ANTIMICROBIAL RESISTANCE AND VIRULENCE GENES PROFILING OF PROTEUS SPECIES FROM POULTRY FARMS IN LAFIA, NIGERIA

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Abstract

The poultry industry is important in boosting food sustainability of a population; however, the poultry environment and products are susceptible to pathogen contamination arising from poor farm hygienic conditions. This study investigated the prevalence, antimicrobial resistance and virulence profile of Proteus species from the environment and products of four selected poultry farms in Lafia, Nasarawa State. Farm samples (n =216) comprising feed (64), drinking water (64) and swabs from eggshells (88) were collected and analysed for detection of Proteus species using cultural, biochemical and microscopic techniques. Antibiotics susceptibilities of isolates were also determined, and virulence genes were confirmed using Polymerase Chain Reaction. Of the total studied samples, 34.3% (74/216) were positive for Proteus species. Proteus species were more prevalent in drinking water samples (37.84%) and feed samples (33.8%) and less prevalent in eggshells (28.4%). Proteus species (n= 74) comprised P. mirabilis 78.4 % (58/74) and Proteus vulgaris 21.6 % (16/74). P. mirabilis was markedly higher than P. vulgaris in all the four farms sampled. Farms A and D had the highest prevalence of Proteus species comprising P. mirabilis (82.4%) and P. vulgaris (17.6%), although the prevalence was not statistically significantly different (p≤ 0.05) from the other farms. The highest number of isolates were resistant to tetracycline (25.7%), while no resistance was observed for Amikacin. Molecular analysis of the virulence genes of Proteus species revealed the presence of rsbA, ureC and luxS virulent genes in all the test isolates. Data generated indicates a high level of multidrug-resistant pathogenic strains of Proteus circulating in poultry farms in Lafia, Nigeria, which potentiates a significant risk of transmission of pathogenic Proteus via the food chain.

Keywords: Food safety, Proteus species, virulence genes, antimicrobial resistance, poultry farms
1. Introduction

The poultry industry is a major component of the Nigerian economy, providing a source of income to farmers and serving as a main source of high-quality protein for the fast-growing population, due to affordability and acceptability of their products (Bettridge et al., 2014). However, the incidence of microbial infections from infected birds with clinical diseases in the poultry farm environment and products has threatened public health and food safety and may cripple economic gains derived from this industry (Foti et al., 2011; Menghistu et al., 2011).

Proteus is a major challenge to both humans and animals worldwide and is frequently found in a number of food animals including poultry (Lei et al., 2014). There are now multiple resistant forms of this bacterium which indicates a major food issue (Lei et al., 2016). With several foodborne poisoning attributed to Proteus group of bacteria and rising incidence of Proteus induced foodborne infections, it is pertinent that control programs and prophylactic measurements be developed to prevent and combat outbreaks of foodborne infections/poisoning from poultry and poultry products (Ram et al., 2019). Poultry and other poultry products are believed to be the main vehicle of transmission of Proteus (Firdildak et al., 2015). Poultry might have Proteus strains in their droppings and on their bodies (feathers, feet and beaks), even when they appear healthy and clean. The Proteus species can stick to cages, coops, feed and water dishes, hay, plants and soil in the area where the birds live; also egg shells may become contaminated with Proteus from poultry droppings (poop) or the area where they are laid (Jambalang et al., 2017). From a public health point of view, the number of eggs and animals affected by Proteus is a risk factor for a human disease or infection (Awad-Alla et al., n.d.).

Human cases of Proteus are typically acquired through the consumption of contaminated food. Proteus spread usually through the faecal-oral route (contamination of hands or objects with bacteria shed in the stool) (Tonkić et al., 2010). Proteus in chicken droppings might be transmitted to vulnerable workers while handling infected chicken directly or through faecal-contaminated poultry products (Barua et al., 2013; Lima-Filho et al., 2013). Generally, there are two possible routes of egg contamination by Proteus. Eggs can be contaminated by penetration of the bacterium through the eggshell from the colonised gut or from contaminated faeces during or after oviposition (horizontal transmission). Horizontal transmission occurs following ingestion of food or water already contaminated with feces of clinically infected birds or carriers, presence of dead
chickens, poultry farm attendants and contaminated feeds (Armbruster et al., 2014). The second possible route is by direct contamination of the yolk, albumen, eggshell membranes or eggshells before oviposition, originating from the infection of reproductive organs with Proteus (vertical transmission) (Moosavy et al., 2015; Momani et al., 2017).

