Department for Farm Animals and Veterinary Public Health

University of Veterinary Medicine Vienna

Clinic for Poultry and Fish Medicine

(Head of the department: Univ.-Prof. Dr. med. vet. Michael Hess Dipl. ECPVS)

Salmonella Infantis - Link between application of disinfectants and resistance to antimicrobial compounds

DIPLOMA THESIS

submitted for the fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

MAGISTRA MEDICINAE VETERINARIAE

(Mag. med. vet.)

by

Christina Bernbacher

Vienna, in October 2022

Supervisor:

Dr. med. vet. Claudia Hess, Dipl. ECPVS Clinic for Poultry and Fish Medicine University of Veterinary Medicine Vienna

Reviewer:

Priv.-Doz. Dr. med. vet. Joachim Spergser, Dipl. ECVM Institute of Microbiology University of Veterinary Medicine Vienna

Lucy

Acknowledgement

First of all, a special thank you goes to Dr. med. vet. Claudia Hess. She supported me in the best possible way during the laboratory activities of my diploma thesis as well as during further meetings and was always very helpful. In particular, I would also like to thank Mag. med. vet. Victoria Drauch, in whose PhD project my work was integrated and who very patiently trained me in the laboratory from the beginning and conscientiously guided me. Furthermore, I would like to thank Univ.-Prof. Dr. med. vet. Michael Hess for arranging the thesis and the opportunity to work in a very collegial team on an extremely exciting and highly relevant topic in the microbiology laboratory of the Clinic for Poultry and Fish Medicine at the Vetmeduni Vienna. Furthermore, special thanks go to my family and friends, whose support incredibly enriched my study time and pushed my perseverance and self-discipline even in more difficult phases. I am grateful to have started and successfully completed the diploma program in veterinary medicine at the University of Veterinary Medicine Vienna and subsequently to let my profession become my vocation.

Als Erstes gilt ein besonderes Dankeschön Fr. Dr. med. vet. Claudia Hess. Sie hat mich während der Labortätigkeiten meiner Diplomarbeit, als auch bei weiterführenden Besprechungen bestmöglich unterstützt und war jederzeit sehr schnell sehr hilfsbereit. Insbesondere möchte ich mich auch bei Fr. Mag. med. vet. Victoria Drauch bedanken, in deren PhD Projekt meine Arbeit integriert war und die mich im Labor von Anfang an sehr geduldig eingearbeitet und gewissenhaft angeleitet hat. Außerdem möchte ich mich bei Hr. Univ.-Prof. Dr. med. vet. Michael Hess für die Vermittlung der Diplomarbeit und die Möglichkeit zur Mitarbeit in einem sehr kollegialen Team an einer überaus spannenden und höchst relevanten Thematik im mikrobiologischen Labor der Universitätsklinik für Geflügel und Fische der Vetmeduni Wien bedanken. Des Weiteren gilt ein besonderer Dank meiner Familie und meinen Freunden, deren Unterstützung meine Studienzeit unglaublich bereichert, und mein Durchhaltevermögen sowie meine Selbstdisziplin auch in schwierigeren Phasen voran getrieben hat. Ich bin dankbar, an der Veterinärmedizinischen Universität Wien das Diplomstudium Veterinärmedizin angetreten und erfolgreich absolviert zu haben und in Folge meinen Beruf zu meiner Berufung werden zu lassen.

Abbreviations

spp.	-	subspecies						
EFSA	-	European Food Safety Agency						
WHO	-	World Health Organization						
EU	-	European Union						
MS	-	member states						
H2S	-	hydrogen sulfide						
WHOCC-Salm	-	WHO Collaborating Centre for Reference and Research						
		on Salmonella						
MDR	-	Multidrug – resistance						
AMR	-	Antimicrobial resistance						
ml	-	millilitre						
LBA	-	lysogeny broth agar						
PBS	-	phosphate-buffered saline						
CFU	-	colony forming units						
MIC	-	minimum inhibitory concentration						
CLSI	-	Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute						
EUCAST	-	European Committee of Antimicrobial Susceptibility						
		Testing						
pESI Infantis	-	plasmid of emerging Salmonella enterica serovar						
ESBL	-	extended-spectrum β-lactamase						

Table of content

1	Intro	troduction and aim of the study1						
2	Salı	mon	ella	3				
	2.1	His	torical Background	3				
	2.2	Тах	conomy, Classification and Grouping	3				
	2.3	Pat	hogenicity	5				
	2.4	Viru	Ilence	5				
	2.5	Cor	ntrol measures	7				
	2.5.	1	Disinfection	7				
	2.5.	2	Bacteriophages	8				
	2.5.	3	Vaccines	9				
	2.6	Pos	ssible influences of usage of disinfectants for Salmonella Infantis and					
	mecha	anisr	ns of resistance	10				
3	Mat	erial	and Methods	11				
	3.1	Bac	sterial strains	11				
	3.2	Dis	infectants	14				
	3.3	Арр	plication of disinfectants to Salmonella Infantis	16				
	3.4	Mic	rodilution	19				
	3.5	Aga	ar diffusion test	21				
	3.6	Sta	tistics	22				
4	Res	ults		22				
	4.1	Арр	plication of disinfectants and selection of antibiotic resistant bacteria	22				
	4.2	Mic	rodilution	25				
	4.2.	1	Negative Control	25				
	4.2.	2	Salmonella Infantis MRS16/01939	25				
	4	.2.2.	1 Field strain	25				

4.2.2.2 Exposure to Virkon [™] S	
4.2.2.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok	
4.2.2.4 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES	
4.2.3 Salmonella Infantis MRS17/00712	
4.2.3.1 Field strain	
4.2.3.2 Exposure to Virkon [™] S	30
4.2.3.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok	
4.2.3.4 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES	32
4.2.4 Variants of Salmonella Infantis MRS17/00712	32
4.2.4.1 Variant MRS17/00712 small colony	32
4.2.4.1.1 Exposure to Virkon [™] S	33
4.2.4.1.2 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok	33
4.2.4.1.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES	34
4.2.4.2 Variant MRS17/00712 medium colony	34
4.2.4.2.1 Exposure to Virkon [™] S	
4.2.4.2.2 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok	37
4.2.4.2.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES	
4.2.4.3 Variant MRS17/00712 large colony	
4.2.4.3.1 Exposure to Virkon [™] S	40
4.2.4.3.2 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok	41
4.2.4.3.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES	
4.2.5 Salmonella Infantis MRS17/02046	42
4.2.5.1 Field strain	42
4.2.5.2 Exposure to Virkon [™] S	44
4.2.5.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok	44
4.2.5.4 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES	45
4.2.6 Salmonella Infantis PA19/26029 yellow	45

4.2.6.1	Field strain	. 45
4.2.6.2	Exposure to Virkon [™] S	. 47
4.2.6.3	Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok	. 48
4.2.6.4	Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES	. 50
4.2.7 \$	Salmonella Infantis PA19/26029 black	. 51
4.2.7.1	Field strain	. 51
4.2.7.2	Exposure to Virkon TM S	. 53
4.2.7.3	Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok	. 54
4.2.7.4	Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES	. 55
4.3 Agar	diffusion test	. 56
4.3.1 8	Salmonella Infantis MRS16/01939	. 56
4.3.1.1	Field strain	. 56
4.3.1.2	Exposure to Virkon [™] S	. 56
4.3.1.3	Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok	. 57
4.3.1.4	Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES	. 57
4.3.2 8	Salmonella Infantis MRS17/00712	. 58
4.3.2.1	Field strain	. 58
4.3.2.2	Exposure to Virkon [™] S	. 58
4.3.2.3	Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok	. 60
4.3.2.4	Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES	. 60
4.3.3 \	/ariants of Salmonella Infantis MRS17/00712	. 61
4.3.3.1	MRS17/00712 small colony	. 61
4.3.3	1.1 Exposure to Virkon [™] S	. 61
4.3.3	1.2 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok	. 61
4.3.3	1.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES	. 61
4.3.3.2	MRS17/00712 medium colony	. 62
4.3.3	2.1 Exposure to Virkon [™] S	. 62

	4.3.3.2.2 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok	62
	4.3.3.2.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES	64
	4.3.3.3 MRS17/00712 large colony	65
	4.3.3.3.1 Exposure to Virkon [™] S	65
	4.3.3.3.2 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok	65
	4.3.3.3.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES	67
	4.3.4 Salmonella Infantis MRS17/02046	68
	4.3.4.1 Field strain	68
	4.3.4.2 Exposure to Virkon [™] S	68
	4.3.4.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok	68
	4.3.4.4 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES	68
	4.3.5 Salmonella Infantis PA19/26029 yellow	69
	4.3.5.1 Field strain	69
	4.3.5.2 Exposure to Virkon [™] S	69
	4.3.5.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok	69
	4.3.5.4 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12	69
	4.3.6 Salmonella Infantis PA19/26029 black	70
	4.3.6.1 Field strain	70
	4.3.6.2 Exposure to Virkon [™] S	70
	4.3.6.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok	70
	4.3.6.4 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12	70
5	Discussion	71
6	Summary	74
7	Zusammenfassung	75
8	References	77
9	List of Figures and Tables	89

1 Introduction and aim of the study

Salmonella is a widespread bacterial genus, which is able to cause diseases in both humans and animals. Salmonellosis is a septic and enteric disease of animals and humans after oral intake and colonization of the gut with the bacteria (Sarma 2008).

The pathogen is found in both domestic and in wild animals as carriers and source of infection. Therefore, animal-based food is the main transmission route to humans for *Salmonella*. The symptoms after an infection are acute fever, nausea, diarrhoea and stomach cramps. Salmonellosis is the third leading cause of death due to foodborne diseases worldwide (Ferrari et al. 2019).

Classification of salmonellosis in humans and animals can be divided in two groups such as enteric fever (typhoidal) and non-typhoidal salmonellosis (Barrow and Methner 2013). The division can be continued due to host-specificity (Lan et al. 2009, Stevens and Kingsley 2021, Tanner and Kingsley 2018). Strains which are highly adapted to humans and have no nonhuman hosts like *Salmonella* Typhi and *Salmonella* Paratyphi types A, B and C cause enteric (typhoidal) fever. Strains that are adapted to nonhuman hosts like *Salmonella* Dublin (cattle), *Salmonella* Arizonae (reptiles), or *Salmonella* Choleraesuis (swine) cause disease almost only in their animal host, but also have the ability to cause disease in humans. Those strains with a broad host range like *Salmonella* Enteritidis, *Salmonella* Typhimurium or *Salmonella* Infantis cause mostly no symptoms of disease in animals as they become latent carriers but are of great importance in transmission to humans (Evangelopoulou et al. 2013, Kingsley and Bäumler 2000, Lan et al. 2009).

The zoonotic impact becomes increasingly problematic along the global food chain. Farmers, veterinarians, workers in food production as well as consumers are at risk of an infection by working with farm animals or by contact with contaminated food products. The World Health Organization (WHO) deals amongst others with foodborne disease outbreaks and classifies *Salmonella* as one of the four key global causes for diarrhoeal diseases. The WHO emphasizes the significance of food hygiene practices to reduce the chance of transferring emerging resistant serotypes of *Salmonella* which affect the food chain and represent a public health issue (WHO - World Health Organization 2018).

In 2019 Salmonellosis was the second most reported zoonosis in humans after Campylobacteriosis according to the monitoring activities in 36 European countries. The

European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) reported 87,923 confirmed cases of Salmonellosis in humans in 2019 with an EU notification rate of 20.0 cases per 100,000 population, the same level as in 2018. Over the last five years the trend for Salmonellosis in humans has been stable after a long period of a declining trend. 926 Salmonellosis food-borne outbreaks were reported by 23 EU member states in 2019 in total. Thereof 9,169 illnesses, 1,915 hospitalisations and seven deaths. Salmonella caused 17.9% of all food-borne outbreaks during 2019 in the EU. The great majority of outbreaks were caused by Salmonella Enteritidis. The five most frequently reported serovars in the EU which cause human Salmonellosis are Salmonella Enteritidis, Salmonella Typhimurium, monophasic Salmonella Typhimurium, Salmonella Infantis and Salmonella Derby. Salmonella Infantis represents the 4th most commonly reported serovar in the years 2017 - 2019 after Salmonella Enteritidis, Salmonella Typhimurium and monophasic Salmonella Typhimurium. Actually, broilers and broiler meat are the main source for Salmonella in the EU with more than 70% beside bovine animals and cattle meat, pigs and pig meat, turkeys and turkey meat and laying hens of Gallus gallus and eggs. Thereof Salmonella Infantis was reported the most with 29.7% among 17,176 serotyped isolates within the top-five serovars that were responsible for human infections from foodanimal sources in 2019 in the EU. The most frequently reported serovar in broilers and their derived carcases is by far Salmonella Infantis. The geographical distribution of Salmonella Infantis within the EU member states shows at the top rank Italy, the Netherlands, Austria, Slovakia, Spain, Croatia and Romania. The recent epidemiological success of Salmonella Infantis is related to its ability to enter and persist along the poultry food chain presenting a growing risk for public health. Salmonella Infantis with its worldwide emergence and the enhanced survival fitness of some clones is increasingly of public interest for further investigations. Furthermore, it is assumed that the acquisition of a conjugative megaplasmid provides the bacteria with new resistance features, virulence - associated properties, high tolerance to disinfectants and resistance to heavy metals (The European Union One Health 2019 Zoonoses Report, 2021).

In Austria *Salmonella* Infantis was the most common nonhuman serovar in 2018 with 960 cases. The National Reference Center for *Salmonella* implements antibiotic resistance tests and valuations for all isolates corresponding to European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing (EUCAST) or Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) standards. In 2018 one strain of *Salmonella* Infantis was resistant to high

 – level Ciprofloxacin and another one was resistant to third generation cephalosporines (Bundesministerium f
ür Arbeit, Soziales, Gesundheit und Konsumentenschutz 2019).

Its elimination from affected broiler farms represents a difficult task as the susceptibility against disinfectants varies between field strains (Drauch et al. 2020).

It was previously reported that cross-resistance to disinfectants and antibiotics occur in different bacterial species (Braoudaki and Hilton 2004, Braoudaki and Hilton 2005, Cadena et al. 2019, Chuanchuen et al. 2008, Condell et al. 2012, Deng et al. 2018). So far, this was not shown for *Salmonella* Infantis.

Therefore, in the following study different Austrian *Salmonella* Infantis isolates were investigated with the aim to elucidate a possible link between the application of disinfectants and the development of antibiotic resistance.

2 Salmonella

2.1 Historical Background

Bacterial species which are nowadays known as *Salmonella* have been obviously existing for a long time already. A *typhoid bacillus* was first cultivated in the year 1884 from spleen sections and in mesenteric lymph nodes from a patient whose death was caused by typhoid in 1880 (Le Minor 1994).

These bacteria isolated from pigs by Salmon and Smith 1886 were named *Salmonella* Choleraesuis and considered to trigger hog cholera. A decade later, the characteristic serum agglutination was discovered by Widal (1896).

The appearance of more and more new typhoid bacteria serovars - now known as *Salmonella* spp. - followed subsequently each year (Wray and Wray 2000).

2.2 Taxonomy, Classification and Grouping

The genus *Salmonella* belongs to the family *Enterobacteriaceae*. *Salmonellae* are gramnegative, facultative anaerobic, catalase-positive, oxidase-negative, rod-shaped, non-

spore forming bacteria that are usually motile. *Salmonellae* have a size of 0.7 - 1.5 μ m x 2.0 – 5.0 μ m and produce colonies with a diameter of 2 – 4 mm (Liu 2010).

So far more than 2600 serotypes (also called serovars) are known. The WHO Collaborating Centre for Reference and Research on *Salmonella* (WHOCC-Salm) occupies a historical role in maintaining the comprehensive list of known *Salmonella* serovars. WHOCC-Salm (Institut Pasteur, France) is also responsible for the validation of new serovars, working together with laboratories in Hamburg (Institut für Hygiene und Umwelt, Germany) and in Atlanta (Centers for Disease Control, USA) (GRIMONT and Weill 2007).

Based on the Kauffmann-White-Le Minor-Scheme (Popoff et al. 1997, Popoff et al. 2000) these serotypes (serovars) are defined. This scheme represents a list of antigenetic formulae to split up all Salmonella serovars which are presently known. They are divided in O (somatic lipopolysaccharide), H (flagella) and Vi (capsule) antigens. Molecular investigations have demonstrated that the genus Salmonella basically consists of the two taxonomic species Salmonella enterica and Salmonella bongori (V) (Brenner et al. 2000). Salmonella enterica comprises six subspecies called Salmonella enterica subsp. enterica (I), Salmonella enterica subsp. salamae (II), Salmonella enterica subsp. arizonae (IIIa), Salmonella enterica subsp. diarizonae (IIIb), Salmonella enterica subsp. houtenae (IV) and Salmonella enterica subsp. indica (VI) (Crosa et al. 1973, Ewing et al. 1970, Ewing 1972). More than 99.5% of isolated Salmonella strains belong to Salmonella enterica subsp. enterica. Serovar names possibly denote syndromes, host-specificity or geographical origin of the first strain of the new serovar. To avoid wrong consideration as a species name, compound serovar names shortened in simple names are written italicized. Grouping was defined due to characteristic serological reaction patterns. Each group was described through a capital letter. Salmonella Paratyphi A, Salmonella Nitra, Salmonella Kiel and Salmonella Koessen belong to group A. Salmonella Paratyphi B, Salmonella Abortusovis, Salmonella Derby, Salmonella Abortusequi, Salmonella Typhimurium and others belong to group B. Salmonella Paratyphi C, Salmonella Choleraesuis, Salmonella Typhisuis, Salmonella Virchow and Salmonella Infantis belong beside others to group C. Group C is subdivided in C1, C2 and C3. Salmonella Typhi, Salmonella Enteritidis, Salmonella Dublin, Salmonella Pullorum and Salmonella Gallinarum and others belong to Group D, which is also subdivided in D1, D2 and D3. The grouping continues until letter "Z". As there were not enough letters for all serovars,

numbers were used instead and letters kept in brackets (Brenner et al. 2000, GRIMONT and Weill 2007, Lan et al. 2009, Le Minor and Popoff 1987).

2.3 Pathogenicity

Pathogenicity is defined as the ability of microorganisms to induce pathologic conditions and diseases in animals and humans (Pschyrembel 2013).

Host-specificity is an important feature for pathogenicity (Gerlach and Hensel 2007).

There are host-specific *Salmonella* serovars like *Salmonella* Gallinarum, *Salmonella* Pullorum and *Salmonella* Arizona, which are highly adapted to poultry and birds. *Salmonella* Pullorum and *Salmonella* Gallinarum cause severe clinical symptoms in poultry. The illness is called fowl typhoid or pullorum disease. In poultry flocks, sporadic appearance is common. There is a transovarian transmission route from subclinical infected parentals to chickens as well as horizontal transmission, airborne or vectors. Main clinical symptoms are high mortality rates in chickens and in brown layers, severe general disorder with difficulty in breathing, diarrhoea with chalk white feces and drop in laying performance. There is often a septic disease progress from peracute to chronic clinical symptoms (Siegmann and Neumann 2012).

Non-host-specific *Salmonella* serovars are able to induce severe disease in humans but no recognizable clinical symptoms in their animal host, e.g. *Salmonella* Enteritidis, *Salmonella* Typhimurium or *Salmonella* Infantis (Siegmann and Neumann 2012). The zoonotic potential of *Salmonella* Infantis is a reasonable cause for further microbial investigations as it represents a global health issue due to foodborne infections of poultry meat origin (Antunes et al. 2016, Nagy et al. 2020).

