Anti Microbial Resistance in Salmonella

Yashpal Singh¹, Anjani Saxena², Jeetendrasingh Bohra³, Rajesh Kumar⁴, Avdesh Kumar⁵ and Mumtesh Kumar Saxena^{6,*}

¹Department of Molecular Biology and Genetic Engineering; ²Department of Veterinary Pharmacology and Toxicology; ³Uttarakhand Council for Biotechnology, Haldi; ⁴Department of Veterinary Microbiology; ⁵Department of Veterinary Extension; ⁶Department of Physiology and Biochemistry, G.B. Pant University of Agriculture and Technology, Pantnagar, India

Abstract: Antibiotics are one of the major drugs to eradicate microbial infection. Many types of antibiotics have been used as therapeutics in several fields such as medical, agriculture, animal husbandry for human beings as well as animals. In past few years microbes have become resistant to some common antibiotics. We found that drug resistance is escalating at an alarming rate. Some of the infections like typhoid, pneumonia, tuberculosis, and gonorrhea are becoming difficult to treat while antibiotics are becoming less effective. Typhoid fever is one of the most common foodborne illnesses leading to many deaths annually worldwide. The emergence of multi-drug resistant *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhi strains (*S*. Typhi) has resulted in several large outbreaks of enteric fever in many developing countries of the world leading to increased morbidity and mortality. Multi-drug resistance remains a major public health problem, particularly in developing countries of Asia and Africa. Some important measures like rational use of antibiotics, and public health education can play a crucial role in the prevention of multiple drug resistant typhoid fever.

Keywords: Salmonella, plasmids, antibiotics, multiple drug resistance.

INTRODUCTION

Salmonella is a genus consisting of serovars of facultative gram-negative bacterium. Salmonella enterica serovars Typhi, Paratyphi A, Paratyphi B, and Paratyphi C lead to typhoid fever in humans and are collectively known as typhoidal Salmonella while other serovars are grouped as non-typhoidal Salmonella (NTS) which are causative agents of non-typhoidal salmonellosis in animals. Typhoidal Salmonella strains that cause typhoid and paratyphoid fever are restricted to human beings whereas non-typhoidal Salmonella strains infect a broad range of animal species [1]. In current scenario typhoid fever has became a serious global health problemwith approximately 21 million cases and more than 200,000 deaths annually in developing countries of Asia and Africa as well as in some developed countries [2]. The most common cause of the infection of S. Typhi is consumption of contaminated food and water [3]. There is always a possibility of high risk of infection of S. Typhi due to unhygienic conditions and low economic status of developing countries [4, 5]. Inspite of the emergence of newer antimicrobial drugs, typhoid fever has continued to be a crucial public health problem [6]. Antibiotics such as ampicillin, ceftriaxone, cotrimoxazole and ciprofloxacin have become resistant to Salmonella enterica. The emergence of multiple drug resistance to the frequently used antibiotics has made

the treatment of typhoid fever more complex and hence considered as one of the utmost challenges in the management of this illness [7].

HISTORY OF ANTIMICROBIAL RESISTANCE

Apart from the above causes of *S*. Typhi infection, occurrence of antimicrobial resistance in SalmonellaTyphi has made treatment of typhoid fever more complicated. Antibiotics were used for the treatment of typhoid fever globally. Among antibiotics, chloramphenicol was the main drug of choice for the treatment of enteric fever before 1970s [8-10]. Later in 1972, the first outbreak caused by a chloramphenicolresistant strain was reported from Mexico [11]. Afterwards, outbreaks involving chloramphenicolresistant Salmonella entericaserovar Typhi were reported from several countries including India [12], South Korea [13]. Bangladesh [14] and Vietnam [15]. It was observed that self-transmissible plasmid of the HI1 incompatibility type (IncHI) was responsible for the chloramphenicol resistance. IncHI plasmids are considered to carry genes which confer resistance to many other drugs like streptomycin, sulfonamides, and tetracyclines [16, 14]. Later ampicillin and trimethoprimsulfamethoxazole were used as first-line drugs for the treatment of typhoid fever until resistance was reported [6]. Multiple-drug resistance (MDR) to different antibiotics like ampicillin, chloramphenicol, and trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole, was reported from several countries [17, 18] leading to large number of cases of enteric fever [19-21]. The multi-drug resistant