Consumption of raw/undercooked eggs has consistently been identified as the primary risk factor for Proteus mirabilis (MD Salihu, 2015). Proteus is known to cause human urinary tract infection (UTI), nosocomial infection, wound infection (Jacobsen et al., 2008; Ebringer and Rashid, 2014) and showed clear history of zoonosis in wide host ranges with emergence of multidrug resistance (MDR) in recent years (Tonkić et al., 2010). Multidrug resistant Proteus may be transmitted among poultry farm workers who in turn may transmit the pathogen in the surrounding environment.

Many classes of antimicrobial agents used in animals are also used by humans, and there is potential selection and spread of antimicrobial resistant bacteria or genes from animals to humans through the food chain (Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), 2016). The indiscriminate use of antibiotics or congeners has created enormous pressure for selection of antimicrobial resistance among bacterial pathogens worldwide, including Proteus strains found in poultry products and poultry environment (Nahar et al., 2014).

The virulence of the Proteus species is caused by several factors which are regulated and expressed by virulence genes encoded in operons (Kumar Trivedi, 2015; Pathirana et al., 2018). These virulence genes increase the pathogenicity of Proteus species among which include urease which is the most significant enzyme for kidney and bladder stone formation (Mohamed et al., 2014) and enables it to produce an environment in which it can survive (Aboh et al., 2015). The luxS gene is involved in the synthesis of auto inducer 2 (AI-2) secreted by bacteria and used to communicate both the cell density and the metabolic potential of the environment (Badi and Sepahi, 2014). Swarming behaviour of P. mirabilis mediated by rsbA gene has been associated with biofilm formation and extracellular polysaccharide formation (Różalski et al., 2012). Continuous monitoring and surveillance of poultry farms is pertinent to establish possible routes of transmission of microbial pathogens from poultry farms via the food chain.

This study investigated the prevalence, antimicrobial resistance and virulence gene profiles of Proteus species isolated from Poultry farm samples in Lafia, Nigeria.
2. Material and Methods

2.1 Sample collection and bacterial isolation

A cross-sectional study was conducted for two months between May and June, 2019 and a total number of 216 samples from four commercial poultry farms in Lafia, Nasarawa State were collected. The sample size was determined by using the prevalence of 16.67% reported by (Esther Chat et al., 2019) and the following the equation described by (Naing et al., 2006) as

\[ n = \frac{Z^2 P(1 - P)}{d^2} \]

Where: \( n \) = sample size
\( P \) = prevalence from a previous study = 16.67% = 0.17.
\( Z \) = standard normal distribution at 95% confidence interval= 1.96.
\( D \) = absolute desired precision at 5% = 0.05.

Samples included poultry feed (n = 64), drinking water (n=64) and unbroken egg shells (n = 88) from four selected poultry farms in equal amounts during early morning hours on a weekly interval.

Swab samples collected from surfaces of egg shells were inoculated into buffered peptone water (BPW) (Oxoid, UK) in screw capped bottles, incubated at 37 °C for 24 h and thereafter pre-enriched in Selenite-F broth. A loopful of culture from Selenite-F was sub-cultured by streaking onto Xylose lysine deoxycholate agar (XLD) and incubated at 37 °C for 24h (Suresh et al., 2006; Office International des Epizooties (OIE), 2012). One millilitre of poultry drinking trough was inoculated into 9ml of BPW and the mixture was incubated at 37°C for 24h. Thereafter, 1ml of solution was transferred into 9ml Selenite-F broth and a loopful was streaked on XLD agar (Oxoid Basingtoke and Hampshire, UK) and incubated at 37 °C for 24 h.
2.2 Identification of presumptive isolates

Bacterial isolates were identified on the basis of their cultural, biochemical, microscopic identification and morphological characteristics according to the method of Cheesbrough (Cheesbrough, 2006) and OIE (Office International des Epizooties (OIE), 2012). Isolates showing transparent colonies with black center on XLD due to hydrogen sulphide production were selected as presumptive bacteria and sub - cultured on nutrient agar (Office International des Epizooties (OIE), 2012). Pure isolates were confirmed by their biochemical characteristics using urease, Triple sugar Iron test and citrate test. Afterwards, bacterial isolates identified as Proteus species were delineated into their various species by the indole test and stored on agar slants for further analysis.