2.4 Virulence

The strength of pathogenicity is called virulence. Virulence or toxicity describe the degree of aggressiveness of microorganisms inside macroorganisms. It is a quantitative property in contrast to pathogenicity (Pschyrembel 2013).

There are so called virulence factors which are built from microorganisms themselves to increase or maintain their virulence or infectiousness. Examples would be adhesins for better tissue adherence, invasiveness for penetration in host cells, capsular antigens to inhibit phagocytosis or toxins (Pschyrembel 2013).

The existing of a heterogenous population of *Salmonella* Infantis including different clones and clusters is accompanied by crucial differences in antibiotic resistance profiles (Cohen et al. 2020, Gal-Mor et al. 2010).

This leads to the association of multidrug resistant (MDR) strains obviously going along with the possession of specific virulence genes and therefore the ability of higher persistence in farms and slaughterhouses (Aviv et al. 2014, Drauch et al. 2021).

It is commonly known that *Salmonella* spp. are able to carry virulence factors that are encoded on mobile elements. (Alba et al. 2020, Condell et al. 2012, Gal-Mor et al. 2010, Hensel 2004, Johansson et al. 2021, Moreno Switt et al. 2012, Suez et al. 2013)

Interestingly the presence of specific virulence factors can vary drastically between different serovars. Even across isolates within the same serovar there can appear huge differences in virulence (Hensel 2004, Suez et al. 2013).

The gain of functions by horizontal gene transfer represents a key feature in bacterial evolutionary pathways and genomic diversity (Cohen et al. 2020, Gal-Mor et al. 2010, Lawrence 2005).

To enable transmission of genetic information between bacteria there are vehicles like plasmids, pathogenicity islands, integrons, bacteriophages, transposons or integrative and conjugative elements (Aviv et al. 2014, Aviv et al. 2019, Gal-Mor et al. 2010, Lawrence 2005).

DNA elements which are acquired via horizontal gene transfer frequently affect the bacterial fitness, antimicrobial resistance (AMR) and hence the lifestyle and tenacity of the bacterial host itself (Lawrence 2005).

In emergent *Salmonella* Infantis strains it is proven that adaptive chromosomal mutations and a unique megaplasmid with the designation *pESI* (plasmid of Emerging *Salmonella enterica* Infantis) lead to an increasing resistance to multiple drugs, mercury and disinfectants (Alba et al. 2020).

Emerging pESI conjugated *Salmonella* Infantis strains show the ability to improved biofilm formation as well as adhesion and invasion into mammalian and avian host cells in vitro and higher pathogenicity by new virulence-associated phenotypes and increased intestinal inflammation in vivo (Aviv et al. 2014).

Recently it was also shown that infection dynamics of *Salmonella* Infantis strains with or without pESI-like plasmid vary considerably and therefore great differences in virulence was shown by obviously phylogenetically different backgrounds of the strains (Drauch et al. 2021).

2.5 Control measures

To avoid persisting infections of *Salmonella* Infantis, usage of control measures as well as permanent surveillance programmes are indispensable. Microbiologically faultless food is a matter auf concern for public health. Hence the risk of surviving bacteria with increasing fitness and virulence must be minimized along the food chain (Hotes et al. 2011).

2.5.1 Disinfection

Actually, proper disinfection is the most common applied measure to fight bacteria like *Salmonella* Infantis (Denyer 1995, McDonnell and Russell 1999).

Biocides have been used for hundreds of years by humans in hospitals and other health care settings to generally inactivate microorganisms (Block 1991, Hernández-Navarrete et al. 2014, McDonnell and Russell 1999).

At the beginning they were used to prevent nosocomial infections. Antiseptics and disinfectants usually have a broad spectrum of microorganisms against which they have an effect and seem to have multiple targets (Hernández-Navarrete et al. 2014, McDonnell and Russell 1999). In contrast to antibiotics which work very specifically against particular intracellular targets (Mohr 2016, Vázquez-Laslop and Mankin 2018).

Interestingly some bacterial species possess an intrinsic membrane barrier which can detain biocides by low-permeability (Nikaido 1994).

Antiseptics are used in or on living tissues to either kill or inhibit the growth of bacteria or other microorganisms. Disinfectants have the same purpose but are used on inanimate objects or surfaces (Block 1991, McDonnell and Russell 1999).

Biocides in general contain a great amount of active chemical agents (Block 1991, Denyer 1995, McDonnell and Russell 1999).

In biocides the mode and the mechanisms of action like interactions with the cell surface and penetration into the cell are less understood than the mechanisms and activity of antibiotics so far. 13 groups of chemical substances which show different chemical structures and differences in their effects as biocides are described. In particular there are alcohols, aldehydes, anilides, biguanides, bisphenols, diamidines, halogen-releasing agents, halophenols, heavy metal derivates, peroxygens, phenols and cresols, quaternary ammonium compounds and vapor-phase sterilants (Denyer 1995, McDonnell and Russell 1999).

In Austria it is stipulated in *§§8,9 Geflügelhygieneverordnung 2007* to take strict hygiene precautions and biosecurity measures in all poultry farms and production. It is forbidden to enter stables and breeding places without hygienically flawless clothes, shoes and head cover. There must be separate clothing for each production area. Reusable clothes must be cleaned and disinfected after each usage. Visitors are not allowed to enter stables without the farm manager's permission and only by sticking to hygiene instructions. In poultry production all in all out management is practiced. The stable must undergo thorough wet and dry cleaning and disinfection measures before setting a new flock. Additionally, several samplings for microbiological investigations must be performed by a veterinarian. A new flock can come in after seven days at the earliest and 14 days if presence of *Salmonella* was proven (RIS - Geflügelhygieneverordnung 2007 - Bundesrecht konsolidiert, Fassung vom 26.08.2022, 26/08/2022).

2.5.2 Bacteriophages

In the early 20th century an innovative treatment of bacterial infections was first discovered. It was the usage of so called bacteriophages (Hanlon 2007, Maura and Debarbieux 2011).

As more and more multidrug resistant bacteria arise and the development of new antibiotics is not sufficient, bacteriophages might be an evolving alternative against resistant bacteria (Hanlon 2007, Kutateladze and Adamia 2010).

Bacteriophages (also: phages) occur ten times more often naturally in the environment than bacteria (Kutter and Sulakvelidze 2005). They developed in co-evolution especially in aquatic conditions, and represent bacterial viruses (Hanlon 2007).

Bacteriophages are mainly summarized in three big families. These are siphoviridae, myoviridae and podoviridae comprising 15 genera and ten further families each with only a small amount of members left (Hanlon 2007, Kutter and Sulakvelidze 2005).

The lytic cycle of bacteriophages and effect on bacteria is based on encountering the bacterial host in the environment by random motion, attachment and penetration in the bacterial cell and synthesis of viral bacteriophage components by bacterial DNA replication (Maura and Debarbieux 2011).

After that the lysis of the bacterial cell and the release of the bacteriophage progeny is induced by virions which are built through early bacteriophage mRNA elements overtaking the metabolic processes in the bacterial host (Hanlon 2007).

2.5.3 Vaccines

In Austria there are vaccines available to provide a better management of *Salmonella* in poultry industry and less danger for public health and therefore minimizing the risk of spreading resistant bacteria (MacLennan et al. 2014).

The decrease of 81.6% since 2002 of Salmonella infections in humans in Austria is lead back to a strict management of surveillance programmes relating to the national "Bundesgesetz zur Überwachung von Zoonosen und Zoonoseerregern (Zoonosengesetz)" as well as restrictions in layers. Laying hen flocks comprising more than 350 birds must get vaccinated against *Salmonella* Enteritidis (Bundesministerium für Arbeit, Soziales, Gesundheit und Konsumentenschutz 2019, RIS - Zoonosengesetz - Bundesrecht konsolidiert, Fassung vom 27.08.2022, 27/08/2022).

According to the law §10 Geflügelhygieneverordnung 2007 farmers must ensure vaccination against Salmonella Enteritidis in rearing farms for breeding chickens and

pullets (RIS - Geflügelhygieneverordnung 2007 - Bundesrecht konsolidiert, Fassung vom 26.08.2022, 26/08/2022).

Concerning the efficacy of *Salmonella* vaccines in poultry flocks to prevent disease and intestinal colonization and therefore contamination of eggs and environment and the resulting burden for public health it is important to have a look at the vaccine used as well as the application scheme. There are live attenuated *Salmonella* vaccines beside inactivated *Salmonella* vaccines available (Desin et al. 2013, Fuche et al. 2016, Gantois et al. 2006, Groves et al. 2016, QGV Österreichische Qualitätsgeflügelvereinigung 20/09/2021, Woodward et al. 2002).

2.6 Possible influences of usage of disinfectants for *Salmonella* Infantis and mechanisms of resistance

The industrial use of disinfectants in food industry is an essential tool to avoid bacterial colonization on surfaces and decreasing the risk of cross contamination, but it also contributes to the selection of antibiotic resistant bacteria (Condell et al. 2012, Gantzhorn et al. 2014, Webber et al. 2015).

Additionally, it was found that food-associated bacteria like *Escherichia coli* or *Listeria monocytogenes* tend to yield isolates that are more tolerant towards biocides to which they were exposed to as well (Arvaniti et al. 2021, Du et al. 2015, Guérin et al. 2021, Kode et al. 2021, Merchel Piovesan Pereira et al. 2021, Roedel et al. 2021, Soumet et al. 2016, Xu et al. 2021).

This correlation is less significant in *Salmonella*, even if it is observed in a few isolates. (Soumet et al. 2016)

Environmental biocide challenge, plays an important role in the development of antimicrobial resistance in surviving bacteria (Karatzas et al. 2007, Karatzas et al. 2008, Randall et al. 2007, Whitehead et al. 2011).

A decline in the efficacy of biocides against bacteria is observed since the 1950s which is lead back to a decrease in the susceptibility to several active compounds (Davin-Regli and Pagès 2012, Gnanadhas et al. 2013, Lowbury 1951, Russell 2002).

Furthermore, biofilm formation is an effective way for bacteria to survive as the efficacy of biocide activity is reduced (Høiby et al. 2010, Soto 2013, Venkatesan et al. 2015). The structure of biofilm growth is of great importance by hindering the diffusion of specific biocidal active agents through the bacterial envelope and therefore alleviating the survival of bacteria and accelerating possible changes in gene expression to provide further resistance (Davin-Regli and Pagès 2012, Gnanadhas et al. 2013, Soto 2013)

Moreover, it is commonly known that the expression of efflux systems in bacteria enables the export of both antibiotics and biocides, disinfectants, antiseptics, and preservatives that are all frequently used in medical practice (Davin-Regli and Pagès 2012, Gnanadhas et al. 2013, Soto 2013, Webber et al. 2015).

Efflux pumps make their intracellular concentration decrease, which provokes adaption and selection of bacteria being more tolerant towards biocides and antimicrobial compounds. In summary the mechanisms of resistance to biocides and antibiotics are either intrinsic or acquired (Davin-Regli and Pagès 2012, Gnanadhas et al. 2013, Soto 2013).

Bacterial physiology and morphology is influenced drastically by exposure to biocides as the result are changes in gene expression, modification of growth rates or the emergence of small colonies (Seaman et al. 2007).

Interestingly the chemical biocide and preservative Triclosan, which occurs in cosmetics, tooth paste or consumer goods as well, contributes to the occurrence of bacteria with a decline in susceptibility to antimicrobials and biocides. In this regard, a correlation between resistance to Triclosan and the integration of the active efflux pump in *Salmonella* spp. was found (Hernández et al. 2011, Webber et al. 2008).

Furthermore, Triclosan can cause an alteration in membrane permeability as it is able to improve the characteristics of the bacterial biofilm by expressing genes encoding for the major efflux pump or other genes activating the genetic cascade for multidrug resistance (MDR) control (Tabak et al. 2007).

3 Material and Methods

3.1 Bacterial strains

In the present study four Austrian *Salmonella* Infantis isolates were investigated. Strains MRS17/00712 and PA19/26029 comprised four and two variants, respectively. The phenotypic growth features were determined based on their growing ability on modified semi-solid Rappaport-Vassiliadis agar (MSRV), Xylose-Lactose-Deoxycholate-Agar (XLD), and MacConkey Agar (NEOGEN Culture Media, Lansing, USA). Additionally, the presence of a pESI plasmid was determined (Table 1).

Table 1: Strains of Salmonella Infantis

Characteristics		<u>Strain</u>							
	MRS16/01939	MRS17/00712	<u>V</u> a	ariants of MRS17/0071	MRS17/02046	PA19/26029			
	MIXO 10/01999		small colony	medium colony	large colony	MIKO 17702040	<u>variant 1</u> (yellow)	<u>variant 2</u> (black)	
origin	Carinthia	Upper Austria	Upper Austria	Upper Austria	Upper Austria	Styria	Lower Austria	Lower Austria	
growth (MRSV)	typical	no swarming	no swarming	no swarming	typical	typical	typical	typical black	
growth (XLD)	typical	typical	small yellow	medium yellow	typical black	delayed black	colourless	typical black	
growth (MacConkey)	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	
pESI plasmid	no	no	no	no	yes	yes	no	no	

3.2 Disinfectants

Four commercial disinfectants were used in this study. Beside the disinfectants, Table 2 comprises the active compounds, the concentrations tested and the recommended exposure time. The recommended concentration as well as the tested concentrations were made by diluting the disinfectant (dilutant) in lysogeny broth (LB, dilution medium) (Oxoid, ThermoFisher, Vienna, Austria). The exposure times used in the present *in-vitro* testing were 30min, 3h and 5h.

 Table 2: Disinfectants used in this study

Disinfectant	Active compounds	Recommended concentration	Concentrations tested	Recommended exposure time
Calgonit DS 680	Aldehyde & quarternary ammonium	2,0%	0,125%; 0,25%; 0,5%; 1,0%; 2,0%	30 min
Calgonit sterizid P12 DES	Aldehyde & quarternary ammonium	0,5%	0,03125%; 0,0625%; 0,125%; 0,25%; 0,5%	15 min
Calgonit sterizid Ecokok	Cresol	0,5%	0,03125%; 0,0625%; 0,125%; 0,25%; 0,5%	30 min
Virkon [™] S	Peroxygen	1,0%	0,0625%; 0,125%; 0,25%; 0,5%; 1,0%	30 min

3.3 Application of disinfectants to Salmonella Infantis

All *Salmonella* Infantis isolates were stored in cryopreservation fluid (2 ml of 40% glycerol/10 ml brain heart infusion broth (Oxoid, ThermoFisher Scientific, Vienna, Austria)) at -80°C before investigations started. The isolates were thawed and bacterial suspensions were made.

For this, 10ml of LB were inoculated with 100µl of the thawed bacterial isolate and put in the shaking incubator at 200 rpm overnight at 37°C under aerobic conditions (Figure 1).

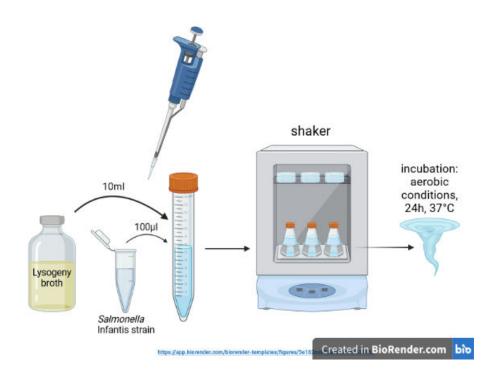


Figure 1: preparation of bacterial suspension

Afterwards, the colony forming units (CFU) count was prepared in serial dilutions in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, GIBCO, Paisley, UK) up to a dilution of 10¹² CFU/ml in duplicate. 100 µl of the dilutions were inoculated on MacConkey agar plates by using one-way drigalski spatula (VWR, Vienna, Austria). The plates were incubated for 24h at 37°C (Figure 2). The CFU counts were calculated by determination of the mean value of each dilution in duplicate.

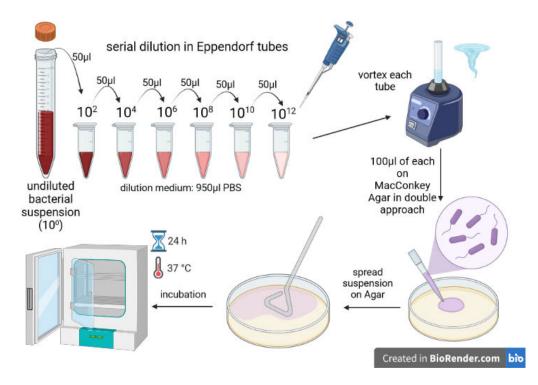


Figure 2: Preparation of CFU count

Dilutions of disinfectants were prepared for macrodilution assay. For this, 9 ml of disinfectant and 1ml of the bacterial suspension were brought together in a 15 ml tube (Sarstedt, Vienna, Austria) and incubated at 37°C under aerobic conditions. After 30min, after 3h and after 5h the tubes were taken out of the incubator and 100µl of each tube were plated on lysogeny broth agar (Oxoid, Thermo Fisher, Vienna, Austria) in duplicate. These plates were incubated for 24h at 37°C (Figure 3).

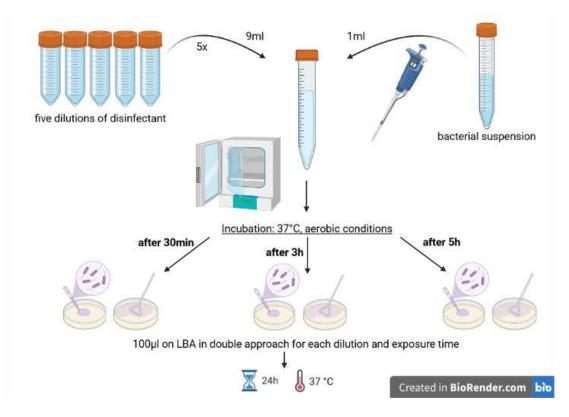


Figure 3: Macrodilution/Application of disinfectants

To analyse the possible impact of stepwise low-level exposure of disinfectants on *Salmonella* Infantis five colonies were picked using a sterile one-way loop (VWR, Vienna, Austria) from each plate in the respective sublethal concentration (MIC) of disinfectant and struck out on MacConkey Agar plates for subcultures. These plates were incubated aerobically overnight at 37°C. Afterwards these pure clones were stored at -80°C in brain-heart infusion broth until their antimicrobial susceptibility testing.

3.4 Microdilution

For antibiotic resistance testing individually designed MICRONAUT-S Veterinary plates (MERLIN Diagnostika GmbH, Bornheim-Hersel, Germany) were used. Evaluation of susceptibility was based on the following CLSI protocols: CLSI supplement VET06, CLSI supplement M100, CLSI standard VET01. Furthermore, CASFM recommendations were also included.

In Table 3 the antimicrobial classes and antimicrobial substances with their concentrations used in MICRONAUT-S microtiter plate wells are shown.

A schematic overview of the test setting is shown in Figure 4.