^{*}Address correspondence to this author at the Department of Physiology and Biochemistry,G.B. Pant University of Agriculture and Technology, Pantnagar, India; Tel: 91-9458269455; Fax: 91-05944-233473;

E-mail: mumtesh@rediffmail.com

Salmonella Typhistrains caused outbreaks of typhoid fever in many developing countries of Africa and South Asia like Kenya [22], Nigeria [23], India [24] and Vietnam [20]. After the development of drug resistance to the earlier used antibiotics, the use of fluoroquinolone like ciprofloxacin, ofloxacin was recommended as the substitute drugs for the treatment of enteric fever [25]. Though the cases of typhoid fever due to fluoroquinolone-resistant Salmonellaserovar Typhi isolates were reported from several parts of the world [26, 27, 28]. Later in 2000s Cephalosporins and Azithromycin were introduced for the treatment of typhoid fever due to the development of resistance of fluoroquinolones like ciprofloxacin, ofloxacin [29]. Cephalosporins such as oral Cefixime were considered to be very effective drug against S. Typhi till the emergence of extended-spectrum cephalosporinresistant strains in Asia and Africa [30]. In past few years, extended-spectrum-beta-lactamase production in a Salmonella enterica serovar Typhi strain from Bangladesh, Philippines [31, 32] and ACC-1 betalactamase producing Salmonella enterica serovar Typhi from India have been reported [33]. It was considered to be developed by S. Typhi H58 clade (genotype 4.3.1) which consists of IncHI1 plasmids carrying MDR genes and mutations causing antibiotics resistance [34]. This clade was considered to be emerged from Indian sub-continent and later spreaded to South-East Asia and Africa followed by other parts of the world [35]. Apart from plasmid mediated and adoptive MDR, chromosomal genes mediated antibiotic resistance has also been reported in Salmonella Typhi. These strains retain their resistance even without exposure to any antibiotics. Chromosomal mediated MDR is a very complex phenomena and many genes especially Salmonella genomic island I were found to be involved in it [36]. The percentage of patients undergoing clinical treatment, prolonged expensive hospital accommodation due to emergence of multiple drug resistant strains of pathogen in recent years has increased [37, 2]. In past few years MDR strains of S. Typhi has caused large outbreaks of typhoid fever in many developing countries of Asia and Africa [38]. azithromycin Recently resistance for both Salmonellaenterica serovars Typhi and Paratyphi have also been reported [39].

MECHANISMS OF DRUG RESISTANCE

Multiple-Drug Resistance

Salmonella entericaresists the action of antibiotics by many ways such as inactivation of the drug,

transport or efflux of the antibiotics, reduced permeability of the antimicrobial drugs and modification of the drug target site. The resistance determinants located on plasmids are the major cause of resistance to the first-line drugs like ampicillin, chloramphenicol, trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole. and Ampicillin resistance is generally mediated through lactamases whilea number of mechanisms may be related with chloramphenicol resistance. Chloramphenicol acetyltransferases (CATs) (types I to III) are considered to be responsible for chloramphenicol resistance in gram-negative bacteria but resistance due to the production of CAT type I has been reported most Enterobacteriaceae commonly in familv [40]. Trimethoprim and sulfamethoxazole prevent the DNA synthesis as they both inhibit folate pathway. The presence of genes encoding folate pathway enzymes that do not bind these compounds is the major cause of resistance to both the antibiotics. The presence of genes such as dihydrofolate reductase (dfr) genes, sulgenes like sul1 or sul2 in Salmonella enterica are responsible for mediating resistance to trimethoprim and sulfamethoxazole [41]. Similarly other antimicrobial resistance genes present in the Salmonella genomic island (SGI-1) of Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium confer resistance to antibiotics such as blaPSE-1 confer resistance to ampicillin, floR confer resistance to chloramphenicol and florfenicol, aadA2 confer resistance tostreptomycin and *tetG* to tetracycline [42].