2.3 Antimicrobial susceptibility and resistance profiling of Proteus species

The antimicrobial resistance profiles of Proteus species to ten antibiotics were determined by disc diffusion method using standard procedures described by the Clinical Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) (CLSI, 2016). Ten commercial antibiotics disk (Oxoid, UK) which include: Amikacin (AMK) (30μg), Tetracycline (TET) (30μg), Ciprofloxacin (CPX) (5μg), Erythromycin (ERY) (15μg), Gentamycin (GEN) (10μg), Ampicillin (AMP) (10μg), Ofloxacin (OFX) (5μg), Ceftriaxone (CRO) (30μg), Levofloxacin (LVX) (5μg), and Penicillin (PEN) (10μg) were used.

Bacterial species were spread on a nutrient agar and antibiotics discs were aseptically placed on the plates using sterile forceps. Plates were incubated for 24h at 37°C. Thereafter, the diameters of the zones of inhibition were measured in millimeter (mm) and results were interpreted using the Clinical Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) interpretative charts (CLSI, 2016).
2.4 Molecular Identification of Virulence Genes of Proteus species

2.4.1 DNA extraction

Genomic DNA was extracted using the boiling method. Briefly, 5 mL of bacterial isolates grown in Laura Bertani (LB) broth at 37 ºC for 8 h were centrifuged at 14000 rpm for 3 min. The cells were resuspended in 500 µl of normal saline and heated at 95 ºC for 20 min in the heating chamber. The heated bacterial suspension was cooled on ice and centrifuged at 14000 rpm for 3 min. The supernatant containing the DNA was transferred to a 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tubes and stored at – 20 ºC for further use.

2.4.2 DNA Quantification

The extracted genomic DNA was quantified using the NanoDrop 1000 spectrophotometer by placing a drop (approximately 2 µl) on the sample space and analysed using the NanoDrop 1000 software.

2.4.3 Molecular characterisation of virulence genes of Proteus species

The virulence genes of Proteus species were characterised by Polymerase chain reaction technique. The following primer sets were used, (5’ – TTGAAGGACGCGATCAGACC – 3’) and (3’ – ACTCTGCTGTCCCTGTGGGTA- 5’), which amplifies a 467 bp sequence of rsbA gene (Abbas et al., 2015). (5’ – ACTCTGCTGTCCCTGTGGGTA -3’) and (3’ – GTTATTCGTGATGGTATGGG-5’) which amplifies the 317 bp sequence of ureC gene (Pathirana et al., 2018) and (5’ – GTATGTCTGCACCTGCGGTA- 3’) and (3’ – TTTGAGTTTGCTTCTGGTAGTGCG- 5’) which amplifies the 464 bp sequence of luxS genes (Abbas et al., 2015). Gene amplification was carried out on thermal cycler (AB Biosystem, USA) at a final volume of 25 µl for 35 cycles. The PCR mix included X2 Dream Taq Master Mix supplied by Inqaba, South Africa (Taq polymerase, DNTPs, MgCl), and the primers at a concentration of 0.2M and 0.5 µl DNA as template. The PCR conditions were as follows: Initial denaturation, 95ºC for 5 minutes; denaturation, 95 ºC for 30 seconds; annealing, 59 ºC for 30 seconds; extension, 72 ºC for 30 seconds for 35 cycles and final extension, 72 ºC for 5 minutes. The product was resolved on a 1% agarose gel at 120V for 20 minutes and visualised on a UV trans illuminator.
3. **Results**

3.1 **Identification of *Proteus* species**

Presumptive isolates were identified based on the cultural and biochemical characteristics. Cultural characteristics included transparent colonies with black center on XLD due to hydrogen sulphide production. A total of 74 isolates were confirmed positive on urease media with production of pinkish - red colouration of the medium. Further examination using Triple sugar Iron test showed black butt from production of hydrogen sulphide (H$_2$S) while motility test produced a cloudy and distinct line of inoculation. Citrate test was positive for *Proteus* species. *P. vulgaris* was indole positive while *P. mirabilis* was indole negative.