Table 3: MICRONAUT-S plate assignment

	antimicrobial class	antimicrobial substance					concent	trations (µg	<u>(/mL)</u>			
	Penicilline and	Amoxicillin	4	8	16	32						
1	penicilline	Amoxicillin/Clavulanate	4/2	8/4	16/8	32/16						
T	combination	Ampicillin	0.25	0.5	1	2	4	8	16			
	combination	Oxacillin	0.25									
		Cefazolin (first generation)	2	4								
2	Cephalosporine	Cefoxitin (second generation)	4									
2	Cephalospornie	Cefotaxime (third generation)	0.25	0.5	1	2	4	8	16	32		
		Ceftazidime (third generation)	0.25	0.5	1	2	4	8	16	32		
3	Chloramphenicol	Chloramphenicol	4	8	16	32						
4	Polypeptide	Colistin	0.03125	0.0625	0.125	0.25	0.5	1	2	4	8	16
5	Quinolone	Enrofloxacin	0.125	0.25	0.5	1	2					
3	Quilloione	Nalidixic acid	4	8	16	32	64					
		Gentamycin	1	2	4	8	16					
6	Aminoglycoside	Neomycin	4	8	16	32						
		Streptomycin	8	16	32	64						
7	Carbapenem	Imipenem	1	2	4							
8	Tetracycline	Tetracycline	0.25	0.5	1	2	4	8	16			
	Diaminopyrimidine,	Trimethoprim	8	16								
9	sulfamethoxazole, and	Sulfamethoxazol	256	512								
	combinations	Trimethoprim/Sulfamethoxazole	0.5/9.5	1/19	2/38	4/76						
10	Macrolide	Tylosin	1	2	4	8	16					

3.5 Agar diffusion test

Agar diffusion testing was performed according to the Kirby-Bauer disk diffusion method (Bauer et al. 1966).

The results were expressed as susceptible, intermediate or resistant according to CLSI guidelines. Table 4 lists the tested antibiotics, their concentration and their CLSI reference levels.

A schematic overview of the test setting is shown in Figure 4.

antibiotics	concentration (µg)	CLSI reference level					
antibiotics	<u>concentration (µg)</u>	<u>sensitive</u>	intermediate	<u>resistant</u>			
AMPICILLIN	10	≥ 17	14 - 16	≤ 13			
CHLORAMPHENICOL	30	≥ 18	13 - 17	≤ 12			
ENROFLOXACIN	5	≥ 23	17 - 22	≤ 16			
TETRACYCLIN	30	≥ 15	12 - 14	≤ 11			

Table 4: concentrations and reference level for antibiotics used in this study

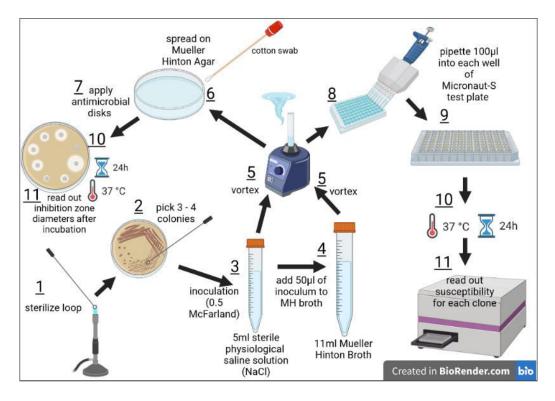


Figure 4: Schematic overview of the antibiotic susceptibility test setting

3.6 Statistics

All calculations were done in Excel (Excel[®], Microsoft Corporation, United States of America). The raw data was delivered by the MICRONAUT Software and manually transferred to Excel. All graphs were plotted with Excel, using bar charts, grouped bar charts and XY-Scatter plots. Figures concerning Material and methods were created in BioRender.com (BioRender, 14/07/2022).

4 Results

4.1 Application of disinfectants and selection of antibiotic resistant bacteria

Minimum inhibitory concentrations (MIC) were determined for each strain and each disinfectant by exposure to sublethal concentrations. The collection of surviving bacteria under sub-inhibitory concentrations identified mutants. Table 5 presents an overview of

the application of disinfectants to bacterial strains, showing the number of clones that could be picked for each strain, the exposure time, MIC and disinfectant.

<u>Nr.</u>	<u>Salmonella</u> Infantis strain	disinfectant	minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC)	exposure time	clones picked
		calgonit DS 680		no growth	
		calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,125%	30min	5
		calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,125%	3h	5
		calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,125%	5h	5
1	MRS16/01939	calgonit sterizid P12 DES		30min	5
		Virkon [™] S	0,25%	30min	5
		Virkon [™] S	0,25%	3h	5
		Virkon [™] S	0,25%	5h	5
		calgonit DS 680		no growth	
		calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,125%	30min	5
		calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,125%	3h	5
		calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,125%	5h	5
2	MRS17/00712				5
		calgonit sterizid P12 DES		no growth	
		Virkon [™] S	0,25%	30min	5
		Virkon [™] S	0,25%	3h	5
		Virkon [™] S	0,25%	5h	5
		calgonit DS 680	0,2070		
			0.405%	no growth	_
		calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,125%	30min	2
		calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,0625%	30min	5
		calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,0625%	3h	5
3	MRS17/00712 small colony	calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,0625%	5h	5
-	variant	calgonit sterizid P12 DES		no growth	-
		-		-	=
		Virkon [™] S	0,25%	30min	5
		Virkon [™] S	0,25%	3h	5
		Virkon [™] S	0,25%	5h	5
		calgonit DS 680	-,>	no growth	-
		calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,125%	-	5
		0		30min	
		calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,125%	3h	5
		calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,125%	5h	5
4	MRS17/00712 medium colony variant	calgonit sterizid P12 DES	0,03125%	30min	5
		calgonit sterizid P12 DES		3h	5
		Virkon [™] S	0,25%	30min	5
		Virkon [™] S	0,25%	3h	5
		Virkon [™] S	0,25%	5h	5
		calgonit DS 680		no growth	
		calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,125%	30min	5
		calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,125%	3h	5
	MRS17/00712 large colony	calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,125%	5h	5
5	variant	calgonit sterizid P12 DES		30min	5
	variarit	calgonit sterizid P12 DES	0,03125%	3h	5
		Virkon [™] S	0,25%	30min	5
		Virkon [™] S	0,25%	3h	5
		Virkon [™] S	0,25%	5h	5
		calgonit DS 680		no growth	
		calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,0625%	30min	5
		calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,0625%	3h	5
		calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,0625%	5h	5
6	MRS17/02046	calgonit sterizid P12 DES		no growth	.
					_
		Virkon [™] S	0,25%	30min	5
		Virkon [™] S	0,25%	3h	5
		Virkon [™] S	0,25%	5h	5
		calgonit DS 680	-,,	no growth	-
			0.4050/		-
		calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,125%	30min	5
		calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,0625%	3h	5
		calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,0625%	5h	2
_		calgonit sterizid P12 DES	0,0625%	30min	5
7	MRS19/26029 yellow	calgonit sterizid P12 DES		3h	5
		calgonit sterizid P12 DES		5h	3
		-			
		Virkon [™] S	0,5%	30min	5
		Virkon [™] S	0,25%	3h	5
		Virkon [™] S	0,25%	5h	5
		calgonit DS 680	-,,5	no growth	
		•	0.4050/		-
		calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,125%	30min	5
		calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,125%	3h	5
		calgonit sterizid Ecokok	0,0625%	5h	5
8	MRS19/26029 black	calgonit sterizid P12 DES		30min	5
-	MILE IS/20023 DIACK	calgonit sterizid P12 DES		3h	1
		-			
		Virkon [™] S	0,5%	30min	5
		Virkon [™] S	0,25%	3h	5

Table 5: Application of disinfectants

4.2 Microdilution

Hereafter, antimicrobial susceptibilities of field isolates as well as their clones received after exposure to the disinfectants are sorted by a) disinfectants, b) MICs and c) exposure times. For a better overview isolates are listed one after the other.

Furthermore, the amount of resistances per clone and resistances sorted by antimicrobial classes are demonstrated in comparison.

4.2.1 Negative Control

According to the lack of growth after exposure to the disinfectant Calgonit DS 680 in all isolates, all exposure times and all concentrations tested, Calgonit DS 680 is assumed to be highly effective in bacterial eliminiation and therefore announced as negative control in this study.

4.2.2 Salmonella Infantis MRS16/01939

4.2.2.1 Field strain

The field strain MRS16/01939 proved resistant against seven antimicrobial substances, these are cefoxitin, nalidixic acid, oxacillin, sulfamethoxazole, streptomycin, tetracycline and tylosin. This covers seven antimicrobial classes as well, namely penicilline, cephalosporine, quinolone, aminoglycoside, tetracycline, sulfamethoxazole and macrolide (Figure 5, Table 6).

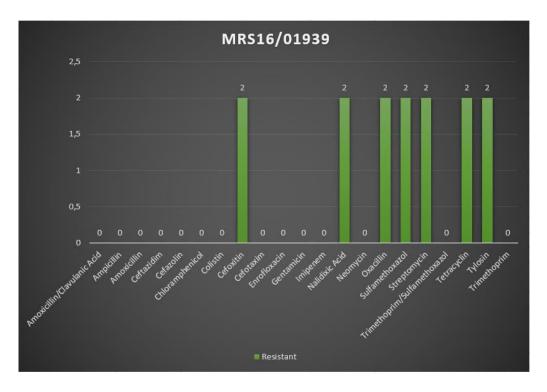


Figure 5: Resistance profile of MRS16/01939

antimicrobial class	antimicrobial substance	
	Amoxicillin/clavulanic acid	
Penicilline and penicilline	Ampicillin	
combination	Amoxicillin	
	Oxacillin	R
	Cefazolin	
Cephalosporine	Cefoxitin	R
Cephalosponne	Cefotaxim	
	Ceftazidim	
Chloramphenicol	Chloramphenicol	
Polypeptide	Colistin	
Quinolone	Nalidixic acid	R
Quinoione	Enrofloxacin	
	Gentamicin	
Aminoglycoside	Streptomycin	R
	Neomycin	
Carbapenem	Imipenem	
Tetracycline	Tetracyclin	R
Diaminopyrimidine,	Trimethoprim	
sulfamethoxazole, and	Trimethoprim/Sulfamethoxazole	
combinations	Sulfamethoxazole	R
Macrolide	Tylosin	R

Table 6: Antimicrobial classes of MRS16/01939

4.2.2.2 Exposure to Virkon[™] S

30 min after exposure to Virkon[™] S 5 clones were picked at a MIC of 0.25%. Increasing resistance was detected in clone I and clone V. Clones II, III and IV showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain MRS16/001939. Clone I tested intermediate for cefazolin and enrofloxacin, and Clone V intermediate for enrofloxacin.

3h after exposure to Virkon[™] S five clones were picked at a MIC of 0,25%. Increasing resistance could be detected in clones I, III, IV and V. Clones I, IV and V became intermediate to enrofloxacin. Additionally, clones III and IV turned intermediate to cefazolin. There were no deviations from the parental strain MRS16/01939 in clone II.

5h after exposure to Virkon[™] S five clones were picked at a MIC of 0,25%. Increasing resistance could be detected in clones I, III and IV. Clone I became intermediate to enrofloxacin. Clones III and IV turned intermediate to cefazolin. There were no deviations from the parental strain MRS16/01939 in clone V.

In total there were eleven increasing resistances detected, which were divided into two antimicrobial classes (Table 7).

Strain	Disinfectant	%	Time	Clone	Number of increasing resistances	Number of antimicrobial classes
MRS16/01939	Virkon [™] S	0,25	30min	1	2	(2) cephalosporine and quinolone
MRS16/01939	Virkon [™] S	0,25	30min	Ш	0	0
MRS16/01939	Virkon [™] S	0,25	30min	Ш	0	0
MRS16/01939	Virkon [™] S	0,25	30min	IV	0	0
MRS16/01939	Virkon [™] S	0,25	30min	V	1	(1) quinolone
MRS16/01939	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	I.	1	(1) quinolone
MRS16/01939	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	Ш	0	0
MRS16/01939	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	Ш	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS16/01939	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	IV	2	(2) cephalosporine and quinolone
MRS16/01939	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	V	1	(1) quinolone
MRS16/01939	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	I.	1	(1) quinolone
MRS16/01939	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	Ш	0	0
MRS16/01939	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	Ш	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS16/01939	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	IV	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS16/01939	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	V	0	0
					<u>11</u>	2 (cephalosporine and guinolone)

Table 7: Number of single increased resistances and number of antimicrobial classes detected for MRS16/01939 after exposure to Virkon[™] S

4.2.2.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok

30 min, 3h and 5h after exposure to calgorit sterizid Ecokok 5 clones were picked at a MIC of 0,125%. All clones at all times - except clone III at 30min - turned to sensitive to cefoxitin.

In total there was no increasing resistance detected.

4.2.2.4 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES

30 min after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 five clones were picked at a MIC of 0,03125%. Increasing resistances could be detected in clones III and IV. Clones III and IV became intermediate to enrofloxacin. Clones III, IV and V proved sensitive to cefoxitin. There were no deviations from the parental strain MRS16/01939 in clone I and II.

No bacterial growth was present 3h and 5h after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES.

In total there were two increasing resistances detected, which belong to one antimicrobial class (Table 8).

Table 8: Number of single increased resistances and number of antimicrobial classes detected for MRS16/01939 after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES

<u>Strain</u>	Disinfectant	<u>%</u>	<u>Time</u>	<u>Clone</u>	Number of increasing resistances	Number of antimicrobial classes
MRS16/01939	calgonit sterizid P12 DES	0,03125	30min	I.	0	0
MRS16/01939	calgonit sterizid P12 DES	0,03125	30min	П	0	0
MRS16/01939	calgonit sterizid P12 DES	0,03125	30min	Ш	1	(1) quinolone
MRS16/01939	calgonit sterizid P12 DES	0,03125	30min	IV	1	(1) quinolone
MRS16/01939	calgonit sterizid P12 DES	0,03125	30min	V	0	0
					2	1 (quinolone)

4.2.3 Salmonella Infantis MRS17/00712

4.2.3.1 Field strain

The field strain MRS17/00712 is naturally resistant to oxacillin and tylosin, and intermediate to streptomycin. This represents three antimicrobial classes, namely penicilline, aminoglycoside and macrolide (Figure 6, Table 9).

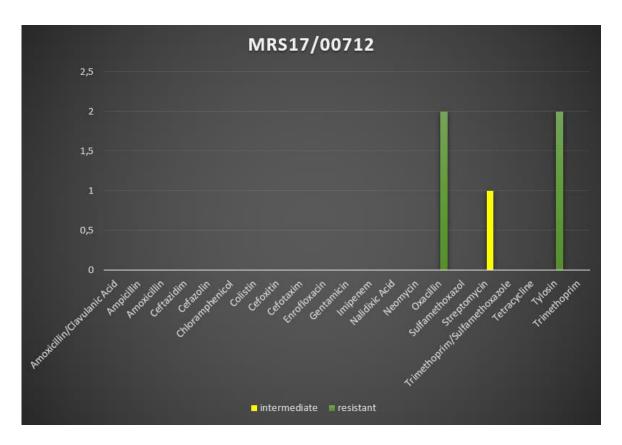


Figure 6: Resistance profile of MRS17/00712

antimicrobial class	antimicrobial substance	
	Amoxicillin	
Penicilline and penicilline	Amoxicillin/Clavulanic Acid	
combination	Ampicillin	
	Oxacillin	R
	Cefazolin (first generation)	
Canhalaanarina	Cefoxitin (second generation)	
Cephalosporine	Cefotaxim (third generation)	
	Ceftazidime (third generation)	
Chloramphenicol	Chloramphenicol	
Polypeptide	Colistin	
Quinolone	Enrofloxacin	
Quinoione	Nalidixic acid	
	Gentamycin	
Aminoglycoside	Neomycin	
	Streptomycin	1
Carbapenem	Imipenem	
Tetracycline	Tetracycline	
Diaminopyrimidine,	Tetracycline, Trimethoprim,	
sulfamethoxazole, and	Sulfamethoxazol,	
combinations	Trimethoprim/Sulfamethoxazol	
Macrolide	Tylosin	R

Table 9: Antimicrobial classes of MRS17/00712

4.2.3.2 Exposure to Virkon[™] S

30 min after exposure to Virkon[™] S five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.25%. Increasing resistance was detected in clones I, II, IV and V. Clone III presented the same resistance profile as the parental strain MRS17/00712. Clones I, II, IV and V proved resistant to nalidixic acid, streptomycin, sulfamethoxazole and tetracycline. Additionally, clone II turned resistant to cefoxitin.

3h after exposure to Virkon[™] S five clones were picked at a MIC of 0,25%. Increasing resistance was detected in clones I and II. Clones III, IV and V showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain MRS17/00712. Clones I and II acquired resistance to nalidixic acid, streptomycin, sulfamethoxazole, tetracycline and cefoxitin.

5h after exposure to Virkon[™] S five clones were picked at a MIC of 0,25%. Increasing resistance was detected in clones I and V. They acquired resistance to nalidixic acid, streptomycin, sulfamethoxazole and tetracycline. Additionally clone I became resistant to cefoxitin. No deviations from the parental strain MRS17/00712 were found for clones II, III, and IV, but they proved sensitive to Streptomycin.

In total there were thirty-six increasing resistances detected, which were divided into five antimicrobial classes (Table 10).

Table 10: Number of single increased resistances and number of antimicrobial classes	
detected for MRS17/00712 after exposure to Virkon [™] S	

Strain	Disinfectant	%	Time	Clone	Number of increasing resistances	Number of antimicrobial classes
MRS17/00712	Virkon [™] S	0,25	30min	I	4	(4) quinolone; aminoglycoside; tetracycline; diaminopyrimide, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
MRS17/00712	Virkon [™] S	<mark>0,2</mark> 5	30min	I	5	(5) cephalosporine; quinolone; aminoglycoside; tetracycline; diaminopyrimide, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
MRS17/00712	Virkon [™] S	0,25	30min	III	0	0
MRS17/00712	Virkon [™] S	0,25	30min	IV	4	 (4) quinolone; aminoglycoside; tetracycline; diaminopyrimide, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
MRS17/00712	Virkon [™] S	0,25	30min	V	4	(4) quinolone; aminoglycoside; tetracycline; diaminopyrimide, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
MRS17/00712	Virkon [™] S	<mark>0,2</mark> 5	3h	Ι	5	(5) cephalosporine; quinolone; aminoglycoside; tetracycline; diaminopyrimide, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
MRS17/00712	Virkon [™] S	<mark>0,2</mark> 5	3h	II	5	(5) cephalosporine; quinolone; aminoglycoside; tetracycline; diaminopyrimide, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
MRS17/00712	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	Ш	0	0
MRS17/00712	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	IV	0	0
MRS17/00712	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	V	0	0
MRS17/00712	Virkon [™] S	<mark>0,2</mark> 5	5h	I	5	(5) cephalosporine; quinolone; aminoglycoside; tetracycline; diaminopyrimide, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
MRS17/00712	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	I	0	0
MRS17/00712	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	Ш	0	0
MRS17/00712	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	IV	0	0
MRS17/00712	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	V	4	 (4) quinolone; aminoglycoside; tetracycline; diaminopyrimide, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
					<u>36</u>	5 (cephalosporine; quinolone; aminoglycoside; tetracycline; diaminopyrimide, sulfamethoxazole and combinations)

4.2.3.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok

30 min after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.125%. Clones IV and V showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain MRS17/00712. Surprisingly clones I, II and III turned sensitive to streptomycin.

3h after exposure to calgorit sterizid Ecokok five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.125%. Increasing resistance was only detected in clone III. It acquired resistance to

sulfamethoxazole. Clone II showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain MRS17/00712. Clones I, III, IV and V became sensitive to Streptomycin.

5h after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.125%. There were no increasing resistances detected compared with parental strain MRS17/00712 in all clones, except clones I, II and IV turned sensitive to streptomycin.

In total there was one increasing resistance detected.

