAAG		0480	0480	55 °0	7000	70%	TT (1)
omp		1052 bp	94 C 5 min	94 C	55 C	/2 C	/2 C 10 min	Kataria et
A	GGCTGAGTTA		5 11111.	50 sec.	40 sec.	1 111111.	10 min.	al., 2013

RESULTS

1. Bacteriological examination

Salmonella strain isolation and identification have been confirmed serologically using "O" and "H" antisera, and the obtained serotypes were recorded in (**Table 2**). *Salmonella*positive sample percentages were 16/115 (13.9%), for dead embryos of chickens. *S. Typhimurium* (n=3), *S. Kentucky* (n=7), *S.* *anatum* (n=5), and *S. poona* (n=1) were isolated from dead embryos collected from broiler hatcheries.

2. Congo red agar test

Out of the 16 isolates examined in this study (13.9%), a positive result for the CR test. After being cultured in CRA at 37 °C, every isolate of *Salmonella* serotypes formed a rdar colony morphotype. (**Fig. 1**).



Figure (1): Colony morphotypes on Congo red agar: rdar morphotype of Salmonella isolates

Table 2: Rates of Salmonella serotypes,	Congo red activity a	and antigenic structures	identified
from dead-shell embryos.			

Tune of	Salmone	ella-posi	itive	Congo re	ed activity	Antig	Antigen		
samples			T ()			0	H		(%)
Sampros	Serotype	Freq	Total (%)	positive	negative		Phase 1	Phase 2	
Yolk sac	S. Kentucky	4	4/115 (3.4%)	4	0	8, 20	Ι	Z6	4/115 (3.4%)
Liver	S. Typhimurium	3	3/115 (2.6%)	3	0	1,4,{5},12	Ι	1,2	3/115 (2.6%)
Intestine	S. poona	1	1/115 (0.8%)	1	0	1,13,22	Z	1,6	1/115 (0.8%)
Kidney	S. Anatum	5	5/115 (4.3%)	5	0	3, {10}{15}{15,34}	e, h	1,6	5/115 (4.3%)
Spleen	S. Kentucky	3	3/115 (2.6%)	3	0	8, 20	Ι	Z6	3/115 (2.6%)
Total	-	16	16/115 (13.9%)	16	0	-	-	-	16/115 (13.9%)

3. Antimicrobial susceptibility testing

The isolated *Salmonella* serotypes were sensitive to colistin, cefotaxime, amoxycillin and enrofloxacin at rates of 81.25, 62.5, 68.75 and 56.25% respectively. Conversely,

however, isolates showed antibiotic resistance to neomycin, streptomycin, co-trimoxazole, cephradine and tetracycline at rates of 93.75, 87.5, 75, 68.75 and 56.25% respectively (**Table 3**).

	Antibiogram phenotypic pattern							
Antibiotics	susceptible			Interi	nediate	Resistant		
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Colistin	CL10	13	81.25	-	-	3	18.75	
Streptomycin	S10	2	12.5	-	-	14	87.5	
Tetracycline	TE30	4	25	3	18.75	9	56.25	
Co-Trimoxazole	COT25	3	18.75	1	6.25	12	75	
Neomycin	N30	1	6.25	-	-	15	93.75	
Amoxycillin	AMX10	11	68.75	2	12.5	3	18.75	
Cephradine	CE30	2	12.5	3	18.75	11	68.75	
Cefotaxime	CTX30	10	62.5	4	25	2	12.5	
Enrofloxacin	ENR5	9	56.25	2	12.5	5	31.25	

Table 3: Antibiogram phenotypic patterns of isolated Salmonella.

4. Molecular identification of virulence genes and biofilm resistance genes:

The most prevalent virulence genes identified in the isolated *Salmonella* serotypes were *ompA*, *hilA*, *avrA*, and *invA*. *Salmonella* serotypes were successfully amplified for the two most common biofilm resistance genes, *gcpA* and *adrA*. (See in **Figures 2 & 3**)

5. Genotyping results of quaternary ammonium compounds (QAC) resistance tests:

After extracting the DNA from *S. typhimurium, S. kentucky, S. anatum, and S. poona*, the *qacED1* and *qacA/B* genes were detected by PCR. The QAC-treated bacteria were subjected to genotyping testing. The findings demonstrated that every isolate of *Salmonella* had the genes *qacED1* and *qacA/B*, which are treated with a disinfectant (**Figure 4**).



Figure (2): PCR results for *Salmonella* isolates are separated on an agarose gel electrophoresis to identify the *adrA*, *gcpA*, and *ompA* genes in the genomic DNA.



Figure (3): Agarose gel electrophoresis of PCR products for *Salmonella* isolates to detect virulence genes *avrA*, *hilA*, and *invA* gene in genomic DNA.



Figure (4): Detecting the *qacED*1 and *qacA/B* genes in genomic DNA of *Salmonella* isolates using agarose gel electrophoresis.

6. Evaluation of the resistance to disinfectants:

6.1. Effect of iodine:

When using (1:25 and 1:50) dilutions of iodine as a disinfectant, the growth of the four microorganisms under examination was totally prevented. While *S Kentucky*, *S*.