The prevalence rate among the samples (n=216) of eggshells (88), poultry feed (n=64), drinking water (n=64) from the four poultry farms was 34.3% (74/216) (Table 1). *Proteus* species was prevalent at 28.4% (21/74) among eggshell samples, 33.8% (25/74) among feed samples and 37.84% (28/74) among drinking water samples (Table 1). Among the four farms, the prevalence of *Proteus* species was in the following order; Farms A and D (20/74, 9.26%), Farm B (19/74, 8.80%), Farm C (15/74, 6.9%). From the sample types, water from the trough contained the highest amount of *Proteus* species (28/74, 12.96%), followed by the feed (25/74, 11.5%), then the egg shell (21/74, 9.73%). However, the prevalence of *Proteus* sp. did not vary significantly (p ≤ 0.05) among all the samples collected from the four commercial farms.

*P. mirabilis* was more prevalent (58/74, 78.4%) than *P. vulgaris* (16/74, 21.6%) among all the samples from the four farms. The drinking water sample contained the highest density of *P. mirabilis* (31.1%, 23/74) followed by feed sample (25.68%, 19/74), then egg shell sample (21.62%, 16/74) while the feed sample comprised a highest density of *P. vulgaris* (8.12%, 6/74) followed by drinking water and eggs shells (6.76%, 5/74), respectively.
The prevalence of \textit{P. mirabilis} was in the order: Farm A (21.62\%, 16/74), Farms B and D (20.27\%, 15/74), then Farm C (16.22\%, 12/74) while \textit{P. vulgaris} was the highest in Farm D (6.76\%, 5/74), followed by farms A and B (5.41\%, 4/74) and the lowest in farm C (4.05\%, 3/74).

Table 1. Prevalence of \textit{Proteus} species from farm equipment and products from four commercial farms in Nasarawa State

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample type</th>
<th>Sample size (n=216)</th>
<th>Prevalence of positive samples (%)</th>
<th>Farm A</th>
<th>Farm B</th>
<th>Farm C</th>
<th>Farm D</th>
<th>Total number of positive samples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eggshell swabs</td>
<td>88</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.32 (5)</td>
<td>2.32 (5)</td>
<td>1.85 (4)</td>
<td>3.24 (7)</td>
<td>9.73 (21/216)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feed</td>
<td>64</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.24 (7)</td>
<td>3.24 (7)</td>
<td>2.31 (5)</td>
<td>2.78 (6)</td>
<td>11.57 (25/216)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drinking water</td>
<td>64</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.7 (8)</td>
<td>3.24 (7)</td>
<td>2.78 (6)</td>
<td>3.24 (7)</td>
<td>12.96 (28/216)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>216</td>
<td></td>
<td>9.26 (20/216)</td>
<td>8.80 (19/216)</td>
<td>6.94 (15/216)</td>
<td>9.26 (20/216)</td>
<td>34.26 (74/216)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Prevalence of \textit{P. mirabilis} and \textit{P. vulgaris} from four commercial farms in Nasarawa State

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample type</th>
<th>Farm A</th>
<th>Farm B</th>
<th>Farm C</th>
<th>Farm D</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>\textit{P. mirabilis} (%)</td>
<td>\textit{P. vulgaris} (%)</td>
<td>\textit{P. mirabilis} (%)</td>
<td>\textit{P. vulgaris} (%)</td>
<td>\textit{P. mirabilis} (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egg shell</td>
<td>5.41 (4)</td>
<td>1.35 (1)</td>
<td>5.41 (4)</td>
<td>1.35 (1)</td>
<td>4.05 (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feed</td>
<td>6.76 (5)</td>
<td>2.7 (2)</td>
<td>8.11 (6)</td>
<td>1.35 (1)</td>
<td>5.41 (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drinking water</td>
<td>9.46 (7)</td>
<td>1.35 (1)</td>
<td>6.76 (5)</td>
<td>1.35 (2)</td>
<td>6.76 (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21.62 (16/74)</td>
<td>5.41 (4/74)</td>
<td>20.27 (15/74)</td>
<td>5.41 (4/74)</td>
<td>16.22 (12/74)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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3.2 Antimicrobial susceptibility and resistance profiling of *Proteus* species

The antimicrobial susceptibility and resistance of 74 confirmed *Proteus* species were tested against a panel of 10 antibiotics. *P. mirabilis* was more resistant than *P. vulgaris*. *Proteus* species were susceptible to the antibiotics in varying amounts and susceptibility declined in the following order: Amikacin and Gentamicin (95.9%), Levofloxacin (93.0%), Ciprofloxacin and Penicillin (86.5%), Ofloxacin (82.4%), Erythromycin (81.1%), Ampicillin (77.0%) and Tetracycline (68.91%). Resistance of *Proteus* to antibiotics was observed in the following order with the highest resistance recorded for tetracycline (25.7%) followed by Cefotaxime (18.9%), Erythromycin (10.81%), Ofloxacin, Gentamicin, Ampicillin (9.5%), Ciprofloxacin, Penicillin (4.1%) and Levofloxacin (1.4%). No resistance was observed for Amikacin.
Table 3. Antimicrobial susceptibility profile of *Proteus* species in the four commercial poultry farms in Nasarawa State