4.2.3.4 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES

No bacterial growth was present 30 minutes, 3h and 5h after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES.

4.2.4 Variants of Salmonella Infantis MRS17/00712



Figure 7: different variants of *Salmonella* Infantis strain MRS17/00712 on MacConkey Agar

4.2.4.1 Variant MRS17/00712 small colony

Cultures of the small colony were naturally resistant to oxacillin and tylosin, and intermediate to streptomycin. This represents three antimicrobial classes, namely

penicilline, aminoglycoside and macrolide. There are no deviations from the field strain MRS17/00712.

4.2.4.1.1 Exposure to Virkon[™] S

30 min after exposure to Virkon[™] S five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.25%. Increasing resistances were detected in clones III and IV. Clones I, II and V showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain MRS17/00712 small colony. Clone III became resistant to sulfamethoxazole and clone IV acquired resistance to streptomycin.

3h after exposure to Virkon[™] S five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.25%. All clones showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain MRS17/00712 small colony.

5h after exposure to Virkon[™] S five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.25%. Clones I and III turned sensitive to streptomycin. All other clones showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain MRS17/00712 small colony.

In total there were two increasing resistances detected.

4.2.4.1.2 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok

30 min after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.0625%. Clone II and III turned sensitive to streptomycin. All other clones showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain MRS17/00712 small colony.

30 min after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok two clones were picked at a MIC of 0.125%. One increasing resistance was detected in clone I, that turned resistant against streptomycin. Clone II presented the same resistance profile as the parental strain MRS17/00712 small colony.

3h after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.0625%. There was no increasing resistance present. All clones show the same resistance profile as the parental strain MRS17/00712 small colony, except clones II, IV and V which turned sensitive to streptomycin.

5h after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.0625%. There was no increasing resistance present. All clones show the same resistance profile as the parental strain MRS17/00712 small colony, except clones III and V which turned sensitive to streptomycin.

In total there was one increasing resistance detected.

4.2.4.1.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES

No bacterial growth was present 30 minutes, 3h and 5h after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES.

4.2.4.2 Variant MRS17/00712 medium colony

The medium colony was naturally resistant against six antimicrobial substances. These are nalidixic acid, oxacillin, sulfamethoxazole, streptomycin, tetracycline and tylosin. This represents six antimicrobial classes, namely penicilline, quinolone, aminoglycoside, tetracycline, diaminopyrimidine/sulfamethoxazole/combinations and macrolide. Compared to the field strain MRS17/00712 four deviations were present. The MRS17/00712 strain comprising medium colony harbourd four further resistances. These are namely against nalidixic acid, sulfamethoxazole, streptomycin and tetracycline (Figure 8, Table 11).

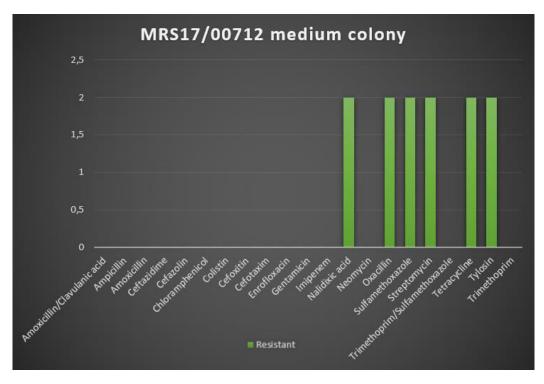


Figure 8: Resistance profile of MRS17/00712 medium colony

antimicrobial class	antimicrobial substance	
	Amoxicillin	
Penicilline and penicilline	Amoxicillin/Clavulanic acid	
combination	Ampicillin	
	Oxacillin	R
	Cefazolin (first generation)	
Cephalosporine	Cefoxitin (second generation)	
cephalosponne	Cefotaxim (third generation)	
	Ceftazidime (third generation)	
Chloramphenicol	Chloramphenicol	
Polypeptide	Colistin	
Quinolone	Enrofloxacin	
Quinoione	Nalidixic acid	R
	Gentamycin	
Aminoglycoside	Neomycin	
	Streptomycin	R
Carbapenem	Imipenem	
Tetracycline	Tetracycline	R
Diaminopyrimidine,	Trimethoprim	
sulfamethoxazole, and	Sulfamethoxazole	R
combinations	Trimethoprim/Sulfamethoxazole	
Macrolide	Tylosin	R

Table 11: Antimicrobial classes of MRS17/00712 medium colony
--

4.2.4.2.1 Exposure to Virkon[™] S

30 min after exposure to Virkon[™] S five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.25%. Increasing resistance was detected in all clones. Each clone acquired resistance to cefoxitin. Furthermore, clones I, II, III and IV were tested intermediate to cefazolin. Additionally, clone I became intermediate to enrofloxacin.

3h after exposure to Virkon[™] S five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.25%. Again, increasing resistance was detected in all clones. Similar results as for MIC 0.25% after 30min were found. All five clones acquired resistance to cefoxitin. Clones III and V turned intermediate to cefazolin. Clones IV and V became intermediate to enrofloxacin.

5h after exposure to Virkon[™] S five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.25%. Increasing resistance was detected in clones I, II, III and V. Clone IV showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain MRS17/00712 medium colony. Clones I, II and V acquired resistance to cefoxitin. Clones II, III and V turned intermediate to cefazolin. Clone III and V additionally became intermediate to enrofloxacin.

In total there were twenty-seven increasing resistances detected, which were divided into two antimicrobial classes (Table 12).

<u>Strain</u>	Disinfectant	<u>%</u>	Time	Clone	Number of increasing resistances	Number of antimicrobial classes
					resistances	(2) cephalosporine and
MRS17/00712 medium colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	30min	1	3	quinolone
MRS17/00712 medium colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	30min	П	2	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	30min	Ш	2	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	30min	IV	2	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	30min	V	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	I.	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	П	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	Ш	2	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	IV	2	(2) cephalosporine and quinolone
MRS17/00712 medium colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	V	3	(2) cephalosporine and quinolone
MRS17/00712 medium colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	I	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	I	2	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	Ш	2	(2) cephalosporine and quinolone
MRS17/00712 medium colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	IV	0	0
MRS17/00712 medium colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	V	3	(2) cephalosporine and quinolone
					<u>27</u>	2 (cephalosporine and quinolone)

Table 12: Number of single increased resistances and number of antimicrobial classes detected for variant MRS17/00712 medium colony after exposure to Virkon[™] S

4.2.4.2.2 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok

30 minutes after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.125%. Increasing resistances were detected in all clones. Each clone acquired resistance to cefoxitin.

3h after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.125%. Increasing resistance was detected in all clones, except clone V which surprisingly turned sensitive to streptomycin. Clones I, II, III and IV acquired resistance to cefoxitin.

5h after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.125%. Increasing resistance was detected in clones III, IV and V. Clones I and II showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain MRS17/00712 medium colony. Clones III, IV and V became resistant to cefoxitin.

In total there were twelve increasing resistances detected, which belong to one antimicrobial class (Table 13).

Table 13: Number of single increased resistances and number of antimicrobial classes detected for variant MRS17/00712 medium colony after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok

<u>Strain</u>	Disinfectant	<u>%</u>	<u>Time</u>	<u>Clone</u>	number of increasing resistances	<u>number of</u> antimicrobial classes
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	30min	I	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	30min	II	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	30min	Ш	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	30min	IV	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	30min	V	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	3h	I	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	3h	П	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	3h	Ш	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	3h	IV	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	3h	V	0	0
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	5h	I.	0	0
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	5h	Ш	0	0
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	5h	III	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	5h	IV	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	5h	V	1	(1) cephalosporine
					<u>12</u>	<u>1 (cephalosporine)</u>

4.2.4.2.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES

30 min after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.03125%. Increasing resistance was detected in all clones, except clone II. Clones I, III and V acquired resistance to cefoxitin. Clone I turned additionally intermediate to neomycin. Surprisingly clone IV became resistant to colistin. Clone II showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain MRS17/00712 medium colony.

3h after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.03125%. Increasing resistance was detected in all clones. Clones I, IV and V acquired resistance to cefoxitin. Clones I, II and V became intermediate to enrofloxacin. Clone III turned intermediate to cefazolin.

5h after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES there was no bacterial growth.

In total there were twelve increasing resistances detected, which belong to four different antimicrobial classes (Table 14).

Table 14: Number of single increased resistances and number of antimicrobial classes detected for variant MRS17/00712 medium colony after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES

Strain	Disinfectant	<u>%</u>	Time	Clone	number of increasing resistances	number of antimicrobial classes
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	30min	I.	2	(2) cephalosporine and aminoglycoside
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	30min	Ш	0	0
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	30min	III	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	30min	IV	1	(1) polypeptide
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	30min	V	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	3h	I	2	(2) cephalosporine and quinolone
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	3h	II.	1	(1) quinolone
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	Зh	Ш	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	3h	IV	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 medium colony	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	3h	V	2	(2) cephalosporine and quinolone
					<u>12</u>	4 (cephalosporine, quinolone, aminoglycoside and polypeptide)

4.2.4.3 Variant MRS17/00712 large colony

Cultures of the large colony were naturally resistant against seven antimicrobial substances. These are cefoxitin, nalidixic acid, oxacillin, sulfamethoxazole, streptomycin, tetracycline and tylosin. This represents six antimicrobial classes, namely

cephalosporine, quinolone, penicilline, diaminopyrimidine + sulfamethoxazole and combinations, aminoglycoside, tetracycline and macrolide. Compared to the field strain MRS17/00712 five deviations were present. The MRS17/00712 strain comprising large colony harbourd five further resistances. These are namely to cefoxitin, nalidixic acid, sulfamethoxazole, streptomycin and tetracycline (Figure 9, Table 15).

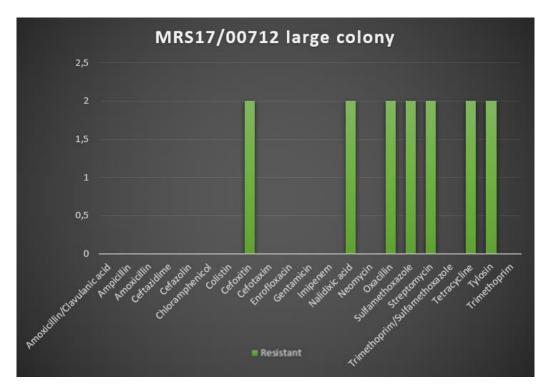


Figure 9: Resistance profile of MRS17/00712 large colony

antimicrobial class	antimicrobial substance	
	Amoxicillin	
Penicilline and penicilline	Amoxicillin/Clavulanic acid	
combination	Ampicillin	
	Oxacillin	R
	Cefazolin (first generation)	
Cephalosporine	Cefoxitin (second generation)	R
cephalosponne	Cefotaxim (third generation)	
	Ceftazidime (third generation)	
Chloramphenicol	Chloramphenicol	
Polypeptide	Colistin	
Quinolone	Enrofloxacin	
Quinoione	Nalidixic acid	R
	Gentamycin	
Aminoglycoside	Neomycin	
	Streptomycin	R
Carbapenem	Imipenem	
Tetracycline	Tetracycline	R
Diaminopyrimidine,	Trimethoprim	
sulfamethoxazole, and	Sulfamethoxazole	R
combinations	Trimethoprim/Sulfamethoxazole	
Macrolide	Tylosin	R

Table 15: Antimicrobial classes of MRS17/00712 large colony

4.2.4.3.1 Exposure to Virkon[™] S

30 min after exposure to Virkon[™] S five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.25%. All clones showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain MRS17/00712 large colony, except clone IV that became intermediate to enrofloxacin.

3h after exposure to Virkon[™] S five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.25%. Increasing resistance were detected in all clones. Clone V acquired resistance to colistin. Clones I, II, III and IV became intermediate to enrofloxacin. Additionally, clones I and III proved intermediate to cefazolin.

5h after exposure to Virkon[™] S five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.25%. Increasing resistance was detected in all clones. Each clone became intermediate to cefazolin. Clone II additionally turned intermediate to enrofloxacin and neomycin. Clones II and III surprisingly turned sensitive to cefoxitin.

In total fifteen increasing resistances were detected, which belong to four different antimicrobial classes (Table 16).

Strain	Disinfactant	0/	Time	Clana	Number of increasing	Number of antimicrobial
<u>Strain</u>	Disinfectant	<u>%</u>	<u>Time</u>	<u>Clone</u>	resistances	<u>classes</u>
MRS17/00712 large colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	30min	1	0	0
MRS17/00712 large colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	30min	II	0	0
MRS17/00712 large colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	30min	Ш	0	0
MRS17/00712 large colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	30min	IV	1	(1) quinolone
MRS17/00712 large colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	30min	V	0	0
MRS17/00712 large colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	I	2	(2) cephalosporine and quinolone
MRS17/00712 large colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	Зh	Ш	1	(1) quinolone
MRS17/00712 large colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	Ш	2	(2) cephalosporine and quinolone
MRS17/00712 large colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	IV	1	(1) quinolone
MRS17/00712 large colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	V	1	(1) polypeptide
MRS17/00712 large colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	I	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 large colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	Ш	3	(3) cephalosporine, quinolone and aminoglycoside
MRS17/00712 large colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	111	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 large colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	IV	1	(1) cephalosporine
MRS17/00712 large colony	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	V	1	(1) cephalosporine
					<u>15</u>	<u>4 (cephalosporine, quinolone, aminoglycoside, polypeptide)</u>

Table 16: Number of single increased resistances and number of antimicrobial classes detected for variant MRS17/00712 large colony after exposure to Virkon[™] S

4.2.4.3.2 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok

30 min after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.125%. Increasing resistance was detected only in clone V. Clones I, II and IV showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain MRS17/00712 large colony. Clone III turned intermediate to streptomycin. Clone V became intermediate to cefazolin, but sensitive to cefoxitin.

3h after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.125%. Increasing resistance was detected only in clone I, which became intermediate to enrofloxacin. In contrast, clones II and IV became sensitive to cefoxitin, and clones III and V turned sensitive to streptomycin.

5h after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.125%. Increasing resistances were detected in clones I and II. Clone I turned intermediate to enrofloxacin and clone II became intermediate to cefazolin. Clones III and IV showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain MRS17/00712 large colony. Surprisingly clones I and V turned sensitive to Cefoxitin.

In total there were four increasing resistances detected.

4.2.4.3.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES

30 min after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.03125%. Increasing resistance was detected in clones I and IV. Clone I turned intermediate to enrofloxacin and clone IV became intermediate to cefazolin. Surprisingly all five clones turned sensitive to cefoxitin.

3h after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.03125%. Increasing resistance was detected in clones III, IV and V. Clones I and II showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain MRS17/00712 large colony. Clones III, IV and V became intermediate to enrofloxacin. Clone IV additionally turned intermediate to cefazolin, but surprisingly sensitive to cefoxitin.

No bacterial growth was present 5h after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES.

In total there were six increasing resistances detected.

4.2.5 Salmonella Infantis MRS17/02046

4.2.5.1 Field strain

The field strain MRS17/02046 is naturally resistant to oxacillin, nalidixic acid, streptomycin, sulfamethoxazole and tylosin, and intermediate to tetracycline. These are representing six antimicrobial classes, namely penicilline, quinolone, aminoglycoside, diaminopyrimidine + sulfamethoxazole and combinations and macrolide (Figure 10, Table 17).

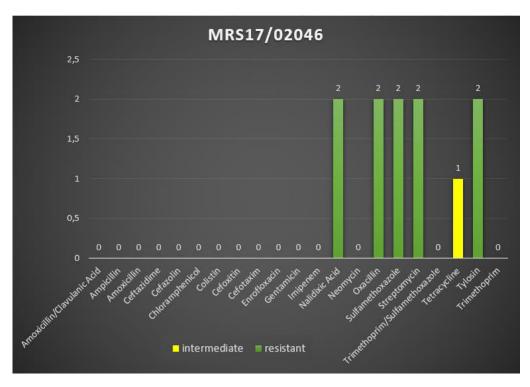


Figure 10: Resistance profile of MRS17/02046

Table 17: Antimicrobial classes of MRS17/02046

antimicrobial class	antimicrobial substance	
	Amoxicillin	
Penicilline and penicilline	Amoxicillin/Clavulanate	
combination	Ampicillin	
	Oxacillin	R
	Cefazolin (first generation)	
Cephalosporine	Cefoxitin (second generation)	
Cephalosponne	Cefotaxim (third generation)	
	Ceftazidime (third generation)	
Chloramphenicol	Chloramphenicol	
Polypeptide	Colistin	
Quinolone	Enrofloxacin	
Quinoione	Nalidixic acid	R
	Gentamycin	
Aminoglycoside	Neomycin	
	Streptomycin	R
Carbapenem	Imipenem	
Tetracycline	Tetracycline	L I
Diaminopyrimidine,	Trimethoprim	
sulfamethoxazole, and	Sulfamethoxazol	R
combinations	Trimethoprim/Sulfamethoxazol	
Macrolide	Tylosin	R

4.2.5.2 Exposure to Virkon[™] S

30 min after exposure to VirkonTM S five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.25%. Increasing resistance was detected in clone IV, which turned resistant to tetracycline. Clone II showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain MRS17/02046. Clones I, III, IV and V became intermediate to streptomycin.

3h after exposure to Virkon[™] S five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.25%. Increasing resistance was detected in clone V, which acquired resistance to imipenem. Clones II and III showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain MRS17/02046. Clones I, IV and V became intermediate to streptomycin.

5h after exposure to Virkon[™] S five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.25%. There was no increasing resistance detected. Clones I, II, IV and V showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain MRS17/02046. Clone III became intermediate to streptomycin.

In total there were two increasing resistances detected.

4.2.5.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok

30 minutes after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.0625%. There was no increasing resistance detected. Clones I, II, III and V showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain MRS17/02046. Clone IV became intermediate to streptomycin.

3h after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.0625%. Increasing resistance was detected in all clones, except clone V. Clones I, II, III and IV acquired resistance to tetracycline. Clones III and V became intermediate to streptomycin.

5h after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.0625%. Increasing resistance was detected in clones I, IV and V. These clones acquired resistance to tetracycline. Clones II, III and IV became intermediate to streptomycin.

In total there were seven increasing resistances detected, which belong to one antimicrobial class (Table 18).

<u>strain</u>	<u>disinfectant</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>time</u>	<u>clone</u>	number of increasing resistances	number of antimicrobial classes
MRS17/02046	CS Ecokok	0,0625	30min		0	0
MRS17/02046	CS Ecokok	0,0625	30min	II	0	0
MRS17/02046	CS Ecokok	0,0625	30min	Ш	0	0
MRS17/02046	CS Ecokok	0,0625	30min	IV	0	0
MRS17/02046	CS Ecokok	0,0625	30min	V	0	0
MRS17/02046	CS Ecokok	0,0625	3h	I	1	(1) tetracycline
MRS17/02046	CS Ecokok	0,0625	3h	II	1	(1) tetracycline
MRS17/02046	CS Ecokok	0,0625	3h	Ш	1	(1) tetracycline
MRS17/02046	CS Ecokok	0,0625	3h	IV	1	(1) tetracycline
MRS17/02046	CS Ecokok	0,0625	3h	V	0	0
MRS17/02046	CS Ecokok	0,0625	5h	1	1	(1) tetracycline
MRS17/02046	CS Ecokok	0,0625	5h	II	0	0
MRS17/02046	CS Ecokok	0,0625	5h	Ш	0	0
MRS17/02046	CS Ecokok	0,0625	5h	IV	1	(1) tetracycline
MRS17/02046	CS Ecokok	0,0625	5h	V	1	(1) tetracycline
					Z	<u>1 (tetraycycline)</u>

 Table 18: Number of single increased resistances and number of antimicrobial classes detected for MRS17/02046 after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok

4.2.5.4 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES

No bacterial growth was present 30 minutes, 3h and 5h after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES.