Typhimurium, and *S. Anatum* were completely inhibited from growing by the 1:100 diluted iodine, while *S. poona* was not affected. There was no noticeable inhibitory effect from using more diluted iodine (1:200) on *Salmonella* serotypes (**Table 4**).

n		Bacte	eria	
Dilutio	S. Kentucky (CFU)	S. Typhimurium (CFU)	S. poona (CFU)	S. Anatum (CFU)
1/25	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve
1/50	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve
1/100	-ve	-ve	+ve	-ve
1/200	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve

Table 4: The effect of	IC	1001106

6.2. Effect of QAC:

All bacterial serotypes under examination observed total growth inhibition when exposed to QAC at dilutions of 1:25, 1:50, and 1:100. The diluted QAC (1:150) was unable to prevent the growth of *Salmonella* isolates. (**Table 5 and Figure 5A**).

u		Bacteria					
Dilutio	S. Kentucky (CFU)	S. Typhimurium (CFU)	S. poona (CFU)	S. Anatum (CFU)			
1/25	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve			
1/50	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve			
1/100	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve			
1/150	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve			

Table 5: The effect of QAC.

6.3. Effect of Virkon S:

Following treatment with (1:100 and 1:200) dilutions of Virkon S for all treatments, none of the studied bacteria (*S. Kentucky, S. Typhimurium, S. Anatum,* and *S. poona*)

displayed any discernible growth. While Virkon S (1:500 and 1:2000) did not exhibit any discernible inhibitory impact over *Salmonella* serotypes when used at higher dilutions. (**Table 6 and Figure 5B**).

Table 6: The Effect of Virkon S.

n		Bacteria					
Dilutio	S. Kentucky (CFU)	S. Typhimurium (CFU)	S. poona (CFU)	S. Anatum (CFU)			
1/100	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve			
1/200	-ve	-ve	-ve	-ve			
1/500	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve			
1/2000	+ve	+ve	+ve	+ve			



Figure (5): Antibacterial activity (clear areas) of various disinfectants to bacteria isolates (A): QAC (B): Virkon S.

7. MIC of essential oils:

The three essential oils' minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) were determined in this study. The products, namely thymol, cinnamaldehyde and Zingiberene, showed some degree of serotype-inhibitory action on *Salmonella*. **Figure (6)** shows the MIC

values of three components found in essential oils against isolates, with thymol, cinnamaldehyde and zingiberene. Thymol against *S. typhimurium*, *S. kentucky*, *S. poona* and *S. anatum* indicating MIC values of 32, 32, 64 and 128 μ g/mL, respectively, signifying the components having the lowest

MIC values. Generally, a greater inhibiting of bacterial growth is indicated by a decreased MIC value. The MIC values of zingiberene against *S. typhimurium*, *S. Kentucky*, *S. poona* and *S. anatum* show MIC values of 64, 512, 256 and 256 µg/mL, respectively. The MIC values of cinnamaldehyde against *S. typhimurium*, *S. Kentucky*, *S. poona* and *S. Anatum* indicating MIC values of 64, 128, 128 and 128 μ g/mL, respectively.



Figure (6): Minimum inhibitory concentrations (MIC) of essential oils.

DISCUSSION

Salmonella is a major foodborne pathogen responsible for many infectious diseases in animals and humans worldwide (Raguenaud *et al.*, 2012: Manoj *et al.*, 2015). In the present study, sixteen isolates of Salmonella were found in dead embryos taken from broiler hatcheries. Salmonella isolation rates were 13.9% overall Table (2). The findings of the microbiological examination of the organs confirmed with Shehata *et al.* (2019), who used the intestine, kidney, spleen, liver, and yolk sacs in order to isolate Salmonella spp. from chicken dead embryos; with an isolation rate of 12.5%.

The findings confirmed that *S. Kentucky, S. typhimurium, S. anatum,* and *S. poona* were isolated from dead embryos of chickens which agrees with Lacroix-Lamande *et al.* (2023) that isolated *S. Typhimurium* from embryos of dead chickens but disagreed with Shehata *et al.* (2019) which reported that *S.Enteritidis, S.Amsterdam* and *S.Atakpame* were isolated from dead chicken embryos obtained from hatcheries for broilers. During hatching, *Salmonella* can enter embryos

either vertically or horizontally (Bailey *et al.*, 1994: Hameed *et al.*, 2014).

Our findings verified the presence of the virulence genes invA, hila, avrA and ompA in all Salmonella strains using specific invA primer (Figures 2 and 3). The findings confirmed with Kelly et al. (2023) and Freshindy et al. (2021), which found that the results of the virulence gene invA were found in each of the seven (100%) among the MDR Salmonella strains, and agreed with Mashayekh et al. (2022) who reported that invA and agfA virulence genes were found in 30 isolates (100%) according to PCR results. Shehata et al. (2019) showed that 95% of the isolated Salmonellae had identified invA, demonstrating the importance of invA as a vital indicator in the molecular detection of Salmonella in poultry (Dong et al., 2011). Numerous virulence factors are carried by Salmonella spp., which is one of the reasons why salmonellosis is so common in both humans and animals. When antibiotics are used extensively to treat salmonellosis, resistant bacteria usually develop. PCR represents one of the greatest tests for determining virulence genes (Ansharieta et al., 2021).