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Antibiotics (µg)</th>
<th>Susceptible (%)</th>
<th>Intermediate (%)</th>
<th>Resistance (%)</th>
<th>Total resistance (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>P. mirabilis</em></td>
<td><em>P. vulgaris</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FA</td>
<td>FB</td>
<td>FC</td>
<td>FD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FA</td>
<td>FB</td>
<td>FC</td>
<td>FD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FA</td>
<td>FB</td>
<td>FC</td>
<td>FD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amikacin (30)</td>
<td>55 (74.3)</td>
<td>16 (21.6)</td>
<td>71 (95.9)</td>
<td>3 (4.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ciprofloxacin (5)</td>
<td>54 (73.0)</td>
<td>10 (13.5)</td>
<td>64 (86.5)</td>
<td>3 (4.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erythromycin (15)</td>
<td>51 (68.9)</td>
<td>9 (12.2)</td>
<td>60 (81.1)</td>
<td>2 (2.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tetracycline (30)</td>
<td>45 (60.8)</td>
<td>6 (8.1)</td>
<td>51 (68.9)</td>
<td>4 (5.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Levofloxacin (5)</td>
<td>53 (71.6)</td>
<td>16 (21.6)</td>
<td>69 (93.2)</td>
<td>4 (5.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ofloxacin (5)</td>
<td>53 (71.6)</td>
<td>8 (10.8)</td>
<td>61 (82.4)</td>
<td>4 (5.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cefotaxime (30)</td>
<td>48 (64.9)</td>
<td>11 (17.2)</td>
<td>59 (79.7)</td>
<td>4 (5.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gentamicin (10)</td>
<td>57 (77.0)</td>
<td>14 (18.9)</td>
<td>71 (95.9)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ampicillin (10)</td>
<td>49 (66.2)</td>
<td>8 (10.8)</td>
<td>57 (77.0)</td>
<td>6 (8.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Penicillin (10)</td>
<td>51 (68.9)</td>
<td>13 (17.6)</td>
<td>64 (86.5)</td>
<td>5 (6.8)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: FA – Farm A, FB – Farm B, FC – Farm C, FD – Farm D.
3.3 Molecular characterisation of virulence genes of bacterial species

The molecular analysis of *Proteus* species was carried out to detect the virulence genes *luxS*, *ureC* and *rsbA* genes (Figure 1). Among the 15 *Proteus* species, the *luxS* gene was detected in seven *Proteus* isolates (four isolates of *P. vulgaris* and three isolates of *P. mirabilis*) (Figure 1a). The *ureC* gene was detected in ten *Proteus* isolates (six isolates of *P. mirabilis* isolates and four *P. vulgaris* isolates) (Figure 1b) while the *rsbA* gene was detected in four *Proteus* isolates (three *P. mirabilis* and one *P. vulgaris* isolates) (Figure 1c).

![Agarose gel electrophoresis of the amplified luxS genes from the Proteus species.](image)

**Figure 1:** Agarose gel electrophoresis of the amplified *luxS* genes from the *Proteus* species. Lanes P1-P4, P9, P10 and P14 represent the *luxS* bands. Lane L represents the 1000 bp molecular ladder.

**Key:** P1-P5 represent *P. vulgaris*; P6-P15 represent *P. mirabilis*. 
Figure 2: Agarose gel electrophoresis of the amplified ureC genes from the Proteus species. Lanes P1, P3-P5, P8, P10, P11, P12, P14 and P15 represent the ureC bands. Lane L represents the 1000 bp molecular ladder, while other lanes show no band. Key: P1-P5 represent P. vulgaris; P6-P15 represent P. mirabilis.