4.2.6 Salmonella Infantis PA19/26029 yellow

4.2.6.1 Field strain

The field strain PA19/26029 yellow is naturally resistant to oxacillin and tylosin, and intermediate to streptomycin. These are representing three antimicrobial classes, namely penicilline, macrolide and aminoglycoside (Figure 11, Table 19).

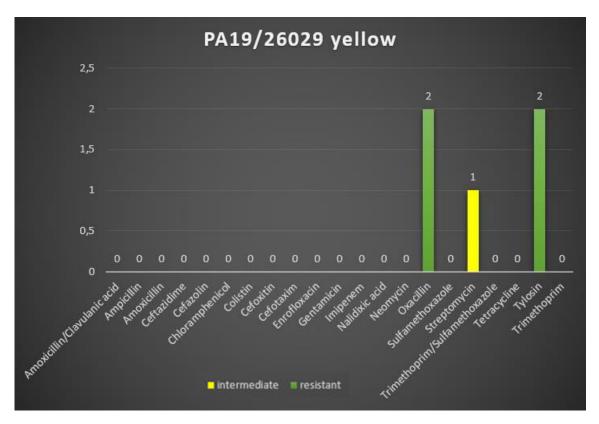


Figure 11: Resistance profile of PA19/26029 yellow

antimicrobial class	antimicrobial substance	
	Amoxicillin	
Penicilline and penicilline	Amoxicillin/Clavulanic acid	
combination	Ampicillin	
	Oxacillin	R
	Cefazolin (first generation)	
Cephalosporine	Cefoxitin (second generation)	
Cephalosponne	Cefotaxim (third generation)	
	Ceftazidime (third generation)	
Chloramphenicol	Chloramphenicol	
Polypeptide	Colistin	
Quinolone	Enrofloxacin	
Quinoione	Nalidixic acid	
	Gentamycin	
Aminoglycoside	Neomycin	
	Streptomycin	1
Carbapenem	Imipenem	
Tetracycline	Tetracycline	
Diaminopyrimidine,	Trimethoprim	
sulfamethoxazole, and	Sulfamethoxazole	
combinations	Trimethoprim/Sulfamethoxazole	
Macrolide	Tylosin	R

Table 19: Antimicrobia	I classes of	FPA19/26029	yellow
------------------------	--------------	-------------	--------

4.2.6.2 Exposure to Virkon[™] S

30 min after exposure to Virkon[™] S five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.5%. Increasing resistance was detected in all clones. Each clone acquired resistance to cefoxitin. Clones II, III, IV and V additionally acquired resistance to sulfamethoxazole. Clone I additionally became intermediate to cefazolin and surprisingly sensitive to streptomycin.

3h after exposure to Virkon[™] S five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.25%. Increasing resistance was detected in clones I, III and IV. Clones I and IV acquired resistance to cefoxitin. Clone I additionally became resistant to sulfamethoxazole. Clone III acquired resistance to streptomycin. Clone V surprisingly turned sensitive to streptomycin. Clone II showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain PA19/26029 yellow.

5h after exposure to Virkon[™] S five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.25%. Increasing resistance was detected in clones II and III, both acquiring resistance to cefoxitin. Clone III additionally turned intermediate to cefazolin. Clones I and IV showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain PA19/26029 yellow. Clone V surprisingly became sensitive to streptomycin.

In total there were seventeen increasing resistances detected, which belong to three different antimicrobial classes (Table 20).

Table 20: Number of single increased resistances and number of antimicrobial classes detected for PA19/26029 yellow after exposure to Virkon[™] S

strain	disinfectant	<u>%</u>	<u>time</u>	<u>clone</u>	number of increasing resistances	number of antimicrobial classes
PA19/26029 yellow	Virkon [™] S	0,5	30min	I	2	(1) cephalosporine
PA19/26029 yellow	Virkon [™] S	0,5	30min	II	2	(2) cephalosporine and diaminopyrimidine, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
PA19/26029 yellow	Virkon [™] S	0,5	30min	Ш	2	(2) cephalosporine and diaminopyrimidine, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
PA19/26029 yellow	Virkon [™] S	0,5	30min	IV	2	(2) cephalosporine and diaminopyrimidine, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
PA19/26029 yellow	Virkon [™] S	0,5	30min	V	2	(2) cephalosporine and diaminopyrimidine, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
PA19/26029 yellow	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	Т	2	(2) cephalosporine and diaminopyrimidine, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
PA19/26029 yellow	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	Ш	0	
PA19/26029 yellow	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	Ш	1	(1) aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 yellow	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	IV	1	(1) cephalosporine
PA19/26029 yellow	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	V	0	0
PA19/26029 yellow	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	I	0	0
PA19/26029 yellow	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	II	1	(1) cephalosporine
PA19/26029 yellow	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	III	2	(1) cephalosporine
PA19/26029 yellow	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	IV	0	0
PA19/26029 yellow	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	V	0	0
					<u>17</u>	3 (cephalosporine, aminoglycoside and diaminopyrimidine, sulfamethoxazole and combinations)

4.2.6.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok

30 min after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.125%. Increasing resistance was detected in all clones, except clone V. Clones I, III and IV acquired resistance to sulfamethoxazole. Clones II and IV became resistant to streptomycin. Clone IV additionally turned resistant to cefoxitin. Clone V showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain PA19/26029 yellow.

3h after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.0625%. Increasing resistance was detected in all clones. Clones I, II, III and IV acquired resistance to sulfamethoxazole. Clones II and V became resistant to streptomycin. Clone IV additionally turned resistant to cefoxitin and clone I additionally acquired resistance to imipenem and turned intermediate to cefazolin.

5h after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok two clones were picked at a MIC of 0.0625%. Increasing resistances were detected in both clones. They both acquired resistance to sulfamethoxazole.

In total there were seventeen increasing resistances detected, which belong to four different antimicrobial classes (Table 21).

Table 21: Number of single increased resistances and number of antimicrobial classes detected for PA19/26029 yellow after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok

strain	disinfectant	%	time	clone	number of increasing resistances	number of antimicrobial classes
PA19/26029 yellow	CS Ecokok	0,125	30min	I	1	(1) diaminopyrimidine, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
PA19/26029 yellow	CS Ecokok	0,125	30min	Ш	1	(1) aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 yellow	CS Ecokok	0,125	30min	Ш	1	(1) diaminopyrimidine, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
PA19/26029 yellow	CS Ecokok	0,125	30min	IV	3	 (3) cephalosporine, aminoglycoside and diaminopyrimidine, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
PA19/26029 yellow	CS Ecokok	0,125	30min	V	0	0
PA19/26029 yellow	CS Ecokok	0,0625	3h	I	3	(3) cephalosporine, carbapenem and diaminopyrimidine, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
PA19/26029 yellow	CS Ecokok	0,0625	3h	II	2	(2) aminoglycoside and diaminopyrimidine, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
PA19/26029 yellow	CS Ecokok	0,0625	3h	Ш	1	(1) diaminopyrimidine, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
PA19/26029 yellow	CS Ecokok	0,0625	3h	IV	2	(2) cephalosporine and diaminopyrimidine, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
PA19/26029 yellow	CS Ecokok	0,0625	3h	V	1	(1) aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 yellow	CS Ecokok	0,0625	5h	Т	1	(1) diaminopyrimidine, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
PA19/26029 yellow	CS Ecokok	0,0625	5h	II	1	(1) diaminopyrimidine, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
					<u>17</u>	4 (cephalosporine, aminoglycoside, carbapenem and diaminopyrimidine, sulfamethoxazole and combinations)

4.2.6.4 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES

30 min after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.0625%. Increasing resistance was detected in clones I, II and III. Clones IV and V showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain PA19/26029 yellow. Clones I, II and III acquired resistance to sulfamethoxazole. Clones I and II additionally became resistant to streptomycin.

3h after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.03125%. Increasing resistance was detected in clones II and V. Clones I, III and IV showed the same resistance profile as the parental strain PA19/26029 yellow. Clone II acquired resistance to sulfamethoxazole and turned intermediate to cefazolin. Clone V became resistant to cefoxitin and streptomycin.

5h after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES three clones were picked at a MIC of 0.03125%. Increasing resistance was detected in all three clones. Clones I and III acquired resistance to streptomycin. Clones II and III additionally acquired resistance to cefoxitin. Clone II additionally became resistant to sulfamethoxazole and intermediate to cefazolin.

In total there were fifteen increasing resistances detected, which belong to three different antimicrobial classes (Table 22).

strain	disinfectant	<u>%</u>	<u>time</u>	<u>clone</u>	number of increasing resistances	number of antimicrobial classes
PA19/26029 yellow	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,0625	30min	I	2	(2) aminoglycoside and diaminopyrimidine, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
PA19/26029 yellow	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,0625	30min	II	2	(2) aminoglycoside and diaminopyrimidine, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
PA19/26029 yellow	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,0625	30min	Ш	1	(1) diaminopyrimidine, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
PA19/26029 yellow	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,0625	30min	IV	0	0
PA19/26029 yellow	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,0625	30min	V	0	0
PA19/26029 yellow	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	3h	I	0	0
PA19/26029 yellow	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	3h	II	2	(2) cephalosporine and diaminopyrimidine, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
PA19/26029 yellow	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	3h	Ш	0	0
PA19/26029 yellow	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	3h	IV	0	0
PA19/26029 yellow	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	3h	V	2	(2) cephalosporine and aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 yellow	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	5h	I.	1	(1) aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 yellow	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	5h	II	3	(2) cephalosporine and diaminopyrimidine, sulfamethoxazole and combinations
PA19/26029 yellow	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	5h	Ш	2	(2) cephalosporine and aminoglycoside
					<u>15</u>	(3) cephalosporine, aminoglycoside and diaminopyrimidine, sulfamethoxazole and combinations

Table 22: Number of single increased resistances and number of antimicrobialclasses detected for PA19/26029 yellow after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES

4.2.7 Salmonella Infantis PA19/26029 black

4.2.7.1 Field strain

The field strain PA19/26029 black is naturally resistant to oxacillin, sulfamethoxazole and tylosin. These represent three antimicrobial classes, namely penicilline, diaminopyrimidine + sulfamethoxazole and combinations and macrolide (Figure 12, Table 23).

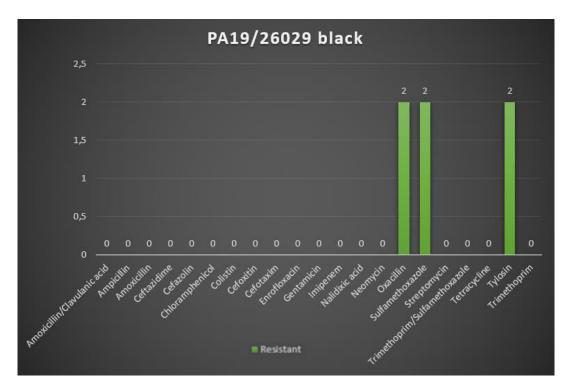


Figure 12: Resistance profile of PA19/26029 black

Table 23: Antimicrobial classes of PA19/26029 black

antimicrobial class	antimicrobial substance	
Penicilline and penicilline combination	Amoxicillin Amoxicillin/Clavulanic acid Ampicillin	
	Oxacillin	R
Cephalosporine	Cefazolin (first generation) Cefoxitin (second generation) Cefotaxim (third generation) Ceftazidime (third generation)	
Chloramphenicol	Chloramphenicol	
Polypeptide	Colistin	
Quinolone	Enrofloxacin Nalidixic acid	
Aminoglycoside	Gentamycin Neomycin Streptomycin	
Carbapenem	Imipenem	
Tetracycline	Tetracycline	
Diaminopyrimidine,	Trimethoprim	
sulfamethoxazole, and	Sulfamethoxazole	R
combinations	Trimethoprim/Sulfamethoxazole	
Macrolide	Tylosin	R

4.2.7.2 Exposure to Virkon[™] S

30 min after exposure to Virkon[™] S five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.5%. Increasing resistance was detected in clones I, II and V. Each clone acquired resistance to streptomycin. Surprisingly clones III and IV turned sensitive to sulfamethoxazole.

3h after exposure to Virkon[™] S five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.25%. Increasing resistance was detected in all clones. Clone I acquired resistance to streptomycin. Clones II, III, IV and V became intermediate to streptomycin. Clones IV and V additionally became resistant to cefoxitin. Surprisingly all clones turned sensitive to sulfamethoxazole.

5h after exposure to Virkon[™] S five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.25%. Increasing resistance was detected in all clones, except clone III. Clone V acquired resistance to streptomycin. Clones I, II and IV turned intermediate to streptomycin. Surprisingly all clones became sensitive to sulfamethoxazole.

In total there were fourteen increasing resistances detected, which belong to two different antimicrobial classes (Table 24).

<u>strain</u>	disinfectant	<u>%</u>	<u>time</u>	<u>clone</u>	number of increasing resistances	number of antimicrobial classes
PA19/26029 black	Virkon [™] S	0,5	30min		1	(1) aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	Virkon [™] S	0,5	30min	Ш	1	(1) aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	Virkon [™] S	0,5	30min	Ш	0	0
PA19/26029 black	Virkon [™] S	0,5	30min	IV	0	0
PA19/26029 black	Virkon [™] S	0,5	30min	V	1	(1) aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	1	1	(1) aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	Ш	1	(1) aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	Ш	1	(1) aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	IV	2	(2) cephalosporine and aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	Virkon [™] S	0,25	3h	V	2	(2) cephalosporine and aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	1	1	(1) aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	Ш	1	(1) aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	Ш	0	0
PA19/26029 black	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	IV	1	(1) aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	Virkon [™] S	0,25	5h	V	1	(1) aminoglycoside
					<u>14</u>	2 (cephalosporine and aminoglycoside)

Table 24: Number of single increased resistances and number of antimicrobial classes detected for PA19/26029 black after exposure to Virkon[™] S

4.2.7.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok

30 min after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.125%. Increasing resistance was detected in all clones. Clone III acquired resistance to streptomycin. Clones I, II, IV and V became intermediate to streptomycin. Clones I, II, III and V additionally turned resistant to cefoxitin. Clone III additionally turned intermediate to cefazolin. All clones, except clone III turned sensitive to sulfamethoxazole.

3h after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.0625%. Increasing resistance was detected in all clones. Clones I and V acquired resistance to streptomycin. Clones II, III and IV became intermediate to streptomycin. Clones IV and V additionally turned resistant to cefoxitin and clones III and V additionally turned intermediate to cefazolin.

5h after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok two clones were picked at a MIC of 0.0625%. Increasing resistance was detected in all clones. Clones II, IV and V acquired resistance to cefoxitin. All five clones became intermediate to streptomycin. Clones III and IV additionally turned intermediate to cefazolin. All clones, except clone I turned surprisingly sensitive to sulfamethoxazole.

In total there were twenty-nine increasing resistances detected, belonging to two different antimicrobial classes (Table 25).

Table 25: Number of single increased resistances and number of antimicrobialclasses detected for PA19/26029 black after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok

strain	disinfectant	<u>%</u>	<u>time</u>	<u>clone</u>	number of increasing resistances	number of antimicrobial classes
PA19/26029 black	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	30min	I	2	(2) cephalosporine and aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	30min	Ш	2	(2) cephalosporine and aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	30min	Ш	3	(2) cephalosporine and aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	30min	IV	1	(1) aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	30min	٧	2	(2) cephalosporine and aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	3h	1	1	(1) aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	3h	Ш	1	(1) aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	3h	Ш	2	(2) cephalosporine and aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	3h	IV	2	(2) cephalosporine and aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,125	3h	V	3	(2) cephalosporine and aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,0625	5h	1	1	(1) aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,0625	5h	Ш	2	(2) cephalosporine and aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,0625	5h	Ш	2	(2) cephalosporine and aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,0625	5h	IV	3	(2) cephalosporine and aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	calg. ster. Ecokok	0,0625	5h	V	2	(2) cephalosporine and aminoglycoside
					<u>29</u>	2 (cephalosporine and aminoglycoside)

4.2.7.4 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES

30 min after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES five clones were picked at a MIC of 0.03125%. Increasing resistance was detected in all clones. Clone III became resistant to streptomycin. Clones I, II, IV and V turned intermediate to streptomycin. Clones I, II and V acquired resistance to cefoxitin. Clone I additionally became intermediate to cefazolin. Surprisingly clone IV turned sensitive to sulfamethoxazole.

3h after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES one clone was picked at a MIC of 0.03125%. Increasing resistance was present. Clone I acquired resistance to streptomycin.

No bacterial growth was present 5h after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES.

In total there were ten increasing resistances detected, belonging to two different antimicrobial classes (Table 26).

<u>strain</u>	<u>disinfectant</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>time</u>	<u>clone</u>	number of increasing resistances	number of antimicrobial <u>classes</u>
PA19/26029 black	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	30min	I	3	(2) cephalosporine and aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	30min	II	2	(2) cephalosporine and aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	30min	ш	1	(1) aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	30min	IV	1	(1) aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	30min	V	2	(2) cephalosporine and aminoglycoside
PA19/26029 black	calg. ster. P12 DES	0,03125	3h	Т	1	(1) aminoglycoside
					<u>10</u>	2 (cephalosporine and aminoglycoside)

 Table 26: Number of single increased resistances and number of antimicrobial

 classes detected for PA19/26029 black after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES

4.3 Agar diffusion test

4.3.1 Salmonella Infantis MRS16/01939

4.3.1.1 Field strain

After 24h incubation the following inhibition zone diameters could be measured:

- o Ampicillin: 16 mm (intermediate)
- o Chloramphenicol: 20 mm (sensitive)
- o Enrofloxacin: 18 mm (intermediate)
- o Tetracycline: 0 mm (resistant)

4.3.1.2 Exposure to Virkon[™] S

30 min after exposure to Virkon[™] S there were no changes in susceptibility detected in all clones.

3h after exposure to Virkon[™] S there were no changes in susceptibility observed in all clones for chloramphenicol, enrofloxacin and tetracycline as well as for clone II in ampicillin. Interestingly, clones I, III, IV and V became sensitive to ampicillin.

5h after exposure to Virkon[™] S there were no changes in susceptibility detected in all clones to chloramphenicol, enrofloxacin and tetracycline. Interestingly, all five clones became sensitive to ampicillin.

4.3.1.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok

There were no changes in susceptibility observed for chloramphenicol, enrofloxacin and tetracycline in all clones after all exposure times. Whereas, all clones became sensitive to ampicillin after all three exposure times, respectively.

4.3.1.4 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES

30 min after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES there were no changes in susceptibility observed in all clones for chloramphenicol and tetracycline as well as for

clones I, II, III and V in ampicillin. Interestingly, all five clones turned sensitive towards ampicillin. Whereas Clone IV acquired resistance to enrofloxacin.

3h and 5h after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES there was no bacterial growth detected.