Salmonella species diversity can be observed in the variability in biofilm production; strains of S. Typhimurium are known to be effective producers of biofilms in a variety of environmental settings (Beshiru et al., 2018). So, our studies revealed that the *adrA* and gcpA genes were found with a 100% incidence rate (Figure 1&2) and that all strains of Salmonella (S. Kentucky, S. Typhimurium, S. anatum, and S. poona) had biofilm genes. This finding was generally agreed with Dorgham et al. (2019) who showed that *adrA*, *gcpA* and *csgD* genes were shown to have an incidence of 88.8%, 100% and 100% respectively, also fully agreed with (Seixas et al., 2014) who reported that, 129 isolates (97.0%) tested positive for gcpA out of the 133 Salmonella obtained isolates that were from environment and animal sources. All isolates (100%) had the *adrA* and *csgD* genes. On the other side, our results didn't agree with (Hawash et al., 2017) found that in Egypt's poultry farms, surveillance on Salmonella bacteria revealed that all samples had positive *csgD* gene PCR results and negative adrA and gcpA gene results.

QACs are widely used cationic surfaceactive detergents in poultry farms because of their strong antimicrobial qualities and low relative toxicity moderately efficient in detecting the presence of organic materials, low toxicity, not corrosive and not irritating. As a result, it is the preferred disinfectant for tools like hatching trays and incubators (Haynes and Smith, 2003). In the present study, the qacED1 and qacA/B genes were 100% of the Salmonella isolates (Figure 3). These results were nearly in accordance with Amira (2016) who found that 93.1% of Salmonella isolates had the qacED1 gene. Also, our results agreed nearly with Rungtip et al. (2007) who found that more isolates of Salmonella tested positive for $qacE\Delta l$ but negative for intI1. The *qacE* $\Delta 1$ gene may be incorporated into a chromosome or carried on additional elements. These non-integronassociated $qacE\Delta l$ genes play a role in the development of decreased Salmonella

susceptibility to BKC. It could help to explain why, despite cleaning and disinfection efforts following depopulation, this pathogen continues to persist in laying and grill flocks over multiple flock cycles. Conversely, however Nabil and Younis (2019) reported that the qacA/B gene was negative, which might have happened as a result of different Salmonella serotypes being linked to particular genes. Additionally, it could be explained by the fact that Salmonella and other Gramnegative bacteria have a higher frequency of the *qacE* $\Delta 1$ gene than the *qacA*/*B* gene.

Corresponding to the findings from sensitivity to antimicrobial tests, Salmonella isolates were shown to be resistant to tetracycline, neomycin, streptomycin, cotrimoxazole, cephradine, and neomycin, but sensitive colistin. cefotaxime. to amoxycillin, and enrofloxacin, as shown in table (3). These results varied from Nabil and Younis (2019) who explained that resistance to streptomycin and tetracycline was higher, with percentages of 70.6% and 94.1%, respectively, Zishiri et al. (2016) who found that resistance to ampicillin (47%). sulfamethoxazole-trimethoprim (84%), tetracycline (93%), and streptomycin (12%) was seen in the isolated Salmonella; Zdragas et al., (2012) who stated that they were resistant to tetracycline (2%) and streptomycin (5%); Cardoso et al., (2006) who recognized that a strain of Salmonella obtained from broiler chickens exhibited a 100% tetracycline resistance.

This study examined the effects of several widely used disinfectants on *S. typhimurium*, *S. anatum*, *S. kentucky*, and *S. poona* depending on the concentration of the disinfectant as shown in **Table (4, 5 & 6)**. The result illustrated that QAC proved to be the strongest disinfectant followed by iodine and *Virkon S*. Results from treatments with QAC, iodine, and Virkon S showed that the concentration of each disinfectant affecting its ability to kill bacteria, with more diluted disinfectants encouraging the growth of pathogens.

Overall, our findings in Table (5) and Figure (5A) agreed with the findings of Aksoy *et al.* (2020) who stated that after treatment with (1:100) diluted QAC for all treatments, none of the studied bacteria (*S. enitiridis, S. infantis, and S. typhimorium*) displayed any visible growth. Tomi *et al.* (2024) demonstrated that QACs are a category of antibacterial that targets the surface of bacteria, disrupting and leaking cellular contents and exhibiting decreased growth strains of *Salmonella*.

Findings of the iodine disinfection table (4) agreed with the findings given by Aksoy *et al.* (2020) and Ramesh *et al.* (2002) but Aksoy *et al.* (2020) Examining the resistance of *Salmonella* serotypes against widely used disinfectants (iodine) revealed that the killing activity of the disinfectant was dependent on concentration and increasing this factor resulted in increasing the killing activity of the disinfectant. This showed that using iodine as a disinfection agent was completely preventive for the growth of the three investigated bacteria when using (1:100 and 1:200) dilutions.

Additionally, Virkon S was shown to be efficient against *Salmonella* Table (6) and Figure (5B), which is in agreement with earlier findings of Møretrø *et al.* (2008) who showed that Virkon S needs certain conditions and concentrations to be effective against Salmonella, and Dunowska *et al.* (2005) pointed out that routinely disinfecting surfaces that have been previously cleansed could benefit from using Virkon S.

In our research, *Salmonella* serotypes are inhibited by thymol, cinnamonaldehyde, and zingiberene, according to the results of the physicochemical analysis, as Figure (6) illustrates. Inhibiting the growth of *Salmonella* isolates, thymol and gingiberene are more effective than cinnamondehyde. These results were nearly in accordance with Wu *et al.* (2023) who reported that thymol (128 μ g/mL) natural antibacterial agent, was found to have the best inhibitory impact on Salmonella isolates through the evaluation of MIC. Chi *et al.* (2023) showed that zingiberene, which may inhibit bacterial development by targeting the cell wall and membrane, acts as the primary antibacterial active component of ginger essential oil (GEO). Mesomo *et al.* (2013) determined that oxygenated monoterpenes, such as zingiberene, were the main component of GEO. Zingiberene and curcumin have been shown to possess potent antibacterial properties. Thongson *et al.* (2005) found that as compared to ginger extracts, GEO had greater antibacterial activity against isolates of Salmonella typhimurium.