Fluoroquinolone Resistance

Fluoroquinolones are the group of antibiotics which target twoenzymes DNA gyrase and topoisomerase IV. The subunits of these enzymes are encoded by the gyrA and gyrB and the parC and parEgenes respectively [43]. Mutations in these genes is considered to be the major cause of reduced susceptibility or resistance to fluoroguinolones [44, 45]. Multiple mutations in the gyrasegene or other topoisomerase genes are essential to confer complete clinical resistance to drugs like ciprofloxacin [46]. Apart from chromosomal-mediated mechanisms other mechanisms such as plasmid-mediated resistance have been reported. In the late 1990s, gnrA was reported as thefirst plasmid-mediated resistance mechanism to fluoroquinolones. Avariety of other plasmid-mediated mechanisms have been revealedin Enterobacteriaceae family [47, 48]. Theplasmidmediated resistance mechanisms have been reported to confer decreased resistance and susceptibility to ciprofloxacin [49, 50].

Cephalosporin Resistance

Cephalosporins belong to the lactam antibiotics group. These antimicrobials target penicillin binding proteins as well as the cross-linking of the peptidoglycan, which results in disruption of bacterial cell wall synthesis [51]. Resistance to extendedspectrum or third generation cephalosporins such asceftriaxone, mediated is generally through lactamases that inactivate the drug by cleaving the lactam ring. The resistance mediated by lactamases tothird generation cephalosporins can beclassified into Plasmid determined three aroups: AmpC-type lactamases, carbapenemases and extended-spectrum lactamases [52, 53, 54].

Macrolide Resistance

Macrolideare the class of antimicrobials that inhibit the protein synthesis by binding to the 50S subunit of the bacterial ribosome. Azithromycin, erythromycin, roxithromycin, and clarithromycin are the most common antibiotics that belong to Macrolides. The macrolide resistance develops due to the enzymatic modification of the target site as an enzyme encoded by the erm genes catalyze the methylation of the ribosome. These enzymes are responsible for methylating an adenine residue at A2058 position of the domain V of the 23rRNA of the 50S ribosomal subunit. This biochemical change hinder the binding of the drug to its target [55]. The increased azithromycin MICs have revealed the resistance in Salmonella enterica isolates [56]. In 2010, the first case of treatment failure with azithromycinin a patient with Salmonella serovar Paratyphi A isolate infection was reported[57].

Prevention and Control Measures

Contaminated water and food are the most important cause for transmission of typhoid fever. In European countries and North America the incidence of typhoid fever has decreased due to some measures taken as waste water treatment, pasteurization and improved hygienic conditions [58]. Presently, crucial measures undertaken for prevention of typhoid fever include improving sanitation and hygiene, Food and water supply safety, identification and treatment of carriers of *Salmonella* and development of effective typhoid vaccines.

Typhoid fever caused by *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhi remains aglobal public health problemmultiple drug resistant strains continue toemerge, which is resulting in a heavy socio-economic loss in many developing countries and some developed

countries of the world. Antimicrobial resistance has increased the spread of typhoid fever and also made the treatment and management of the disease more complicated. Many preventive measures have been undertaken by different countries to combat the disease. Some of the plant extracts are beneficial against drug resistant Salmonella Typhi isolates. Therefore, more research programmes are required on medicinal plants in order to reduce typhoid fever caused by multi-drug resistance. The frequent spread of multi-drug resistant strains of Salmonella around the world has minimized the action of antimicrobial drugs leading to a major problem to combat the infection. Therefore, there is a need to understand the mechanism of pathogenesis to find new drug targets and delivery systems for the MDR strains of the bacterium and to develop effective, safe and potential drugs to combat the problem against typhoid. On one hand, there is a need to develop more effective antibiotics for treatment of typhoid and on the other hand, there is a necessity to control the spread of disease by use of mass vaccination.