4.3.2 Salmonella Infantis MRS17/00712

4.3.2.1 Field strain

After 24h incubation the following inhibition zone diameters could be measured:

- o Ampicillin: 24 mm (sensitive)
- o Chloramphenicol: 30 mm (sensitive)
- o Enrofloxacin: 36 mm (sensitive)
- o Tetracycline: 28 mm (sensitive)

4.3.2.2 Exposure to Virkon[™] S

There were no changes in susceptibility observed for all clones after all exposure times to chloramphenicol. Whereas after 30 min clones I, II and IV became intermediate to ampicillin and enrofloxacin and resistant to tetracycline. Clone V turned intermediate to enrofloxacin and resistant to tetracycline. After 3h clones I and II became intermediate to ampicillin and enrofloxacin and resistant to tetracycline. After 5h clone I acquired

resistance to ampicillin, enrofloxacin and tetracycline. Clones III and V became intermediate to ampicillin and enrofloxacin and resistant to tetracycline (Table 27, Figure 13).

Table 27: Presentation of the inhibition zone diameters (in mm) of the Agar diffusion test of *Salmonella* Infantis MRS17/00712 after exposure to Virkon[™] S (MIC = 0.25%) and resistance profiling and development of each clone according to the CLSI reference level for antibiotics (Table 4) by color coding compared to the parental strain MRS17/00712 (field strain)

	sensitive						
	intermediate						
		resista					
	<u>Ampicillin</u>	Chloramphenicol	<u>Enrofloxacin</u>	<u>Tetracycline</u>			
MRS17/00712 (field strain)	24	30	36	28			
MRS17/00712 Virkon [™] S 0,25% 30min clone I	16	22	18	0			
<u>MRS17/00712 Virkon[™] S 0,25% 30min clone II</u>	16	22	18	0			
<u>MRS17/00712 Virkon[™] S 0,25% 30min clone III</u>	24	32	34	28			
<u>MRS17/00712 Virkon[™] S 0,25% 30min clone IV</u>	14	22	18	0			
MRS17/00712 Virkon [™] S 0,25% 30min clone V	18	24	22	0			
MRS17/00712 Virkon [™] S 0,25% 3h clone I	16	20	18	0			
MRS17/00712 Virkon [™] S 0,25% 3h clone II	14	24	18	0			
<u>MRS17/00712 Virkon[™] S 0,25% 3h clone III</u>	24	38	34	28			
MRS17/00712 Virkon [™] S 0,25% 3h clone IV	24	30	34	28			
MRS17/00712 Virkon [™] S 0,25% 3h clone V	24	28	34	24			
MRS17/00712 Virkon [™] S 0,25% 5h clone I	12	18	16	0			
MRS17/00712 Virkon [™] S 0,25% 5h clone II	24	30	32	28			
MRS17/00712 Virkon [™] S 0,25% 5h clone III	14	22	20	0			
MRS17/00712 Virkon [™] S 0,25% 5h clone IV	24	34	38	26			
MRS17/00712 Virkon [™] S 0,25% 5h clone V	16	22	18	0			

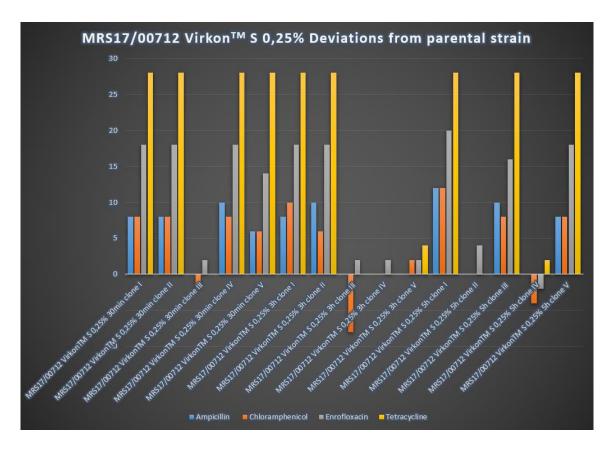


Figure 13: Deviations from the parental strain MRS17/00712 in the inhibition zone diameters after exposure to Virkon[™] S. Bars above the base line represent increasing resistance as the inhibition zone diameter was decreased. Bars under the base line show an increased inhibition zone diameter

4.3.2.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok

There were no changes in susceptibility observed for all clones after all exposure times towards ampicillin, chloramphenicol, enrofloxacin and tetracycline, respectively.

4.3.2.4 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES

30 min, 3h and 5h after exposure to calgorit sterizid P12 DES no bacterial growth was found.

4.3.3 Variants of Salmonella Infantis MRS17/00712

4.3.3.1 MRS17/00712 small colony

After 24h incubation the following inhibition zone diameters could be measured:

- o Ampicillin: 30 mm (sensitive)
- o Chloramphenicol: 32 mm (sensitive)
- o Enrofloxacin: 38 mm (sensitive)
- o Tetracycline: 30 mm (sensitive)

4.3.3.1.1 Exposure to Virkon[™] S

There were no changes in susceptibility observed for all clones after all exposure times towards ampicillin, chloramphenicol, enrofloxacin and tetracycline, respectively.

4.3.3.1.2 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok

There were no changes in susceptibility observed for all clones after all exposure times towards ampicillin, chloramphenicol, enrofloxacin and tetracycline, respectively.

4.3.3.1.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES

30 min, 3h and 5h after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES no bacterial growth was found.

4.3.3.2 MRS17/00712 medium colony

After 24h incubation the following inhibition zone diameters could be measured:

- o Ampicillin: 22 mm (sensitive)
- o Chloramphenicol: 22 mm (sensitive)
- o Enrofloxacin: 20 mm (intermediate)
- o Tetracycline: 0 mm (resistant)

4.3.3.2.1 Exposure to Virkon[™] S

There were no changes in susceptibility observed for all clones after all exposure times towards ampicillin, chloramphenicol, enrofloxacin and tetracycline, respectively.

4.3.3.2.2 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok

There were no changes in susceptibility observed for all clones after all exposure times towards chloramphenicol, enrofloxacin and tetracycline, respectively. An intermediate state was acquired for ampicillin in all clones after 30 min, in clone V after 3h and in clones I, II and III after 5h (Table 28, Figure 14).

Table 28: Presentation of the inhibition zone diameters (in mm) of the Agar diffusion test of *Salmonella* Infantis MRS17/00712 medium colony after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok (MIC = 0.25%) and resistance profiling and development of each clone according to the CLSI reference level for antibiotics (Table 4) by color coding compared to the parental strain MRS17/00712 medium colony

		sensi interme resist	diate	
	Ampicillin	Chloramphenicol	Enrofloxacin	Tetracycline
MRS17/00712 medium colony	22	22	20	0
MRS17/00712 medium colony calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 30min clone I	16	22	20	0
MRS17/00712 medium colony calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 30min clone II	16	24	20	0
MRS17/00712 medium colony calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 30min clone III	16	22	20	0
MRS17/00712 medium colony calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 30min clone IV	16	24	22	0
MRS17/00712 medium colony calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 30min clone V	16	22	20	0
MRS17/00712 medium colony calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 3h clone I	18	22	20	0
MRS17/00712 medium colony calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 3h clone II	18	22	22	0
MRS17/00712 medium colony calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 3h clone III	18	22	20	0
MRS17/00712 medium colony calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 3h clone IV	18	22	20	0
MRS17/00712 medium colony calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 3h clone V	16	22	20	0
MRS17/00712 medium colony calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 5h clone I	16	24	20	0
MRS17/00712 medium colony calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 5h clone II	16	22	22	0
MRS17/00712 medium colony calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 5h clone III	16	24	20	0
MRS17/00712 medium colony calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 5h clone IV	22	22	18	0
MRS17/00712 medium colony calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 5h clone V	22	22	18	0

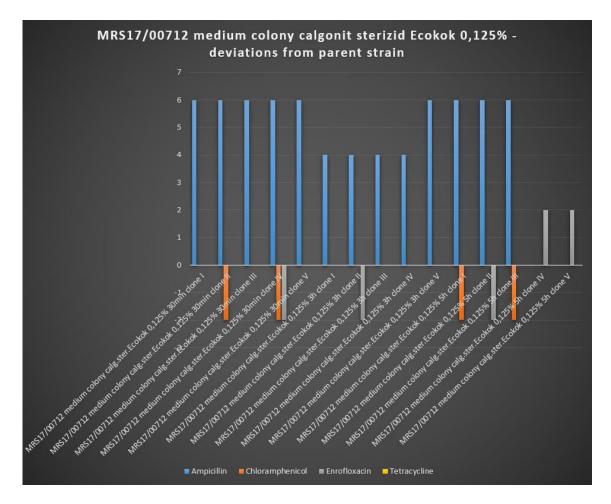


Figure 14: Deviations from the parental strain MRS17/00712 medium colony in the inhibition zone diameters after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok. Bars above the base line represent increasing resistance as the inhibition zone diameter was decreased. Bars under the base line show an increased inhibition zone diameter

4.3.3.2.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES

30 min after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 there were no changes in susceptibility detected for all clones after all exposure times towards ampicillin, chloramphenicol, enrofloxacin and tetracycline, respectively. Whereas an intermediate state was acquired for ampicillin in clone II after 3h. 5h after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES no bacterial growth was found.

4.3.3.3 MRS17/00712 large colony

After 24h incubation the following inhibition zone diameters could be measured:

- o Ampicillin: 22 mm (sensitive)
- o Chloramphenicol: 22 mm (sensitive)
- o Enrofloxacin: 18 mm (intermediate)
- o Tetracycline: 0 mm (resistant)

4.3.3.3.1 Exposure to Virkon[™] S

There were no changes in susceptibility observed for all clones after all exposure times towards ampicillin, chloramphenicol, enrofloxacin and tetracycline, respectively.

4.3.3.3.2 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok

There were no changes in susceptibility observed for all clones after all exposure times towards chloramphenicol, enrofloxacin and tetracycline, respectively. An intermediate state was acquired for ampicillin in clones III and IV after 30 min, and in all clones after 3h and after 5h (Table 29, Figure 15).

Table 29: Presentation of the inhibition zone diameters (in mm) of the Agar diffusion test of *Salmonella* Infantis MRS17/00712 large colony after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok (MIC = 0.125%) and resistance profiling and development of each clone according to the CLSI reference level for antibiotics (Table 4) by color coding compared to the parental strain MRS17/00712 large colony

	sensitive intermediate resistant			
	Ampicillin	Chloramphenicol	Enrofloxacin	Tetracycline
MRS17/00712 large colony	22	22	18	0
MRS17/00712 large colony				
calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 30min clone I	22	22	18	0
MRS17/00712 large colony				
calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 30min clone II	22	22	18	0
MRS17/00712 large colony				
calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 30min clone III	16	22	18	0
MRS17/00712 large colony				
calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 30min clone IV	16	22	18	0
MRS17/00712 large colony				
calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 30min clone V	22	22	18	0
MRS17/00712 large colony				
calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 3h clone I	16	24	18	0
MRS17/00712 large colony	40		40	
calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 3h clone II	16	24	18	0
MRS17/00712 large colony	16	04	40	0
calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 3h clone III	16	24	18	0
MRS17/00712 large colony	16	24	18	0
calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 3h clone IV	10	24	10	0
MRS17/00712 large colony calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 3h clone V	16	24	18	0
MRS17/00712 large colony	10	24	10	0
calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 5h clone l	16	24	18	0
MRS17/00712 large colony	10	24	10	U
calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 5h clone II	16	24	18	0
MRS17/00712 large colony	10	2.1	10	Ŭ
calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 5h clone III	16	22	18	0
MRS17/00712 large colony				
calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 5h clone IV	14	22	18	0
MRS17/00712 large colony				
calg.ster.Ecokok 0,125% 5h clone V	14	22	18	0

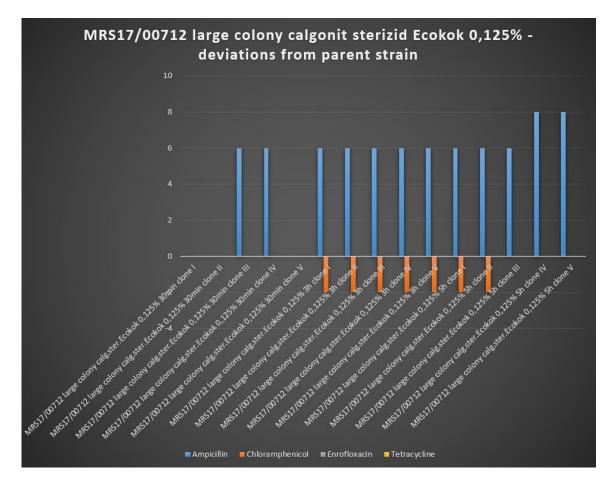


Figure 15: Deviations from the parental strain MRS17/00712 large colony in the inhibition zone diameters after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok. Bars above the base line represent increasing resistance as the inhibition zone diameter was decreased. Bars under the base line show an increased inhibition zone diameter

4.3.3.3.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES

An intermediate state was acquired for ampicillin in clone I after an exposure time of 30 min. For all other clones and exposure times there were no changes in susceptibility observed.

4.3.4 Salmonella Infantis MRS17/02046

4.3.4.1 Field strain

After 24h incubation the following inhibition zone diameters could be measured:

- o Ampicillin: 26 mm (sensitive)
- o Chloramphenicol: 30 mm (sensitive)
- o Enrofloxacin: 28 mm (sensitive)
- o Tetracycline: 10 mm (resistant)

4.3.4.2 Exposure to Virkon[™] S

There were no changes in susceptibility observed for all clones after all exposure times towards ampicillin, chloramphenicol, enrofloxacin and tetracycline, respectively.

4.3.4.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok

There were no changes in susceptibility observed for all clones after all exposure times towards ampicillin, chloramphenicol and enrofloxacin, respectively. Interestingly, clone V after 3h and clone I after 5h became intermediate to tetracycline. All other clones after all exposure times remained stable for tetracycline.

4.3.4.4 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES

30 min, 3h and 5h after exposure to calgorit sterizid P12 DES no bacterial growth was found.

4.3.5 Salmonella Infantis PA19/26029 yellow

4.3.5.1 Field strain

After 24h incubation the following inhibition zone diameters could be measured:

- o Ampicillin: 20 mm (sensitive)
- o Chloramphenicol: 18 mm (sensitive)
- o Enrofloxacin: 24 mm (sensitive)
- o Tetracycline: 18 mm (sensitive)

4.3.5.2 Exposure to Virkon[™] S

There were no changes in susceptibility observed for all clones after all exposure times towards ampicillin, chloramphenicol, enrofloxacin and tetracycline, respectively.

4.3.5.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok

There were no changes in susceptibility observed for all clones after all exposure times towards ampicillin, chloramphenicol, enrofloxacin and tetracycline, respectively.

4.3.5.4 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12

There were no changes in susceptibility observed for all clones after all exposure times towards ampicillin, chloramphenicol, enrofloxacin and tetracycline, respectively.

4.3.6 Salmonella Infantis PA19/26029 black

4.3.6.1 Field strain

After 24h incubation the following inhibition zone diameters could be measured:

- o Ampicillin: 20 mm (sensitive)
- o Chloramphenicol: 18 mm (sensitive)
- o Enrofloxacin: 24 mm (sensitive)
- o Tetracycline: 16 mm (sensitive)

4.3.6.2 Exposure to Virkon[™] S

There were no changes in susceptibility observed for all clones after all exposure times towards ampicillin, chloramphenicol, enrofloxacin and tetracycline, respectively.

4.3.6.3 Exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok

There were no changes in susceptibility observed for all clones after all exposure times towards ampicillin, chloramphenicol, enrofloxacin and tetracycline, respectively.

4.3.6.4 Exposure to calgonit sterizid P12

There were no changes in susceptibility observed for all clones after all exposure times towards ampicillin, chloramphenicol, enrofloxacin and tetracycline, respectively.

5 Discussion

Possible influences of usage of disinfectants for bacteria and mechanisms of resistance have already been investigated to some extent in previous studies. It is commonly known that the industrial usage of disinfectants and the environmental biocide challenge can lead to the induction of bacteria with improved fitness and less susceptibility towards biocides and antimicrobial compounds (Chuanchuen et al. 2008, Condell et al. 2012, Gantzhorn et al. 2014, Karatzas et al. 2007, Soumet et al. 2016, Webber et al. 2015, Whitehead et al. 2011). So it is important to know the mechanisms and modes of action as well as to detect and to avoid possible application faults of disinfectants and antimicrobial compounds. To fight bacteria like *Salmonella* Infantis only strict cleaning and disinfection measures lead to a certain improvement of the current situation. But, recurrent infections of birds and persistent contamination of stables are still an important issue.

The objective of the present diploma thesis was to investigate if the development of antibiotic resistance based on the application of disinfectants might stick to parameters like exposure time to disinfectants, specific disinfectants or certain *Salmonella* Infantis strains. Interestingly *Salmonella* Infantis isolates with already higher initial resistances showed a lower increase in new resistances as isolates with less initial resistances. It was also observed that new resistances developed mainly in specific antimicrobial classes, which differed from strain to strain but stayed commonly constant within the same strain and therefore were independent from disinfectant or exposure time.

With a look at the *Salmonella* Infantis isolates included in this study, MRS16/01939 showed the more resistant initial susceptibility profile, whereas MRS17/00712 was initially more sensitive. After exposure to disinfectants deviations from parental strains were more often present in MRS17/00712 than in MRS16/01939.

Interestingly MRS17/00712 variant small colony showed the same initial resistance profile in microdilution as the parental strain MRS17/00712 and the same MIC in clones but mostly no increased or decreased resistances after exposure to disinfectants. So it proofed to be very stable instead.

Whereas MRS17/00712 variants medium and large colony initially proofed to be more resistant, developed more resistances after exposure to disinfectants. So these variants tend to be concurrently more reactive and more virulent than the small colony variant.

Salmonella Infantis strain MRS17/02046 was more resistant initally but did not develop crucial differences in its resistance profile in clones after exposure to disinfectants despite the presence of a pESI plasmid. But, a resistant state instead of an intermediate state in tetracycline was found in few clones.

Salmonella Infantis isolates MRS19/26029 black and yellow showed both a more sensitive initial resistance profile and hereafter proofed to be more reactive and with increased resistances after exposure to disinfectants despite the absence of a pESI plasmid.

In summary the different reaction patterns of the different *Salmonella* Infantis isolates indicate the fact that strains with more sensitive initial resistance profiles more often develop new additional resistances possibly due to a higher evolutionary selective pressure (Darwin 1860, Lambert and Kussell 2015) or better opportunities in interference with internal cellular processes like the presence of a plasmid or other virulence associated mechanisms (Alba et al. 2020, Condell et al. 2012, Hensel 2004, Suez et al. 2013).

Exposure time, together with recommended commercial concentration as well as the minimum inhibitory concentration, respectively, are important parameters concerning resistance acquirement. There was a tendency that clones developed more easily additional resistances after a shorter exposure time, like after 30 minutes more than after 3 hours and after 3 hours more than after 5 hours. This could even be a problem in broiler farms or slaughterhouses when cleaning and disinfection are not performed correctly, for example when exposure times are kept too short, when dust and dirt is not removed sufficiently or when drying of surfaces was done incorrectly and puddles emerge (Ahaduzzaman et al. 2021, Iwabuchi et al. 2010, Sommer et al. 2012). In this case the disinfectant is diluted and this can lead to the survival of resistant bacteria by undergoing MICs.

Another observation was that *Salmonella* Infantis isolates included in this study were in general mostly reactive with VirkonTM S, then calgonit sterizid Ecokok and least with calgonit sterizid P12 DES. No growth was observed with calgonit sterizid DS 680. This

fact was explained due to a high recommended commercial concentration of 2.0 %, a short effective recommended exposure time of 30min and its composition from aldehyde and quarternary ammonium compounds, which proved higher efficacy in *Salmonella* elimination than cresols and least peroxygen compounds (Drauch et al. 2020).