It is critical to remember that essential oils with a high concentration of aldehydes and phenols, including thymol, zingiberene, and cinnamondehyde, have a stronger antibacterial effect than those with terpenoid alcohols (Dhifi *et al.*, 2016). It has been discovered that thymol and zingiberene cause the bacterial biofilm to break down, allowing internal contents to drain out and ultimately leading to cell death (Kachur and Suntres 2020).

The groups of aldehydes found in cinnamonaldehyde can quickly break down the structure of polysaccharides and enter cells. Moreover, the aldehyde groups can function as sterilizing agents by acting on protein transporters (Ding *et al.*, 2023; Zhang *et al.*, 2021).

CONCLUSIONS

Salmonellae have been isolated from dead embryos in chicken hatcheries, which supports the importance of protecting hatchery and farm biosecurity regulations. In the current study, analyzing the resistance of four Salmonella serotypes (S. typhimurium, S. anatum, S. kentucky, and S. poona) against three frequently used disinfectants (QAC, iodine and virkon S) showed that the killing activity of the disinfectant was dependent on concentration. Physicochemical investigation revealed that Assiut Vet. Med. J. (Special issue)

zingiberene, cinnamonaldehyde, and thymol inhibited *Salmonella* serotypes. The presence of the *qacED1* and *qacA/B* genes in the bacterial genomes of *Salmonella* serotypes demonstrated a link between the genotype and the resistance of the bacteria against QAC.

REFERENCES

- Abd El-basit, M.R.; Abd El-Azeem, M.W.; Sultan, S. and Nasef, SA. (2019): Molecular characterization of biofilm producing genes in Salmonellae isolated from chicken. J Adv Vet Res, 9: 39-44.
- Aksoy, A.; El Kahlout, K.E.M. and Yardimci, H. (2020): Comparative evaluation of the effects of binzalkonium chloride, iodine, gluteraldehyde and hydrogen peroxide disinfectants against avian salmonellae focusing on genotypic resistance pattern of the salmonellae serotypes toward benzalkonium chloride. Brazilian journal of poultry scienceissn v.22 / n.1 / 001-012
- Amira, F.A. (2016): Molecular Characterization of Virulence Genes in Salmonella spp. isolated from Poultry. Ph.D. Thesis, Kafrelsheikh University
- Ansharieta, *R*.; Effendi, M.H.and Plumeriastuti, H. (2021): Genetic identification of shiga toxin encoding gene from cases of multidrug resistance (MDR) Escherichia coli isolated from raw milk. Trop. Anim. Sci. J., 44(1): 10-15.
- Bailey, J.S.; Cox, N.A. and Berrang, M.E. (1994): Hatchery-acquired Salmonellae in broiler chicks. Poult Sci 73:1153-7.
- Barrow, P.; Jones, M.; Smith, A. and Wigley P. (2012): The long view: Salmonella—the last forty years. Avian Pathol 41:413–420
- Berkhoff, H.A. and A.C. Vinal, (1986): Congo red medium to distinguish

between invasive and non-invasive Escherichia coli pathogenic for poultry. Avian Dis. 30, 117-121.

- Beshiru, A.; Igbinosa, I.H. and Igbinosa, E.O. (2018): Biofilm formation and potential virulence factors of Salmonella strains isolated from ready-to-eat shrimps. PLOS One, 13.
- Bhowmick, *P*.*P*.: Devegowda, D.: Ruwandeepika, *H.A.D.*; Fuchs, T.M.; Srikumar, S.; Karunasagar, I. and Karunasagar, I. (2011): gcpA (stm1987) is critical for cellulose production and biofilm formation on polystyrene surface by Salmonella enterica serovar Weltevreden in both high and low nutrient medium. Microbial Pathogenesis 50 (2011) 114e122.
- Bhunia, A.K. (2008): Foodborne Microbial Pathogens. Springer New York; New York, NY, USA: 2008. Salmonella Enterica; pp. 201–216.
- Cardoso, M.O.; Ribeiro, A.R.; Santos, L.R.; Pilotto, F.; Moraes, H.S.; Salle, C.P.; Rocha, S.S. and Nascimento, V.P. (2006): Antibiotic resistance of Salmonella Enteritidis isolated from broiler carcasses. Braz. J. Microbiol. 37: 368-371.
- Chapman, J.S. (2003): Disinfectant resistance mechanisms, crossresistance, and co-resistance. Int Biodeterior Biodegradation 51, 271– 276.
- Chi Zhang, Yao Xie; Weiqiang Qiu; Jun Mei. and Jing Xie. (2023): Antibacterial and Antibiofilm Efficacy and Mechanism of Ginger (Zingiber officinale) Essential Oil against Shewanella putrefaciens. Plants 2023, 12, 1720.
- Chuanchuen, R.; Khemtong, S. and Padungtod, P. (2007): Occurrence of $qace/qace\Delta I$ genes and their correlation with class 1 integrons in salmonella enterica isolates from poultry and swine. Southeast Asian