Figure 3: Agarose gel electrophoresis of the amplified rsbA genes from the Proteus species. Lanes P1, P8, P14 and P15 represent the rsbA bands. Lane L represents the 1000 bp molecular ladder, while other lanes showed no band. Key: P1-P5 represent P. vulgaris; P6-P15 represent P. mirabilis.
4. DISCUSSION

The cross-sectional study examined the phenotypic resistance and virulence profile of *Proteus* species from eggshells, feed and drinking water samples collected from four commercial poultry farms in Lafia, Nasarawa State. The overall prevalence of *Proteus* species was approximately 34.3% (74 positive samples, n= 216) with drinking water having the highest number of positive samples and *P. mirabilis* was the predominant species found in all the samples. Although, the prevalence of *Proteus* species among all the samples from the four farms was not statistically significantly different (P ≤ 0.05), the number of isolated *Proteus* species is still worrisome due to the ability of these bacterial pathogens to cause human infections such as pneumonia, septicaemia, central nervous system infection, food poisoning and urolithiasis (Barbour et al., 2012). Direct contact of humans with faecal droppings harbouring *Proteus* species can result in the transmission of the pathogens to immune suppressed persons leading to urinary tract infections (Pathirana et al., 2018). *P. mirabilis* has been frequently isolated from chicken eggs, cloacal swabs and environmental samples from poultry farms. Ubiebi (Ubiebi, 2017) isolated *P. mirabilis* from poultry feeds in Delta State, Nigeria and *P. mirabilis* was among the isolates present in layers mash and broiler finisher samples obtained from ten poultry farms in Ekiti, Nigeria (Oyinloye et al., 2015). Enterobacteriaceae including *P. mirabilis* and *P. vulgaris* were frequently isolated from poultry birds (Kuznetsova et al., 2019).

Data generated from this study is of great public health importance as empirical evidence has demonstrated the involvement of *Proteus* species in human diseases and as agents of animal infections and bacterial contamination of poultry products (Nahar et al., 2014). Additionally, the occurrence of *Proteus* species in these farms is an indication of defective biosafety measures in controlling rodents’ infestations, insect vectors, wild birds and pet movements in the poultry pens.

The high prevalence of *Proteus mirabilis* (61%) reported in this study is comparably lower to the prevalence of 66% documented by (Barbour et al., 2012). The highest prevalence of *Proteus* species particularly *P. mirabilis*, was recorded for farms A and D while Farm C had the lowest prevalence of *Proteus* species. This result could be attributed to poor sanitary practices in Farms A and D which include lack of control of entry of rodents and wild birds into the poultry houses, poor cleaning and disinfection of pens and the siting of the two - farms in water logged areas. On the other hand, Farm C was well fenced and good hygienic practices are observed such as frequent
cleaning of feed and water troughs. Additionally, the entry of visitors into farm C is restricted in contrast to unrestricted visits to Farms A, B and D.

Antibiotics resistant bacteria was detected in all the four farm samples. The 23% resistance to Tetracycline in this study disagrees with the result of (Dadheech et al., 2015) who recorded a 100% resistance of Proteus species isolated from chicken to Tetracycline in Ajmer Region, India. Data obtained may be attributed to the frequent use of tetracycline in routine prophylaxis and chemotherapy in livestock management in Nigeria (Aliyu et al., 2019). Varying resistance were also exhibited by the isolates to the other antibiotics such as Erythromycin (12.2%) and Cefotaxime (8.61%). This finding is baffling considering that Erythromycin and Cefotaxime are not routinely used in poultry management in the areas studied. This finding may suggest the transmission of Erythromycin- and Cefotaxime-resistant strains to the birds or contamination of eggs/water by poultry attendants in the farms. Antibiotics may be continuously administered as growth promoters to food grade animals such as broilers and turkeys, therefore, the antibiotic selection pressure for resistance amongst bacteria in poultry is high and consequently their faecal flora contains a relatively high proportion of resistant bacteria (Nair et al., 2017). The interaction between the different components in a food chain or the environment further contributes to the spread of antibiotic resistance across species (Landers et al., 2012).