REFERENCES

- [1] Feasey NA, Dougan G, Kingsley RA, Heyderman RS, Gordon MA. Invasive non-typhoidal Salmonella disease: an emerging and neglectedtropical disease in Africa. Lancet 2012; 379: 2489-2499. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(11)61752-2</u>
- WHO Background paper to SAGE on Typhoid Policy Recommendations 2018. http://www.who.int/immunization/ sage/meetings.
- [3] Dewan AM, Corner R, Hashizume M, Ongee ET. Typhoid Fever and its association with environmental factors in the Dhaka Metropolitan Area of Bangladesh: a spatial and timeseries approach. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases 2013; 7(1): 1998. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0001998
- [4] Raj CS. Clinical profile and antibiotic sensitivity pattern of typhoid fever in patients admitted to pediatric ward in a rural teaching hospital. International Journal of Medical Research & Health Sciences 2014; 3(2): 245-249. https://doi.org/10.5958/j.2319-5886.3.2.054
- [5] Jha R, Kumar A, Saxena A, Pandey M, Kumar R, Saxena MK. Heterogeneous expression and functional evaluation of *in silico* characterized recombinant OmpC of *Salmonella* Typhimurium as a functional poultry vaccine to eradicate zoonotic transmission. African Journal of Biotechnology 2015; 14(41): 2862-2870. https://doi.org/10.5897/AJB2015.14865
- [6] Zaki SA, Karande S. Multidrug-resistant typhoid fever: a review. J Infect Dev Ctries 2011; 5: 324-337. <u>https://doi.org/10.3855/jidc.1405</u>
- [7] Sehra D Sehra S, Ralia, P, Sehra ST. An altered drug resistance pattern in *Salmonella typhi*. American Journal of Infectious Diseases and Microbiology 2013; 1: 84-85. <u>https://doi.org/10.12691/ajidm-1-5-1</u>
- [8] Woodward TE, Smadel JE, Ley HL, Green R, Mankikar DS. Preliminary report on the beneficial effect of chloromycetin in the treatment of typhoid fever. Ann Intern Med 1948; 29: 131 -134. https://doi.org/10.7326/0003-4819-29-1-131