J. Trop. Med. PublicHealth38, 855–862.

- CLSI (2013): Clinical and Laboratory Standard Institute; Performance Standards for Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing. CLSI Approved Standard M100-S23. Wayne, PA: Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute.
- Cruichshank R.; Duguid J.P.J.; Marmion B.P. and Swain R.H.A. (1975): Medical Microbiology 12th ed. Velum II Churchill, living stone Edinburgh, London and New York.
- De Mesquita Souza Saraiva; M.; Lim, K.; do Monte, D.F.M.; Givisiez, P.E.N.; Alves, L.B.R. and De Freitas Neto, O. C. (2022): Antimicrobial resistance in the globalized food chain: a one health perspective applied to the poultry industry. Brazilian J. Microbiol. 53, 465–486. doi: 10.1007/s42770-021-00635-8
- Dhanani A.S.; Block G.; Dewar K.; Forgetta
 V.; Topp E.; Beiko R.G. and Diarra
 M.S. (2015): genomic comparison of non-typhoidal Salmonella Enterica
 serovars Typhimurium, Enteritidis, Heidelberg, Hadar and Kentucky isolates from broiler chickens. PLoS ONE. 2015; 10:e0128773.
 doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0128773.
- Dhifi, W.; Bellili, S.; Jazi, S.; Bahloul, N. and Mnif, W. (2016): Essential Oils' Chemical Characterization and Investigation of Some Biological Activities: A Critical Review. Medicines 2016, 3, 25.
- Ding, J.; Dwibedi, V.; Huang, H.; Ge, Y.; Li, Y.; Li, Q. and Sun, T. (2023):
 Preparation and Antibacterial Mechanism of Cinnamaldehyde/Tea Polyphenol/Polylactic Acid Coaxial Nanofiber Films with Zinc Oxide Sol to Shewanella putrefaciens. Int. J. Biol. Macromol. 2023, 237, 123932.
- Dong, H.; Peng, D. and Jiao, X. (2011): Roles of the spiA gene from Salmonella Enteritidis in biofilm

formation and virulence. Microbiol 157: 1798-805.

- Dorgham, S.M.; Hedia, R.H.; Arafa, A.A.; Khairy, E.A. and Kandil, M.M. (2019): Antibiotic resistance pattern and biofilm genes of different Salmonella serotypes isolated from chicken samples. Inter J Vet Sci, 8(4): 324-328.
- Dunowska Magdalena; Paul, S. Morley and Doreene R. Hyatt (2005): The effect of Virkon1S fogging on survival of Salmonella enterica and Staphylococcus aureus on surfaces in a veterinary teaching hospital. Veterinary Microbiology 105 (2005) 281–289.
- Dvorak, G. (2005): Disinfection 101. http://www.cfsph.iastate.edu. Accessed Nov. 2023.
- Freshindy Marissa Wibisono; Hayyun Durrotul Faridah; Freshinta Jellia Wibisono: Wiwiek Tvasningsih: Mustofa Helmi Effendi; Adiana Mutamsari Witaningrum and Emmanuel Nnabuike Ugbo (2021): Detection of invA virulence gene of multidrug-resistant Salmonella species isolated from the cloacal swab of broiler chickens in Blitar district. East Java. Indonesia. Veterinary World, vol 14 EISSN: 2231-0916
- Galis, A.M.; Marcq, C.; Marlier, D.; Portetelle, D.; Van, I.; Beckers, Y. and Thewis, A. (2013): Control of Salmonella contamination of shell eggs- preharvest and postharvest methods: a review. Compr Rev Food Sci Food Saf 12, 155–182
- Guillén, S.; Marcén, M.; Álvarez, I.; Mañas, P. and Cebrián, G. (2020): Stress resistance of emerging poultryassociated Salmonella serovars. Int. J. Food Microbiol. 2020;335:108884. doi: 10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2020.10888 4.
- Hameed, U.; Akram, W. and Anjum, M.S. (2014): Effect of Salmonella on hatchability and fertility in laying

hen, an assessment. Veterinaria 2:20-3.

- Hawash, H.M.; El-Enbaawy, M.I.H. and Nasef, S.A. (2017): Biofilm producing non –typhoidal Salmonella serovars field isolates screening from poultry farms. Biosci Res, 14: 1050-1056.
- Haynes, R.L. and Smith, T.W. (2003): Hatchery Management Guide for Game Birds and Small Poultry Flock Owners. Online Publication of Mississippi State University. Available from: http://www.extension.msstate.edu/co ntent/ hatchery-management-guidefor-game-bird-and-small-poultryflock-owners.
- Huehn, S.; La Ragione, R.M.; Anjum, M.; Saunders, M.; Woodward, M.J.; Bunge, C.; Helmuth, R.; Hauser, E.; Guerra, B.; Beutlich, J.; Brisabois, T.: Svensson. *A*.: Peters. *L*.: Madajczak, G.; Litrup, E.; Imre, A.; Herrera-Leon, S.; Mevius, D.: Newell, D.G. and Malorny, B. (2010): Virulotyping and antimicrobial resistance typing of Salmonella enterica serovars relevant to human health in Europe. Foodborne Pathogens Dis 2010; 7:523-35.
- Kachur, K. and Suntres, Z. (2020): The Antibacterial Properties of Phenolic Isomers, Carvacrol and Thymol. Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr. 2020, 60, 3042–3053.
- Karabasanavar, N.; Madhavaprasad, C.; Gopalakrishna, S.; Hiremath, J., Patil, G. and Barbuddhe, S. (2020): Prevalence of salmonella serotypes S. Enteritidis and S. Typhimurium in poultry and poultry products. J. Food
- Saf. 40:12852. doi: 10.1111/jfs.12852 Kataria, J.L.; Kumar, A.; Rajagunalan, S.; Jonathan, L. and Agarwal, R.K. (2013): Detection of OmpAgene by PCR for specific detection of Salmonella serovars. Veterinary world.org/Vol.6/Nov-2013/16.pdf.