Another challenge in disinfection represents the ability of *Salmonella* spp. to form biofilms under specific conditions (Agostinho Davanzo et al. 2021, Yin et al. 2018). The occurrence of biofilms was observed and investigated for other bacterial species, and may be a considerable future issue in fighting *Salmonella* as well.

Resistance mechanisms which are in focus for discussion also include internal bacterial cell components, like efflux pumps or the pESI plasmids. Treatment with sublethal concentrations of chemical antimicrobial agents can foster the expression of MDR efflux pumps in bacterial cells (Gilbert et al. 2002). There is a link proven between the expression and presence of efflux systems, the occurrence of so called quorum sensing which means cell-to-cell signaling as a response to extracellular chemical signals and the ability to biofilm formation and differentiation (Chan and Chua 2005, Soto 2013). It can be concluded that the exposure to biocides in sublethal concentations may provoke intrinsic signal ways and the expression of efflux pumps for both disinfectants and antibiotics in surviving bacteria, as well as the occurrence of alterations in phenotype and therefore different resistance profiles in this study.

Differences in results between microdilution assay and disk diffusion test can be traced back to lower specifity and sensitivity in the latter due to measuring ranges dependent on the examiner and less comparability due to only four measured antibiotic substances in this test setting (Balke et al. 2004, Bauer et al. 1959, Bauer et al. 1966, Häussler et al. 2003).

In this study antimicrobial classes involved in increased resistances were predominantly represented by cephalosporines (first generation and second generation) and quinolones. Beside these there were aminoglycoside, tetracycline and sulfamethoxazole involved. MDR efflux pumps are assumed as important resistance features in these classes (Blair et al. 2014, Nishino et al. 2021). To prevent a global health issue concerning MDR in bacteria like *Salmonella* spp. it is indispensable to deal with efflux pump mechanisms by further investigations. Combating efflux-based resistance mechanisms in bacteria is of public concern and is only possible by either the development of an improved new

generation of antimicrobial agents or by the use of molecules blocking efflux systems, so called efflux pump inhibitors (EPIs) (Amaral et al. 2011, Lomovskaya and Bostian 2006, Nikaido and Pagès 2012, Pagès and Amaral 2009).

The plasmid of Emerging *Salmonella enterica* serovar Infantis (pESI plasmid) is already known to be present in some isolates provoking MDR. This plasmid is known as carrier for multiple resistance genes (Alba et al. 2020, Bogomazova et al. 2020, Carattoli 2003, Lee et al. 2021). Especially so called extended-spectrum β -lactamase (ESBL) genes were found to play a crucial role in resistance development (Pietsch et al. 2021). The presence of the pESI plasmid in some of the isolates which were investigated in this study proved to be very important to draw conclusions concerning new-acquired resistances. Isolates harbouring this plasmid showed higher intrinsic initial resistances than strains without. Although these strains tend to remain more stable, nevertheless they have shown the ability to acquire new additional resistance. As pESI-like megaplasmids have shown the capability of introducing resistance against third generation cephalosporine it represents a major threat and implicites to be of emerging concern in further studies (Pietsch et al. 2021).

6 Summary

Salmonella spp. is a worldwide appearing bacterial pathogen. There are host-specific and non-host-specific serotypes occurring within more than 2600 known serotypes. Salmonella Infantis belonging to non-host-specific serovars is mainly found in broilers and broiler meat and is able to cause severe disease in humans. The zoonotic potential and the more and more frequent appearance of multiresistant Salmonella Infantis strains contemplates a significant global health issue. There are different bacterial clusters/strains in different geographical regions found, which also proved to show differences in persistence. So far, intensive cleaning and disinfection programs in poultry houses as well as slaughter houses are used to eliminate Salmonella Infantis. Recently, reports of increasing prevalence of antibiotic multiresistant isolates started the discussion on possible influences of the use of disinfectants. Therefore, the present study was performed to assess whether a possible link between the application of disinfectants and

the acquirement of resistance to antimicrobial compounds in Salmonella Infantis exists. Our results show that under specific circumstances the development of resistances in certain clones of Salmonella Infantis increases. This fact is mainly lead back to the ability of bacterial cells to develop intrinsic resistance mechanisms, such as being capable of forming biofilms, the acquirement of active efflux pumps or plasmids, which foster the development of new resistance genes and therefore makes it more and more complicated to combat mutants with improved fitness and persistence. Improper cleaning and disinfection in farms and slaughterhouses, e.g. application to disinfectants in sublethal concentrations or puddle emergence due to improper drying, can implicate higher resistance in surviving clones against biocides as well as antimicrobial compounds by intrinsic cell signal ways and possible horizontal gene transfer. There are many possible conditions which foster resistance development. In the present investigation we found the following ones: a) field isolates with initially lower resistances, b) an improper dilution of disinfectants, c) too short exposure time, d) disinfectants with peroxygen compounds or cresols, and e) the presence of the pESI plasmid. To prevent a new arising global health problem through bacterial mutants with MDR, permanent surveillance programmes and further studies and investigations on Salmonella Infantis are indispensable, beside concurrent genetic analysis of persisting strains and combating these with the use of adapted technologies like bacteriophages, efflux pump inhibitors, or vaccines.

7 Zusammenfassung

Salmonella spp. ist ein weltweit verbreiteter bakterieller Infektionserreger. Unter den mehr als 2600 bekannten Serovaren befinden sich wirtsspezifische und nichtwirtsspezifische Serovare. Salmonella Infantis zählt zu den nicht-wirtsspezifischen Serovaren, kommt hauptsächlich im Masthuhn vor und kann beim Menschen ernsthafte Erkrankungen hervorrufen. Das zoonotische Potential und das immer häufigere Auftreten von multiresistenten Salmonella Infantis Stämmen stellen ein ernsthaftes globales Gesundheitsrisiko dar. Salmonella Infantis umfasst eine heterogene Bakteriengruppe, charakterisiert durch unterschiedliche Cluster in unterschiedlichen geographischen Regionen. Konzertante Reinigungs- und Desinfektionsmaßnahmen sind aktuell die einzigen gezielten Vorgehensweisen, um Salmonella Infantis aus kontaminierten Geflügelstallungen und Schlachthöfen zu eliminieren; allerdings mit unterschiedlichen Erfolgen. Ein weiteres Augenmerk wird auf das vermehrte Auftreten von Antibiotikaresistenten Salmonella Infantis Stämmen gelegt. Deshalb wurde diese Studie durchgeführt, um einen möglichen Zusammenhang zwischen der Anwendung von Desinfektionsmitteln und dem Erwerb von Antibiotika-Resistenzen bei Salmonella Infantis zu untersuchen. Unsere Ergebnisse zeigen, dass unter bestimmten Umständen die Resistenzentwicklung von Salmonella Infantis Stämmen zunimmt. Dieser Umstand wird hauptsächlich zurückgeführt auf die Fähigkeit der Bakterien. intrinsische Resistenzmechanismen zu entwickeln, wie zum Beispiel die Fähigkeit Biofilme aus zu bilden, damit verbunden der Erwerb von aktiven Efflux-Pumpen, die sowohl Antibiotika als auch Desinfektionsmittel aus der Zelle schleusen können, oder Plasmide, wodurch die Bildung neuer Resistenzgene gefördert wird. Dies macht es wiederum schwieriger neue Mutanten mit verbesserter Fitness und Tenazität zu bekämpfen. Unsachgemäße Reinigung und Desinfektion in landwirtschaftlichen Betrieben und Schlachthöfen, wie zum Beispiel die Anwendung von Desinfektionsmitteln in subletalen Konzentrationen oder Pfützenbildung aufgrund unsachgemäßer Trocknung, können höhere Resistenzen in überlebenden Klonen sowohl gegen Biozide als auch gegen antimikrobielle Wirkstoffe bewirken. Es gibt viele verschiedene Bedingungen, welche Resistenzen fördern können. In der aktuellen Studie waren diese: a) Feldstämme mit einem sensitiveren Ausgangsresistenzprofil, b) verdünnte Desinfektionsmittel (minimale Hemmkonzentration wird unterschritten), c) zu kurze Einwirkzeit, d) Desinfektionsmittel auf Basis von Peroxidverbindungen und Kresolen, und e) das Vorhandensein des pESI Plasmids. Um einem neu aufkommenden globalen Gesundheitsproblem durch multiresistente bakterielle Mutanten entgegen zu wirken, sind ständige Überwachung und weitere Studien und Untersuchungen an Salmonella Infantis unabdingbar, neben fortlaufenden Analysen des Genoms von hartnäckigen Stämmen und der Bekämpfung letzterer mithilfe angepasster Technologien wie Bakteriophagen, Efflux-Pumpen-Inhibitoren oder Impfungen.

8 References

Agostinho Davanzo EF, Dos Santos RL, Castro VHdL, Palma JM, Pribul BR, Dallago BSL, Fuga B, Medeiros M, Titze de Almeida SS, da Costa HMB, Rodrigues DDP, Lincopan N, Perecmanis S, Santana AP. 2021. Molecular characterization of *Salmonella spp.* and *Listeria monocytogenes* strains from biofilms in cattle and poultry slaughterhouses located in the federal District and State of Goiás, Brazil. PloS one, 16 (11): e0259687. DOI 10.1371/journal.pone.0259687.

Ahaduzzaman M, Groves PJ, Walkden-Brown SW, Gerber PF. 2021. A molecular based method for rapid detection of *Salmonella spp.* in poultry dust samples. MethodsX, 8: 101356. DOI 10.1016/j.mex.2021.101356.

Alba P, Leekitcharoenphon P, Carfora V, Amoruso R, Cordaro G, Di Matteo P, Ianzano A, Iurescia M, Diaconu EL, Study Group E-E-AN, Pedersen SK, Guerra B, Hendriksen RS, Franco A, Battisti A. 2020. Molecular epidemiology of *Salmonella Infantis* in Europe: insights into the success of the bacterial host and its parasitic pESI-like megaplasmid. Microbial genomics, 6 (5). DOI 10.1099/mgen.0.000365.

Amaral L, Fanning S, Pagès J-M. 2011. Efflux pumps of gram-negative bacteria: genetic responses to stress and the modulation of their activity by pH, inhibitors, and phenothiazines. Advances in enzymology and related areas of molecular biology, 77: 61–108. DOI 10.1002/9780470920541.ch2.

Antunes P, Mourão J, Campos J, Peixe L. 2016. Salmonellosis: the role of poultry meat. Clinical microbiology and infection : the official publication of the European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases, 22 (2): 110–121. DOI 10.1016/j.cmi.2015.12.004.

Arvaniti M, Tsakanikas P, Papadopoulou V, Giannakopoulou A, Skandamis P. 2021. *Listeria monocytogenes* Sublethal Injury and Viable-but-Nonculturable State Induced by Acidic Conditions and Disinfectants. Microbiology spectrum, 9 (3): e0137721. DOI 10.1128/Spectrum.01377-21.

Aviv G, Cornelius A, Davidovich M, Cohen H, Suwandi A, Galeev A, Steck N, Azriel S, Rokney A, Valinsky L, Rahav G, Grassl GA, Gal-Mor O. 2019. Differences in the expression of SPI-1 genes pathogenicity and epidemiology between the emerging *Salmonella* enterica serovar Infantis and the model *Salmonella* enterica serovar Typhimurium. The Journal of infectious diseases, 220 (6): 1071–1081. DOI 10.1093/infdis/jiz235.

Aviv G, Tsyba K, Steck N, Salmon-Divon M, Cornelius A, Rahav G, Grassl GA, Gal-Mor O. 2014. A unique megaplasmid contributes to stress tolerance and pathogenicity of an emergent *Salmonella* enterica serovar Infantis strain. Environmental microbiology, 16 (4): 977–994. DOI 10.1111/1462-2920.12351.

Balke B, Hoy L, Weissbrodt H, Häussler S. 2004. Comparison of the Micronaut Merlin automated broth microtiter system with the standard agar dilution method for antimicrobial susceptibility testing of mucoid and nonmucoid *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* isolates from cystic fibrosis patients. European journal of clinical microbiology & infectious diseases : official publication of the European Society of Clinical Microbiology, 23 (10): 765–771. DOI 10.1007/s10096-004-1212-7.

Barrow PA, Methner U, Hrsg. 2013. Salmonella in domestic animals. Secondnd edition. Oxfordshire Wallingsford UK: CABI, ;

Bauer AW, Kirby WM, Sherris JC, Turck M. 1966. Antibiotic susceptibility testing by a standardized single disk method. American journal of clinical pathology, 45 (4): 493–496.

Bauer AW, PERRY DM, Kirby WM. 1959. Single-disk antibiotic-sensitivity testing of staphylococci; an analysis of technique and results. A.M.A. archives of internal medicine, 104 (2): 208–216. DOI 10.1001/archinte.1959.00270080034004.

14/07/2022. https://biorender.com/ (accessed Jul 14, 2022).

Blair JMA, Richmond GE, Piddock LJV. 2014. Multidrug efflux pumps in Gram-negative bacteria and their role in antibiotic resistance. Future microbiology, 9 (10): 1165–1177. DOI 10.2217/fmb.14.66.

Block S. 1991. Desinfection, sterilization and preservation. Fourth. ed. Estados Unidos: Lea & Febiger, 1162.

Bogomazova AN, Gordeeva VD, Krylova EV, Soltynskaya IV, Davydova EE, Ivanova OE, Komarov AA. 2020. Mega-plasmid found worldwide confers multiple antimicrobial resistance in *Salmonella Infantis* of broiler origin in Russia. International journal of food microbiology, 319: 108497. DOI 10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2019.108497.

Braoudaki M, Hilton AC. 2004. Adaptive resistance to biocides in *Salmonella enterica* and *Escherichia coli* O157 and cross-resistance to antimicrobial agents. Journal of clinical microbiology, 42 (1): 73–78. DOI 10.1128/jcm.42.1.73-78.2004.

Braoudaki M, Hilton AC. 2005. Mechanisms of resistance in *Salmonella enterica* adapted to erythromycin, benzalkonium chloride and triclosan. International journal of antimicrobial agents, 25 (1): 31–37. DOI 10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2004.07.016.

Brenner FW, Villar RG, Angulo FJ, Tauxe R, Swaminathan B. 2000. Salmonella nomenclature. Journal of clinical microbiology, 38 (7): 2465–2467. DOI 10.1128/JCM.38.7.2465-2467.2000.

Bundesministerium für Arbeit, Soziales, Gesundheit und Konsumentenschutz. 2019. Nationale Referenzzentrale für Salmonellen - Jahresbericht 2018.

Cadena M, Kelman T, Marco ML, Pitesky M. 2019. Understanding Antimicrobial Resistance (AMR) Profiles of *Salmonella* Biofilm and Planktonic Bacteria Challenged with Disinfectants Commonly Used During Poultry Processing. Foods (Basel, Switzerland), 8 (7). DOI 10.3390/foods8070275.

Carattoli A. 2003. Plasmid-mediated antimicrobial resistance in *Salmonella enterica*. Current issues in molecular biology, 5 (4): 113–122.

Chan YY, Chua KL. 2005. The *Burkholderia pseudomallei* BpeAB-OprB efflux pump: expression and impact on quorum sensing and virulence. Journal of bacteriology, 187 (14): 4707–4719. DOI 10.1128/JB.187.14.4707-4719.2005.

Chuanchuen R, Pathanasophon P, Khemtong S, Wannaprasat W, Padungtod P. 2008. Susceptibilities to antimicrobials and disinfectants in *Salmonella* isolates obtained from poultry and swine in Thailand. The Journal of veterinary medical science, 70 (6): 595–601. DOI 10.1292/jvms.70.595.

Cohen E, Davidovich M, Rokney A, Valinsky L, Rahav G, Gal-Mor O. 2020. Emergence of new variants of antibiotic resistance genomic islands among multidrug-resistant *Salmonella enterica* in poultry. Environmental microbiology, 22 (1): 413–432. DOI 10.1111/1462-2920.14858.

Condell O, Iversen C, Cooney S, Power KA, Walsh C, Burgess C, Fanning S. 2012. Efficacy of biocides used in the modern food industry to control *Salmonella enterica*, and links between biocide tolerance and resistance to clinically relevant antimicrobial compounds. Applied and environmental microbiology, 78 (9): 3087–3097. DOI 10.1128/AEM.07534-11.

Crosa JH, Brenner DJ, Ewing WH, Falkow S. 1973. Molecular relationships among the Salmonelleae. Journal of bacteriology, 115 (1): 307–315. DOI 10.1128/jb.115.1.307-315.1973.

Darwin C. 1860. On the Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection, or the Preservation of Favoured Races in the Struggle for Life. The British and Foreign Medico-Chirurgical Review, 25 (50): 367–404.

Davin-Regli A, Pagès JM. 2012. Cross-resistance between biocides and antimicrobials: an emerging question. Revue scientifique et technique (International Office of Epizootics), 31 (1): 89–104.

Deng W, Quan Y, Yang S, Guo L, Zhang X, Liu S, Chen S, Zhou K, He L, Li B, Gu Y, Zhao S, Zou L. 2018. Antibiotic Resistance in *Salmonella* from Retail Foods of Animal Origin and Its Association with Disinfectant and Heavy Metal Resistance. Microbial drug resistance (Larchmont, N.Y.), 24 (6): 782–791. DOI 10.1089/mdr.2017.0127.

Denyer SP. 1995. Mechanisms of Action of Antibacterial Biocides.

Desin TS, Köster W, Potter AA. 2013. *Salmonella* vaccines in poultry: past, present and future. Expert review of vaccines, 12 (1): 87–96. DOI 10.1586/erv.12.138.

Drauch V, Ibesich C, Vogl C, Hess M, Hess C. 2020. In-vitro testing of bacteriostatic and bactericidal efficacy of commercial disinfectants against *Salmonella Infantis* reveals substantial differences between products and bacterial strains. International journal of food microbiology, 328: 108660. DOI 10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2020.108660.

Drauch V, Kornschober C, Palmieri N, Hess M, Hess C. 2021. Infection dynamics of *Salmonella Infantis* strains displaying different genetic backgrounds - with or without pESI-like plasmid - vary considerably. Emerging microbes & infections, 10 (1): 1471–1480. DOI 10.1080/22221751.2021.1951124.

Du Z, Nandakumar R, Nickerson KW, Li X. 2015. Proteomic adaptations to starvation prepare *Escherichia coli* for disinfection tolerance. Water research, 69: 110–119. DOI 10.1016/j.watres.2014.11.016.

Evangelopoulou G, Kritas S, Govaris A, Burriel AR. 2013. Animal salmonelloses: a brief review of "host adaptation and host specificity" of *Salmonella spp.* Veterinary World, 6 (10): 703–708. DOI 10.14202/vetworld.2013.703-708.

Ewing WH. 1972. The nomenclature of *Salmonella*, its usage, and definitions for the three species. Canadian journal of microbiology, 18 (11): 1629–1637. DOI 10.1139/m72-252.

Ewing WH, Ball MM, Bartes SF, McWhorter AC. 1970. The biochemical reactions of certain species and bioserotypes of *Salmonella*. The Journal of infectious diseases, 121 (3): 288–294. DOI 10.1093/infdis/121.3.288.

Ferrari RG, Rosario DKA, Cunha-Neto A, Mano SB, Figueiredo EES, Conte-Junior CA. 2019. Worldwide Epidemiology of *Salmonella* Serovars in Animal-Based Foods: a Meta-analysis. Applied and environmental microbiology, 85 (14). DOI 10.1128/AEM.00591-19.