- [9] El Ramli AH. Chloramphenicol in typhoid fever. Lancet 1950;
 i: 618 -620. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(50)90509-5
- [10] Watson KC. Chloramphenicol in typhoid fever: a review of 110 cases. Trans Royal Society Trop Med Hyg 1954; 48: 526-532. https://doi.org/10.1016/0035-9203(54)90089-9
- [11] Olarte J, Galindo E.Salmonella Typhi resistant to chloramphenicol, ampicillin and other antimicrobial agents: strains isolated during an extensive typhoid fever epidemic in Mexico. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1973; 4: 597-601. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.4.6.597
- [12] Paniker CKJ, Vimala KN. Transferable chloramphenicol resistance in Salmonella Typhi. Nature 1972; 239(5367): 109-110. https://doi.org/10.1038/239109b0
- [13] Chun D, Seol SY, Cho DT, Tak R. Drug resistance and R plasmids in *Salmonella* Typhi isolated in Korea. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1977; 11: 209-213. <u>https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.11.2.209</u>
- [14] Rowe B, Ward LR, Threlfall EJ. Multidrug-resistant Salmonella Typhi: a worldwide epidemic. Clin Infect Dis 1997; 24: S106-S109. https://doi.org/10.1093/clinids/24.Supplement 1.S106
- [15] Butler T, LinhNN, Arnold K, Pollack M. Chloramphenicol resistant typhoid fever in Vietnam associated with R factor. Lancet 1973; 302: 983-985. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(73)91086-6
- [16] Anderson ES. The problem and implication of chloramphenicol resistance in the typhoid bacillus. J Hyg (London) 1975; 74: 289-299. <u>https://doi.org/10.1017/S0022172400024360</u>
- [17] Rowe B, Ward LR, Threfall EJ. Treatment of multi-resistant typhoid fever. Lancet 1991; 337: 1422. https://doi.org/10.1016/0140-6736(91)93116-Q
- [18] Mirza SH, Beeching NJ, Hart CA.Multi-drug resistant typhoid: a global problem. J Med Microbiol 1996; 44: 317-319. <u>https://doi.org/10.1099/00222615-44-5-317</u>
- [19] Sheorey HS, Kaundinya DV, Hulyalkar VS, Deshpande AK. Multi-drug resistant *Salmonella* Typhi in Bombay. Indian J Pathol Microbiol 1993; 36: 8-12.
- [20] Nguyen TA, Ha Ba K, Nguyen TD. Typhoid fever in South Vietnam, 1990-1993. Bull Soc Pathol Exot 1993; 86: 476-478.
- [21] Ackers M-L, Puhr ND, Tauxe RV, Mintz ED.Laboratory-based surveillance of Salmonella serotype Typhi infections in the United States: antimicrobial resistance on the rise. JAMA 2000; 283: 2668-2673. <u>https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.283.20.2668</u>
- [22] Mengo DM, Kariuki S, Muigai A, Revathi G. Trends in Salmonella entericaserovarTyphi in Nairobi, Kenya from 2004 to 2006. J Infect Dev Ctries 2010; 4: 393-396. <u>https://doi.org/10.3855/jidc.503</u>
- [23] Akinyemi KO, Smith SI, Oyefolu AO, Coker AO. Multidrugresistance in Salmonella entericaserovarTyphi isolated from patientswith typhoid fever complications in Lagos, Nigeria. Public Health 2005; 119: 321-327. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.puhe.2004.04.009</u>
- [24] Kumar S, Rizvi M, Berry N. Rising prevalence of enteric fever due to multidrug-resistant Salmonella: an epidemiological study. J Med Microbiol 2008; 57: 1247-1250. https://doi.org/10.1099/jmm.0.2008/001719-0
- [25] Keddy KH, Smith AM, Sooka A, Ismail H, Oliver S. Fluoroquinolone-resistant typhoid, South Africa. Emerging Infectious Diseases 2010; 16(5): 879-880. https://doi.org/10.3201/eid1605.091917
- [26] Yoo S, Pai H, Byeon JH, Kang YH, Kim S, Lee BK.Epidemiology of Salmonella entericaserotype Typhi

infections in Korea for recent 9 years: trends of antimicrobial resistance. J Korean Med Sci 2004; 19: 15-20. https://doi.org/10.3346/jkms.2004.19.1.15

[27] Chitnis V, Chitnis D, Verma S, Hemvani N. Multidrugresistant Salmonella Typhi in India. Lancet 1999; 354: 514-515.

https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(05)75549-5

- [28] Murdoch DA, Banatvala NA, Bone A, Shoismatulloev BI, Ward LR, Threlfall EJ.Epidemic ciprofloxacin-resistant Salmonella Typhi in Tajaikistan. Lancet 1998; 351: 339. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(05)78338-0</u>
- [29] Chau TT, Campbell JI, Galindo CM, Hoang NVM, Diep TS, Nga TTT, Chau NVV, Tuan PQ, Page AL, Ochiai RL, Schultsz C. Antimicrobial drug resistance of *Salmonellaenterica* serovar Typhi in Asia and molecular mechanism of reduced susceptibility to the fluoroquinolones. Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy 2007; 51(12): 4315-4323.