- Kauffmann, F. and Das-Kauffmann W (2001): Antigenic formulas of the Salmonella serovars, 8th ed. WHO cooboratingcentre for reference and research on Salmonella.
- Kelly Johanna Lozano-Villegas; Maria Paula *Herrera-S'anchez;* Monica Alexandra Beltr'an-Mart'inez; Stefany C'ardenas-Moscoso and Iang Schroniltgen Rond'on-Barrag'an (2023): Molecular Detection of Virulence Factors in Salmonella serovars Isolated from Poultry and Human Samples. Veterinary Medicine International Volume 2023, Article ID 1875253, 9 pages
- Lacroix-Lamande Sonia; Ophelie Bernardi; Tiffany Pezier; Emilie Barilleau; Julien Burlaud-Gaillard,Anissa Gagneux; Philippe Velge and Agnes Wiedemann (2023): Differential Salmonella Typhimurium intracellular replication and host cell responses in caecal and ileal organoids derived from chicken, Veterinary Research 54:63.
- Lister, S.A. and Barrow, P. (2008): Enterobacteriaceae In: Poultry Diseases. (Eds.) M. Pattison, P.F. McMuullin, J.M. Bradbury and D.J. Alexander. Elsevier Health Publications. London. pp. 110-145.
- Long, M.; Lai, H.; Deng, W.; Zhou, K.; Li, B.; Liu, S.; Fan, L., Wang, H. and Zou, L. (2016): Disinfectant susceptibility of different Salmonella serotypes isolated from chicken and egg production chains. J Appl Microbiol. 2016 Sep; 121(3): 672-81. doi: 10.1111/jam.13184. Epub 2016 Jul 21. PMID: 27206326.
- Manoj, J.; Agarwal, R.K. and Sailo, B. (2015): Evaluation of recombinant outer membrane protein c based indirect enzyme-linked immunoassay for the detection of Salmonella antibodies in poultry. Vet World 8:1006-10.
- Mashayekh, Z.1.; Moradi Bidhendi, S. and Khaki, P. (2022): Detection of invA, sivH, and agfA Virulence

Genes in Salmonella spp. Isolated from Broiler Breeder Farms in Alborz Province, Iran. Archives of Razi Institute, Vol. 77, No. 2 (2022) 607-614

- Mc Carlie, S.; Boucher, C.E. and Bragg, R.R. (2020): Molecular basis of bacterial disinfectant resistance. Drug Resist Updat. 2020 Jan;48:100672. doi: 10.1016/j.drup.2019.100672. Epub 2019 Nov 30. Erratum in: Drug Resist Updat. 2022 Dec;65:100867. PMID: 31830738.
- Merino, L.; Trejo, F.M.; de Antoni, G. and Golowczyc, M.A. (2019): Lactobacillus strains inhibit biofilm formation of Salmonella sp. isolates from poultry. Int. Food Res. J. 2019;123:258–265.

doi: 10.1016/j.foodres.2019.04.067.

- Mesomo, M.C.; Corazza, M.L.; Ndiaye, P.M.; Dalla Santa, O.R.; Cardozo, L. and de Paula Scheer, A. (2013): Supercritical CO2 extracts and essential oil of ginger (Zingiber officinale R.): Chemical composition and antibacterial activity. J. Supercrit. Fluids 2013, 80, 44–49.
- Miller, N.D.; Draughon, F.A. and D'Souza, D.H. (2010): Real-time reversetranscriptase-polymerase chain reaction for Salmonella enterica detection from jalapeno and serrano peppers. Foodborne Pathog Dis 4:367-73.
- Mohanapriya, K.; Agri, H.; Anbazhagan, S.; Khawaskar, D.; Jayakumar, *V*.; Lalrinzuala, M.V.; K. M. H.; I. S.; Mariappan, A.K.; Abhishek, Nagaleekar, V.K.; Sinha, D.K.: Chaudhuri, *P.; Chaturvedi*, V.K.: Singh, B.R. and Thomas. Р. (2023): Development and validation of multiplex PCR based molecular serotyping of Salmonella serovars associated with poultry in India. J Microbiol Methods. 2023 Apr; 207: 10.1016/j.mimet. 106710. doi: 2023.106710. Epub 2023 Mar 30. PMID: 37003300.