The most effective antibiotics against Proteus species were the Aminoglycosides, Amikacin and Gentamicin, with 95.9% activity against Proteus while the highest resistance was recorded for tetracycline (25.7%). Similar findings reported by Kuznetsova et al. (Kuznetsova et al., 2019) showed a low resistance of Proteus to Amikacin and Gentamicin and total resistance to tetracycline. Resistance of Proteus species to Ciprofloxacin (4.1%) was low in this study in contrast to the report of Kuznetsova et al. (Kuznetsova et al., 2019) who recorded a 36.8% resistance to Ciprofloxacin. The low level of resistance exhibited by the isolates to Ciprofloxacin (4.1 %) may be attributed to the small size of the drug which is a factor that enhances its solubility in the diluents thus enhancing its penetration power through the cell into the cytoplasm of the target organism where it exerts its effects (Okpo et al., 2017). The high resistance of multidrug P. mirabilis to Tetracycline and its susceptibility to Ciprofloxacin in droppings of poultry birds collected in Bangladesh (Nahar et al., 2014) is consonance with the result obtained in our study where P. mirabilis was resistant to Tetracycline and sensitive to Ciprofloxacin. Okonko et al.
(Okonko et al., 2010) found *P. mirabilis* to be 100% sensitive to streptomycin, an aminoglycoside in the same family with Amikacin and Gentamicin used in our study where the sensitivity was 95.9%. Likewise, the resistant and susceptibility patterns of *P. mirabilis* to tetracycline and Gentamicin, respectively were established in poultry feeds purchased from Calabar, Nigeria (Okonko et al., 2010). This report suggests that the presence of *Proteus* in poultry feeds may be attributed to commercially sold feeds contaminated with *Proteus* and not necessarily from poultry workers directly infecting the feed. In agreement with similar studies, the aminoglycosides seem to be the drug of choice for treatment of *Proteus* infections. The extra outer cytoplasmic membrane comprising the lipid bilayer, lipoproteins, polysaccharides and lipopolysaccharides may be responsible for *Proteus* resistance to antibiotics (Okonko et al., 2010). The availability and accessibility to antimicrobial compounds such as Ciprofloxacin, Streptomycin, Gentamicin, Erythromycin, Tetracycline, Furazolidone among others in open markets to treat broiler/layer poses a challenge to reducing antimicrobial resistance in the poultry farms (Hasan et al., 2011; Nahar et al., 2014).

The *ureC* gene was the predominant gene detected in this study. *ureC* gene is responsible for the elevation of pH of urine resulting in stone formation and it plays a crucial role in the virulence of *Proteus* species (Mohammed et al., 2014). Ram *et al.* (Ram et al., 2019) found *ureC* genes in the chicken cloacal swabs collected from a livestock farm complex in India. The frequency of occurrence of *ureC* genes (66.7%) among the *Proteus* species was higher than the other two genes. However, the frequency of 66.7% is lower compared to similar findings of Pathirana *et al.* (Pathirana et al., 2018) who isolated *Proteus* species from humans and pet turtles and reported 91.7% prevalence for *ureC* genes. Gene expression of *ureC* genes and other virulent genes in Multidrug resistant *P. mirabilis* isolated from diarrhetic animals in North East China were was associated to biofilm formation (Sun et al., 2020). The *rsbA* gene was amplified in both *P. mirabilis* and *P. vulgaris* with a 26.7% frequency which is in contrast to the report of Abbas *et al.* (Abbas et al., 2015), who reported that *rsbA* gene could not be amplified in *P. mirabilis* and *P. vulgaris*. Swarming behaviour of *P. mirabilis* is mediated by *rsbA* gene which may function as a protein sensor of environmental conditions (Różalski et al., 2012). The *rsbA* gene is also responsible for biofilm formation and extracellular polysaccharide formation (Różalski et al., 2012). The *luxS* genes were detected in all the *Proteus* species. *luxS* genes production has been
implicated in biofilm formation by members of the Enterobacteriaceae including *Proteus* species (Badi and Sepahi, 2014).

5. CONCLUSIONS

This study revealed the prevalence of antimicrobial resistant *Proteus* species in poultry feed, water and eggshells collected from four poultry farms in Lafia, Nigeria. Proteus species were also confirmed to possess virulence genes which is suggestive of potential threat to food safety. In order to minimise the spread of antimicrobial resistance arising from poultry farms, it is important to regulate the use of antimicrobial agents as growth promoters for poultry birds. Effective management of the poultry farm environment and farm products can also be achieved through routine monitoring and surveillance of farms to avert possible transmission of pathogenic microorganisms via the food chain. It is also a matter of urgency to ensure maintenance of proper sanitation and hygiene in the farms by farm managers. Quality control of feeds purchased should be carried out to avoid transmission of pathogens from external sources. These measures will enable the check the spread of pathogenic bacteria including *Proteus* from poultry farms.

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare that there’s no conflict of interest.

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