https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00294-07

- [30] Crump, JA, Sjollund-Karlsson, M, Gordon, MA, Parry, C.M. Epidemiology, clinical presentation, laboratory diagnosis, antimicrobial resistance, and antimicrobial management of invasive Salmonella infections. Clinical Microbiology Reviews 2015; 28(4): 901-937. https://doi.org/10.1128/CMR.00002-15
- [31] Ahmed D, Hoque A, Mazumder R, Nahar K, Islam N, Gazi SA, Hossain MA. Salmonella entericaserovarTyphi strain producing extended-spectrum beta-lactamases in Dhaka, Bangladesh. J Med Microbiol 2012; 61: 1032-1033. https://doi.org/10.1099/imm.0.044065-0
- [32] Al Naiemi N, Zwart B, Rijnsburger MC, Roosendaal R, Debets-Ossenkopp YJ, Mulder JA, Fijen CA, Maten W, Vandenbroucke-Grauls CM, Savelkoul PH. Extendedspectrum-beta-lactamase production in a Salmonella entericaserotype Typhi strain from the Philippines. J Clin Microbiol 2008; 46(8): 2794-2795. https://doi.org/10.1128/JCM.00676-08
- [33] Gokul BN, Menezes GA, Harish BN. ACC-1 beta-lactamase producing Salmonella entericaserovarTyphi, India. Emerg Infect Dis 16: 1170-1171. J Clin Microbiol 2010; 46: 2794-2795. https://doi.org/10.1128/JCM.00676-08
- [34] Thanh DP, Karkey A, Dongol S, Thi NH, Thompson CN, Rabaa MA, Arjyal A, Holt KE, Wong V, Thieu NTV, Vinh PV.A novel ciprofloxacin-resistant subclade of H58 SalmonellaTyphi is associated with fluoroquinolone treatment failure. Elife 2016; 5: 14003. https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.14003
- [35] Wong VK, Baker S, Pickard DJ, Parkhill J, Page AJ, Feasey, N.A, Kingsley R.A, Thomson N.R, Keane J.A, Weill FX, Edwards DJ.Phylogeographical analysis of the dominant multidrug-resistant H58 clade of *Salmonella*Typhi identifies inter-and intracontinental transmission events. Nature Genetics 2015; 47(6): 632. <u>https://doi.org/10.1038/ng.3281</u>
- [36] Mulvey M.R, Boyd DA, Olson AB, Doublet B, Cloeckaert, A.The genetics of Salmonella genomic island 1. Microbes and Infection 2006; 8(7): 1915-1922. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.micinf.2005.12.028</u>
- [37] WHO. Background paper to SAGE on Typhoid Policy Recommendations 2017. http://www.who.int/immunization/ sage/meetings.
- [38] Rahman BA, Wasfy MO, Maksoud MA, Hanna N, Dueger E, House, B.Multi-drug resistance and reduced susceptibility to ciprofloxacin among SalmonellaentericaserovarTyphi isolates from the Middle East and Central Asia. New Microbes and New Infections 2014; 2(4): 88-92. https://doi.org/10.1002/nmi2.46
- [39] Jain S and Chugh TD.Antimicrobial resistance among blood culture isolates of *Salmonella enterica*in New Delhi. J Infect

Dev Ctries 2013; 7: 788-795. https://doi.org/10.3855/jidc.3030

- [40] Arcangioli MA, Leroy-Setrin S, Martel JL, Chaslus-Dancla E.Evolution of chloramphenicol resistance, with emergence of cross resistance to florfenicol, in bovine Salmonella Typhimurium strains implicates definitive phage type (DT) 104. J Med Microbiol 2000; 49: 103-110. https://doi.org/10.1099/0022-1317-49-1-103
- [41] Glenn LM, Lindsey RL, Frank JF, Meinersmann RJ, Englen MD, Fedorka-Cray PJ, Frye JG. Analysis of antimicrobial resistancegenes detected in multidrug-resistant Salmonella entericaserovarTyphimuriumisolated from food animals. Microb Drug Resist 2011; 17: 407-418. <u>https://doi.org/10.1089/mdr.2010.0189</u>
- [42] Boyd D, Cloeckaert A, Chaslus-Dancla E, Mulvey MR.Characterization of variant Salmonella genomic island 1 multidrug resistance regions from serovarsTyphimurium DT104 and Agona. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2002; 46: 1714-1722. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.46.6.1714-1722.2002
- [43] Hopkins KL, Davies RH, Threlfall EJ.Mechanisms of quinolone resistance in *Escherichia coli* and *Salmonella*: recent developments. Int J Antimicrob Agents 2005; 25: 358-373. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijantimicaq.2005.02.006</u>
- [44] Turner AK, Nair S, Wain J.The acquisition of full fluoroquinolone resistance in Salmonella Typhi by accumulation of point mutations in the topoisomerase targets. J Antimicrob Chemother 2006; 58: 733-740. https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkl333
- [45] Verma JK, Pilkhwal D, Tamuly S, Kumar R, Kumar A, Saxena MK. Molecular Characterization of Ampicillin resistance poultry isolates of *Salmonella* Typhimurium. Journal of Cell and Tissue Research 2014; 4: 4019-4026.
- [46] Renuka K, Kapil A, Kabra SK, Wig N, Das BK, Prasad VV, Chaudhry R, Seth P. Reduced susceptibility to ciprofloxacin and gyra genemutation in North Indian strains of Salmonella enterica serotype Typhiand serotype Paratyphi A. Microb Drug Resist 2004; 10: 146-153. https://doi.org/10.1089/1076629041310028
- [47] Strahilevitz J, Jacoby GA, Hooper DC, Robicsek A. Plasmid mediated quinolone resistance: a multifaceted threat. Clin Microbiol Rev 2009; 22: 664-689. <u>https://doi.org/10.1128/CMR.00016-09</u>
- [48] Martinez-Martinez L, Pascual A, Jacoby GA.Quinolone resistance from a transferable plasmid. Lancet 1998; 351:

Received on 15-07-2019

Accepted on 06-08-2019

Published on 26-08-2019

https://doi.org/10.29169/1927-5129.2019.15.03

© 2019 Singh et al.; Licensee SET Publisher.

This is an open access article licensed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial License (<u>http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/3.0/</u>) which permits unrestricted, non-commercial use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the work is properly cited.

797-799.

https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(97)07322-4

- [49] Robicsek A, Jacoby GA, Hooper DC.The worldwide emergence of plasmid-mediated quinolone resistance. Lancet Infect Dis 2006; 6: 629-640. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099(06)70599-0
- [50] Sjollund-Karlsson M, Folster JP, Pecic G, Joyce K, Medalla F, Rickert R, Whichard JM.Emergence of plasmid-mediated quinolone resistanceamong non-TyphiSalmonella entericaisolates from humans inthe United States. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2009; 53: 2142-2144. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.01288-08
- [51] Marshall WF, Blair JE. The cephalosporins. Mayo Clin Proc 1999; 74: 187-195. <u>https://doi.org/10.4065/74.2.187</u>
- [52] Philippon A, Arlet G, Jacoby GA. Plasmid-determined AmpC type beta-lactamases. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2002; 46: 1-11. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.46.1.1-11.2002
- [53] Paterson DL, Bonomo RA.Extended-spectrum betalactamases: a clinical update. Clin Microbiol Rev 2005; 18: 657-686. https://doi.org/10.1128/CMR.18.4.657-686.2005
- [54] Tamuly S, Saxena MK, Ambwani T, Lakhchura B.D.Multiple drug resistance and plasmid profiling in *Salmonella* Galiema, S. Typhimurium, S. Virchow and S. Heidelberg. Indian Journal of Animal Sciences 2008; 78 : 156-158
- [55] Weisblum B. Erythromycin resistance by ribosome modification. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 1995; 39(3): 577-85. https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.39.3.577
- [56] Le Hello S, Harrois D, Bouchrif B, Sontag L, Elhani D, Guibert V, Zerouali K, Weill FX.Highly drug-resistant Salmonella entericaserotype Kentucky ST198-X1: a microbiological study. Lancet Infect Dis 2013; 13: 672-679. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099(13)70124-5</u>
- [57] Molloy A, Nair S, Cooke FJ, Wain J, Farrington M, Lehner PJ, Torok ME.First report of *Salmonella enterica*serotype Paratyphi A azithromycinresistance leading to treatment failure. J Clin Microbiol 2010; 48: 4655-4657. <u>https://doi.org/10.1128/JCM.00648-10</u>
- [58] Crump JA, Mintz ED.Global trends in typhoid and paratyphoid fever. Clinical Infectious Diseases 2010; 50: 241-246. https://doi.org/10.1086/649541