- Møretrø, T.; L.K. Vestby; L.L. Nesse; S.E. Storheim; K. Kotlarz; and S. Langsrud (2008): Evaluation of efficacy of disinfectants against Salmonella from the feed industry. Journal of Applied Microbiology ISSN 1364-5072
- Nabil, M. Nehal and Ahlam, E. Yonis (2019): Isolation of Salmonella Characterized By Biofilm Formation and Disinfectant Resistance From Broiler Chickens. AJVS. Vol. 62(2): 26-36.
- Noguchi, N.; Suwa, J.; Narui, K.; Sasatsu, M.; Ito, T.; Hiramatsu, K. and Song, J. (2005): Susceptibilities to antiseptic agents and distribution of antiseptic-resistance genes qacA/B and smr of methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus isolated in Asia during 1998 and 1999, Journal of Medical Microbiology (2005), 54, 557–565.
- Oliveira, S.D.; Rodenbusch, C.R.; Ce, M.C.; Rocha, S.L.S. and Canal, C.W. (2003): Evaluation of selective and non-selective enrichment PCR procedures for Salmonella detection. Lett. Appl. Microbiol., 36: 217-221.
- Pardo-Roa, C.; Salazar, G.A.; Noguera, L.P.; Salazar- Echegarai, *F.J.*: Vallejos, O.P.; Suazo, I.D.; Schultz, *B.M.*: Coronado-Arrazola. *I*.: Kalergis, A.M. and Bueno, S.M. (2019): Pathogenicity island excision infection during by Salmonella enterica serovar Enteritidis is required for crossing the intestinal epithelial barrier in mice to cause systemic *PLoS Pathog.*, 15(12): infection. e1008152.
- Quinn, P.J.; Carter, M.E.; Markey, B.K.; Donnelly, W.J.C. and Leonard, F.C. (2002). Veterinary Microbiology and Microbial diseases, Great Briian by MPG, Book. 1st ed., Bodmin, Cornwall, UK.
- Raguenaud, M.E.; Le Hello, S. and Salah, S. (2012): Epidemiological and microbiological investigation of a large outbreak of monophasic

Salmonella Typhimurium 4,5,12:i:in schools associated with imported beef in Poitiers, France, October 2010. Euro Surveill 17:20289.

- Ramesh, N.; Joseph, S.W.; Carr, L.E.; Douglass, L.W. and Wheaton F.W. (2002): Evaluation of Chemical Disinfectants for the Elimination of Salmonella Biofilms from Poultry Transport Containers. Poultry Science 81:904–910
- Rungtip Chuanchuen; Sirintip Khemtong and Pawin Padungtod (2007): occurrence of $QACE/QACE\Delta 1$ genes and their correlation with class 1 integrons in salmonella enterica isolates from poultry and swine
- Ruvalcaba-Gómez, J.M.; Villagrán, Z.; Valdez-Alarcón, J.J.; Martínez-Núñez, M.; Gomez-Godínez, L.J.; Ruesga-Gutiérrez, E.; Anaya-Esparza, L.M.; Arteaga-Garibay, R.I. and Villarruel-López, A. (2022): Non-Antibiotics Strategies to Control Salmonella Infection in Poultry. Animals (Basel) 1;12(1):102. 10.3390/ani12010102. doi: PMID: 35011208; PMCID: PMC8749512.
- Seixas, R.; Machado J.; Bernardo F.; Vilela C. and Oliveira M. (2014): Biofilm formation by Salmonella Enterica Serovar 1,4,[5], 12: i:-Portuguese Isolates: A Phenotypic, Genotypic, and Sociogeographic Analysis. Curr Microbiol, 68: 670–677.
- Shehata Awad A.; Shereen, Basiouni; Alaa Abd Elraze; Hesham Sultan; Reda Tarabees; Mohamed Sabry Abd Elraheam Elsayed; Shaimaa Talat; Ibrahim Moharam; Ahmed Said; Walaa Atia Mohsen and Monika Krüger (2019): Characterization of Salmonella enterica isolated from poultry hatcheries and commercial broiler chickens, ISSN: 0253-8318 (PRINT), 2074-7764 (ONLINE) DOI: 10.29261/pakvetj/2019.033
- *Tang, X.; Shen, Y.; Song, X.; Benghezal, M.; Marshall, B.J. and Tang, H. and Li, H.* (2022): Reassessment of the Broth

Microdilution Method for Susceptibility Testing of Helicobacter pylori. J. Infect. Dis. 2022, 226, S486– S492.

- Thongson,C.;Davidson,P.M.;Mahakarnchanakul,W.andVibulsresth,P.(2005):Antimicrobial effect of Thai spicesagainst Listeria monocytogenesandSalmonella Typhimurium DT104.J.Food Prot. 2005, 68, 2054–2058.
- Tomi Obe: Aaron S. Kiess and Ramakrishna Nannapaneni (2024): Antimicrobial Tolerance Salmonella: in Contributions Survival to and Persistence in Processing Environments. Animals 2024, 14, https://doi.org/10.3390/ani 578. 14040578.
- Vo, A.T.; Van D.E.; Fluit, A.C.; Heck, M.E.; Verbruggen, A. and Maas, H.M. (2006): Distribution of Salmonella Enterica serovars from humans, livestock and meat in Vietnam and the dominance of Salmonella Typhimurium phage type 90. Vet Microb. (2006) 113:153–8. 10.1016/j.vetmic.2005.10.034.
- Wang, J.; Vaddu, S.; Bhumanapalli, S.; Mishra, A.; Applegate, T.; Singh, M. and Thippareddi, H.A. (2023): Systematic review and metaanalysis of the sources of Salmonella in poultry production (pre-harvest) and relative contributions to their the microbial risk of poultry meat. Poult Sci. 102(5): 2023 May; 102566. doi: 10.1016/j.psj.2023.102566. Epub 2023 Feb 9. PMID: 36996513; PMCID: PMC10074252.
- Wu Wang; Tingting L.i.; Jing Chen and Yingwang Ye (2023): Inhibition of Salmonella Enteritidis by Essential Oil Components and the Effect of Storage on the Quality of Chicken. Foods 2023, 12, 2560.
- Yang, J.; Gao, S.; Chang, Y.; Su, M.; Xie, Y. and Sun, S. (2019): Occurrence and characterization of Salmonella isolated from large-scale breeder farms in Shandong Province, China. Biomed Res

Int.

(2019) 5:8159567.

- 10.1155/2019/8159567
- Yang, X.; Brisbin, J.; Yu, H.; Wang, Q.; Yin, F.; Zhang, Y.; Sabour, P.; Sharif, S. and Gong, J. (2014): Selected Lactic Acid-Producing Bacterial Isolates with the Capacity to Reduce Salmonella Translocation and Virulence Gene Expression in Chickens. PLOS ONE | www.plosone.org 1 April 2014 | Volume 9 | Issue 4 | e93022.
- Yulian, R.; Narulita, E.; Iqbal, M.; Sari, D.R.; Suryaningsih, I. and Ningrum, D.E.A. (2020): Detection of virulence and specific genes of Salmonella sp. indigenous from Jember, Indonesia. Biodiversitas, 21(7): 2889-2892.Li, H., Bhaskara, A., Megalis, C. and Tortorello, M.L. (2012): Transcriptomic analysis of Salmonella desiccation resistance. Foodborne Pathog. Dis., 9(12): 1143-1151.
- Zdragas, A.; Mazaraki, K.; Vafeas, G.; Giantzi, V.; Papadopoulos, T. and Ekateriniadou, L. (2012): Prevalence,

seasonal occurrence and antimicrobial resistance of Salmonella in poultry retail products in Greece. Letters in Appl. Microbiol. 55(4):308-313.

- Zhang, G.; Thau, E. and Brown, E. (2013): Comparison of a novel strategy for the detection and isolation of Salmonella in shell eggs with the FDA bacteriological analytical manual method. Poult Sci 92:3266-74.
- Zhang, J.; Du, C.; Li, Q.; Hu, A.; Peng, R.; Sun,
 F. and Zhang, W. (2021): Inhibition Mechanism and Antibacterial Activity of Natural Antibacterial Agent Citral on Bamboo Mould and Its Anti-Mildew Effect on Bamboo. R. Soc. Open Sci. 2021, 8, 202244.
- Zishiri, O.; Mkhize, N. and Mukaratirwa, S. (2016): Prevalence of virulence and antimicrobial resistance genes in Salmonella spp. isolated from commercial chickens and human clinical isolates from South Africa and Brazil. Onderstepoort J. Vet. Res. 83(1):a1067.

تقييم مقاومة السالمونيلا المعزولة من أجنة بيض كابس والمكونة للبيوفيلم لبعض المطهرات

محمد أحمد جمال الدين ، عبير جمال حسين محمد

Email: Abeergamal@ahri.gov.eg Assiut University website: <u>www.aun.edu.eg</u>

السالمونيلا هي بكتيريا خطيرة يمكن أن تؤدي بالإضافة إلى خسائر كارثية في إنتاج الدجاج إلى إصابات بشرية. كثيرا ما تستخدم المطهرات في مزارع الدجاج لمنع انتشار العدوى مثل سلالات السالمونيلا. وبعد تكوين سلالات بكتيرية مقاومة للمطهرات مشكلة خطيرة عند استخدام انواع مختلفة من المطهرات. ووجد أن بعض أنماط السالمونيلا مقاومة لمركبات الأمونيوم الرباعية وقد تحمل جينات qacAD و gacAD المسؤولة عن هذه المقاومة. لذا كان الهدف من هذه الدراسة هو التعرف على سلالات السالمونيلا وتحديد أهم الجينات الضارة. وخلصت الدراسة إلى أن الزيوت النباتية الأساسية مثل الثيمول والسيناملدهيد والزنجبيرين كان لها تأثير مثبط علي الأنماط المختلفة من السالمونيلا المعزولة وتحديد الحد الأدنى للتركيز المثبط (MIC) وتقييم مقاومة السالمونيلا ضد المطهرات المختلفة من السالمونيلا المعزولة وتحديد وتعد الأدنى التركيز المثبط (MIC). فتم تجميع ما العينة من أجنة الدجاج الميت، بعد أن تم عزل سلالات السالمونيلا و محديلا واليود، ورالالالمعزولة وتحديد والزنجبيرين كان لها تأثير مثبط علي الأنماط المختلفة من السالمونيلا المعزولة وتحديد ومحد الأدنى التركيز المثبط (MIC). فتم تجميع ما الها عنينة من أجنة الدجاج الميت، بعد أن تم عزل سلالات السالمونيلا و كانت ١١٥/١٦ (١٣٩٣٪)، وكانت السلالات الأكثر انتشارا هي السالمونيلا تيفيموريوم، وسالمونيلا كاسونيلا و كانت ١١٥/١٦ (١٢٩٪)، وكانت السلالات الأكثر انتشارا هي السالمونيلا تيفيموريوم، وسالمونيلا كالمونيلا و أناتوم، وسالمونيلا بونا. ومن خلال معالجة البكتيريا بتركيزات مختلفة تم تحديد فعالية المطهرات. فأظهرت الأبحاث أن نوع المطهر وتركيزه يؤثران على نشاطه كمبيد بيولوجي. كما تم استخدام تفاعل البوليميراز المتسلسل (PCR) للكشف عن وجود جينات علينشاطه كمبيد بيولوجي. كما تم استخدام تفاعل البوليميراز المتسلسل (PCR) للكشف