Fuche FJ, Sow O, Simon R, Tennant SM. 2016. *Salmonella* Serogroup C: Current Status of Vaccines and Why They Are Needed. Clinical and vaccine immunology : CVI, 23 (9): 737–745. DOI 10.1128/CVI.00243-16.

Gal-Mor O, Valinsky L, Weinberger M, Guy S, Jaffe J, Schorr YI, Raisfeld A, Agmon V, Nissan I. 2010. Multidrug-resistant *Salmonella* enterica serovar Infantis, Israel. Emerging infectious diseases, 16 (11): 1754–1757. DOI 10.3201/eid1611.100100.

Gantois I, Ducatelle R, Timbermont L, Boyen F, Bohez L, Haesebrouck F, Pasmans F, van Immerseel F. 2006. Oral immunisation of laying hens with the live vaccine strains of TAD Salmonella vac E and TAD Salmonella vac T reduces internal egg contamination with *Salmonella Enteritidis*. Vaccine, 24 (37-39): 6250–6255. DOI 10.1016/j.vaccine.2006.05.070.

Gantzhorn MR, Pedersen K, Olsen JE, Thomsen LE. 2014. Biocide and antibiotic susceptibility of *Salmonella* isolates obtained before and after cleaning at six Danish pig slaughterhouses. International journal of food microbiology, 181: 53–59. DOI 10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2014.04.021.

Gerlach RG, Hensel M. 2007. *Salmonella* pathogenicity islands in host specificity, host pathogen-interactions and antibiotics resistance of *Salmonella enterica*. Berliner und Munchener tierarztliche Wochenschrift, 120 (7-8): 317–327.

Gilbert P, Allison DG, McBain AJ. 2002. Biofilms in vitro and in vivo: do singular mechanisms imply cross-resistance? Symposium series (Society for Applied Microbiology), (31): 98S-110S.

Gnanadhas DP, Marathe SA, Chakravortty D. 2013. Biocides--resistance, cross-resistance mechanisms and assessment. Expert opinion on investigational drugs, 22 (2): 191–206. DOI 10.1517/13543784.2013.748035.

GRIMONT P, Weill F-X. 2007. Antigenetic formulae of the *Salmonella* Serovars. (9th ed.) Paris: WHO Collaborating Centre for Reference and Research on Salmonella.

Groves PJ, Sharpe SM, Muir WI, Pavic A, Cox JM. 2016. Live and inactivated vaccine regimens against caecal *Salmonella Typhimurium* colonisation in laying hens. Australian veterinary journal, 94 (10): 387–393. DOI 10.1111/avj.12490.

Guérin A, Bridier A, Le Grandois P, Sévellec Y, Palma F, Félix B, Listadapt SG, Roussel S, Soumet C. 2021. Exposure to Quaternary Ammonium Compounds Selects Resistance to Ciprofloxacin in *Listeria monocytogenes*. Pathogens (Basel, Switzerland), 10 (2). DOI 10.3390/pathogens10020220.

Hanlon GW. 2007. Bacteriophages: an appraisal of their role in the treatment of bacterial infections. International journal of antimicrobial agents, 30 (2): 118–128. DOI 10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2007.04.006.

Häussler S, Ziesing S, Rademacher G, Hoy L, Weissbrodt H. 2003. Evaluation of the Merlin, Micronaut system for automated antimicrobial susceptibility testing of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Burkholderia* species isolated from cystic fibrosis patients. European journal of clinical microbiology & infectious diseases : official publication of the European Society of Clinical Microbiology, 22 (8): 496–500. DOI 10.1007/s10096-003-0974-7.

Hensel M. 2004. Evolution of pathogenicity islands of *Salmonella enterica*. International journal of medical microbiology : IJMM, 294 (2-3): 95–102. DOI 10.1016/j.ijmm.2004.06.025.

Hernández A, Ruiz FM, Romero A, Martínez JL. 2011. The binding of triclosan to SmeT, the repressor of the multidrug efflux pump SmeDEF, induces antibiotic resistance in *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia*. PLoS pathogens, 7 (6): e1002103. DOI 10.1371/journal.ppat.1002103.

Hernández-Navarrete M-J, Celorrio-Pascual J-M, Lapresta Moros C, Solano Bernad V-M. 2014. Fundamentos de antisepsia, desinfección y esterilización. Enfermedades infecciosas y microbiologia clinica, 32 (10): 681–688. DOI 10.1016/j.eimc.2014.04.003.

Høiby N, Bjarnsholt T, Givskov M, Molin S, Ciofu O. 2010. Antibiotic resistance of bacterial biofilms. International journal of antimicrobial agents, 35 (4): 322–332. DOI 10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2009.12.011.

Hotes S, Traulsen I, Krieter J. 2011. *Salmonella* control measures with special focus on vaccination and logistic slaughter procedures. Transboundary and emerging diseases, 58 (5): 434–444. DOI 10.1111/j.1865-1682.2011.01226.x.

Iwabuchi E, Maruyama N, Hara A, Nishimura M, Muramatsu M, Ochiai T, Hirai K. 2010. Nationwide survey of *Salmonella* prevalence in environmental dust from layer farms in Japan. Journal of food protection, 73 (11): 1993–2000. DOI 10.4315/0362-028x-73.11.1993.

Johansson MHK, Bortolaia V, Tansirichaiya S, Aarestrup FM, Roberts AP, Petersen TN. 2021. Detection of mobile genetic elements associated with antibiotic resistance in *Salmonella enterica* using a newly developed web tool: MobileElementFinder. Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy, 76 (1): 101–109. DOI 10.1093/jac/dkaa390.

Karatzas KAG, Randall LP, Webber M, Piddock LJV, Humphrey TJ, Woodward MJ, Coldham NG. 2008. Phenotypic and proteomic characterization of multiply antibiotic-resistant variants of *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium selected following exposure to disinfectants. Applied and environmental microbiology, 74 (5): 1508–1516. DOI 10.1128/AEM.01931-07.

Karatzas KAG, Webber MA, Jorgensen F, Woodward MJ, Piddock LJV, Humphrey TJ. 2007. Prolonged treatment of *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium with commercial disinfectants selects for multiple antibiotic resistance, increased efflux and reduced invasiveness. The Journal of antimicrobial chemotherapy, 60 (5): 947–955. DOI 10.1093/jac/dkm314.

Kingsley RA, Bäumler AJ. 2000. Host adaptation and the emergence of infectious disease: the *Salmonella* paradigm. Molecular microbiology, 36 (5): 1006–1014. DOI 10.1046/j.1365-2958.2000.01907.x.

Kode D, Nannapaneni R, Chang S. 2021. Low-Level Tolerance to Antibiotic Trimethoprim in QAC-Adapted Subpopulations of *Listeria monocytogenes*. Foods (Basel, Switzerland), 10 (8). DOI 10.3390/foods10081800.

Kutateladze M, Adamia R. 2010. Bacteriophages as potential new therapeutics to replace or supplement antibiotics. Trends in biotechnology, 28 (12): 591–595. DOI 10.1016/j.tibtech.2010.08.001.

Kutter E, Sulakvelidze A. 2005. Bacteriophages. Biology and applications. Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press, 510.

Lambert G, Kussell E. 2015. Quantifying selective pressures driving bacterial evolution using lineage analysis. Physical review. X, 5 (1). DOI 10.1103/PhysRevX.5.011016.

Lan R, Reeves PR, Octavia S. 2009. Population structure, origins and evolution of major *Salmonella enterica* clones. Infection, genetics and evolution : journal of molecular epidemiology and evolutionary genetics in infectious diseases, 9 (5): 996–1005. DOI 10.1016/j.meegid.2009.04.011.

Lawrence JG. 2005. Common themes in the genome strategies of pathogens. Current opinion in genetics & development, 15 (6): 584–588. DOI 10.1016/j.gde.2005.09.007.

Le Minor L, Popoff MY. 1987. Designation of *Salmonella enterica* sp. nov., nom. rev., as the Type and Only Species of the Genus Salmonella: Request for an Opinion. International Journal of Systematic Bacteriology, 37 (4): 465–468. DOI 10.1099/00207713-37-4-465.

Lee WWY, Mattock J, Greig DR, Langridge GC, Baker D, Bloomfield S, Mather AE, Wain JR, Edwards AM, Hartman H, Dallman TJ, Chattaway MA, Nair S. 2021. Characterization of a pESI-like plasmid and analysis of multidrug-resistant *Salmonella enterica Infantis* isolates in England and Wales. Microbial genomics, 7 (10). DOI 10.1099/mgen.0.000658.

Liu D, Hrsg. 2010. Molecular detection of foodborne pathogens. Boca Raton, Fla.: CRC Press, 879.

Lomovskaya O, Bostian KA. 2006. Practical applications and feasibility of efflux pump inhibitors in the clinic--a vision for applied use. Biochemical pharmacology, 71 (7): 910–918. DOI 10.1016/j.bcp.2005.12.008.

Lowbury EJL. 1951. Contamination of cetrimide and other fluids with *Pseudomonas pyocyanea*. British Journal of Industrial Medicine, 8 (1): 22–25. DOI 10.1136/oem.8.1.22.

MacLennan CA, Martin LB, Micoli F. 2014. Vaccines against invasive *Salmonella* disease: current status and future directions. Human vaccines & immunotherapeutics, 10 (6): 1478–1493. DOI 10.4161/hv.29054.

Maura D, Debarbieux L. 2011. Bacteriophages as twenty-first century antibacterial tools for food and medicine. Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology, 90 (3): 851–859. DOI 10.1007/s00253-011-3227-1.

McDonnell G, Russell AD. 1999. Antiseptics and disinfectants: activity, action, and resistance. Clinical microbiology reviews, 12 (1): 147–179. DOI 10.1128/CMR.12.1.147.

Merchel Piovesan Pereira B, Adil Salim M, Rai N, Tagkopoulos I. 2021. Tolerance to Glutaraldehyde in *Escherichia coli* Mediated by Overexpression of the Aldehyde Reductase YqhD by YqhC. Frontiers in microbiology, 12: 680553. DOI 10.3389/fmicb.2021.680553.

Mohr KI. 2016. History of Antibiotics Research. Current topics in microbiology and immunology, 398: 237–272. DOI 10.1007/82_2016_499.

Moreno Switt AI, Bakker HC den, Cummings CA, Rodriguez-Rivera LD, Govoni G, Raneiri ML, Degoricija L, Brown S, Hoelzer K, Peters JE, Bolchacova E, Furtado MR, Wiedmann M. 2012. Identification and characterization of novel Salmonella mobile elements involved in the dissemination of genes linked to virulence and transmission. PloS one, 7 (7): e41247. DOI 10.1371/journal.pone.0041247.

Nagy T, Szmolka A, Wilk T, Kiss J, Szabó M, Pászti J, Nagy B, Olasz F. 2020. Comparative Genome Analysis of Hungarian and Global Strains of *Salmonella Infantis*. Frontiers in microbiology, 11: 539. DOI 10.3389/fmicb.2020.00539.

Nikaido H. 1994. Prevention of drug access to bacterial targets: permeability barriers and active efflux. Science (New York, N.Y.), 264 (5157): 382–388. DOI 10.1126/science.8153625.

Nikaido H, Pagès J-M. 2012. Broad-specificity efflux pumps and their role in multidrug resistance of Gram-negative bacteria. FEMS microbiology reviews, 36 (2): 340–363. DOI 10.1111/j.1574-6976.2011.00290.x.

Nishino K, Yamasaki S, Nakashima R, Zwama M, Hayashi-Nishino M. 2021. Function and Inhibitory Mechanisms of Multidrug Efflux Pumps. Frontiers in microbiology, 12: 737288. DOI 10.3389/fmicb.2021.737288.

Pagès J-M, Amaral L. 2009. Mechanisms of drug efflux and strategies to combat them: challenging the efflux pump of Gram-negative bacteria. Biochimica et biophysica acta, 1794 (5): 826–833. DOI 10.1016/j.bbapap.2008.12.011.

Pietsch M, Simon S, Meinen A, Trost E, Banerji S, Pfeifer Y, Flieger A. 2021. Third generation cephalosporin resistance in clinical non-typhoidal *Salmonella enterica* in Germany and emergence of blaCTX-M-harbouring pESI plasmids. Microbial genomics, 7 (10). DOI 10.1099/mgen.0.000698.

Popoff MY, Bockemühl J, Brenner FW. 2000. Supplement 1999 (no. 43) to the Kauffmann-White scheme. Research in Microbiology, 151 (10): 893–896. DOI 10.1016/S0923-2508(00)01157-8.

Popoff MY, Bockemühl J, Hickman-Brenner FW. 1997. Supplément 1996 (no. 40) to the Kauffmann-White scheme. Research in Microbiology, 148 (9): 811–814. DOI 10.1016/S0923-2508(97)82457-6.

Pschyrembel W, Hrsg. 2013. Pschyrembel Klinisches Wörterbuch. Twenty-sixthfifth., überarb. Aufl. Berlin: De Gruyter.

QGV Österreichische Qualitätsgeflügelvereinigung. 20/09/2021. https://www.qgv.at/veterinaer/impfungen/ (accessed Aug 27, 2022).

Randall LP, Cooles SW, Coldham NG, Penuela EG, Mott AC, Woodward MJ, Piddock LJV, Webber MA. 2007. Commonly used farm disinfectants can select for mutant *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium with decreased susceptibility to biocides and antibiotics without compromising virulence. The Journal of antimicrobial chemotherapy, 60 (6): 1273–1280. DOI 10.1093/jac/dkm359.

26/08/2022.

https://www.ris.bka.gv.at/GeltendeFassung.wxe?Abfrage=Bundesnormen&Gesetzesnummer =20005323 (accessed Aug 26, 2022).

27/08/2022.

https://www.ris.bka.gv.at/GeltendeFassung.wxe?Abfrage=Bundesnormen&Gesetzesnummer =20004373 (accessed Aug 27, 2022).

Roedel A, Vincze S, Projahn M, Roesler U, Robé C, Hammerl JA, Noll M, Al Dahouk S, Dieckmann R. 2021. Genetic but No Phenotypic Associations between Biocide Tolerance and Antibiotic Resistance in *Escherichia coli* from German Broiler Fattening Farms. Microorganisms, 9 (3). DOI 10.3390/microorganisms9030651.

Russell AD. 2002. Antibiotic and biocide resistance in bacteria: Introduction. Journal of applied microbiology, 92: 1S-3S. DOI 10.1046/j.1365-2672.92.5s1.14.x.

Sarma DK. 2008. A text book of veterinary bacteriology and bacterial diseases. Second., revised ed., 314.

Seaman PF, Ochs D, Day MJ. 2007. Small-colony variants: a novel mechanism for triclosan resistance in methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. The Journal of antimicrobial chemotherapy, 59 (1): 43–50. DOI 10.1093/jac/dkl450.

Siegmann O, Neumann U, Hrsg. 2012. Kompendium der Geflügelkrankheiten. Seventh., überarbeitete Auflage. Hannover: Schlütersche, 407.

Sommer D, Enderlein D, Antakli A, Schönenbrücher H, Slaghuis J, Redmann T, Lierz M. 2012. Salmonella detection in poultry samples. Comparison of two commercial real-time PCR systems with culture methods for the detection of *Salmonella spp.* in environmental and fecal samples of poultry. Tierarztliche Praxis. Ausgabe G, Grosstiere/Nutztiere, 40 (6): 383–389.

Soto SM. 2013. Role of efflux pumps in the antibiotic resistance of bacteria embedded in a biofilm. Virulence, 4 (3): 223–229. DOI 10.4161/viru.23724.

Soumet C, Méheust D, Pissavin C, Le Grandois P, Frémaux B, Feurer C, Le Roux A, Denis M, Maris P. 2016. Reduced susceptibilities to biocides and resistance to antibiotics in foodassociated bacteria following exposure to quaternary ammonium compounds. Journal of applied microbiology, 121 (5): 1275–1281. DOI 10.1111/jam.13247.

Stevens MP, Kingsley RA. 2021. *Salmonella* pathogenesis and host-adaptation in farmed animals. Current opinion in microbiology, 63: 52–58. DOI 10.1016/j.mib.2021.05.013.

Suez J, Porwollik S, Dagan A, Marzel A, Schorr YI, Desai PT, Agmon V, McClelland M, Rahav G, Gal-Mor O. 2013. Virulence gene profiling and pathogenicity characterization of non-typhoidal *Salmonella* accounted for invasive disease in humans. PloS one, 8 (3): e58449. DOI 10.1371/journal.pone.0058449.

Tabak M, Scher K, Hartog E, Romling U, Matthews KR, Chikindas ML, Yaron S. 2007. Effect of triclosan on *Salmonella typhimurium* at different growth stages and in biofilms. FEMS microbiology letters, 267 (2): 200–206. DOI 10.1111/j.1574-6968.2006.00547.x.

Tanner JR, Kingsley RA. 2018. Evolution of *Salmonella* within Hosts. Trends in Microbiology, 26 (12): 986–998. DOI 10.1016/j.tim.2018.06.001.

2021. The European Union One Health 2019 Zoonoses Report. EFSA journal. European Food Safety Authority, 19 (2): e06406. DOI 10.2903/j.efsa.2021.6406.

Vázquez-Laslop N, Mankin AS. 2018. How Macrolide Antibiotics Work. Trends in biochemical sciences, 43 (9): 668–684. DOI 10.1016/j.tibs.2018.06.011.

Venkatesan N, Perumal G, Doble M. 2015. Bacterial resistance in biofilm-associated bacteria. Future microbiology, 10 (11): 1743–1750. DOI 10.2217/fmb.15.69.

Webber MA, Randall LP, Cooles S, Woodward MJ, Piddock LJV. 2008. Triclosan resistance in *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium. The Journal of antimicrobial chemotherapy, 62 (1): 83–91. DOI 10.1093/jac/dkn137.

Webber MA, Whitehead RN, Mount M, Loman NJ, Pallen MJ, Piddock LJV. 2015. Parallel evolutionary pathways to antibiotic resistance selected by biocide exposure. The Journal of antimicrobial chemotherapy, 70 (8): 2241–2248. DOI 10.1093/jac/dkv109.

Whitehead RN, Overton TW, Kemp CL, Webber MA. 2011. Exposure of *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium to high level biocide challenge can select multidrug resistant mutants in a single step. PloS one, 6 (7): e22833. DOI 10.1371/journal.pone.0022833.

WHO - World Health Organization. 2018. https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/salmonella-(non-typhoidal).

Woodward MJ, Gettinby G, Breslin MF, Corkish JD, Houghton S. 2002. The efficacy of Salenvac, a *Salmonella enterica subsp. Enterica serotype Enteritidis* iron-restricted bacterin vaccine, in laying chickens. Avian pathology : journal of the W.V.P.A, 31 (4): 383–392. DOI 10.1080/03079450220141660.

Wray C, Wray A. 2000. Salmonella in domestic animals. Oxford, New York: CABI Pub, 463.

Xu ZS, Yang X, Gänzle MG. 2021. Resistance of biofilm- and pellicle-embedded strains of *Escherichia coli* encoding the transmissible locus of stress tolerance (tLST) to oxidative sanitation chemicals. International journal of food microbiology, 359: 109425. DOI 10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2021.109425.

Yin B, Zhu L, Zhang Y, Dong P, Mao Y, Liang R, Niu L, Luo X. 2018. The Characterization of Biofilm Formation and Detection of Biofilm-Related Genes in *Salmonella* Isolated from Beef Processing Plants. Foodborne pathogens and disease, 15 (10): 660–667. DOI 10.1089/fpd.2018.2466.

9 List of Figures and Tables

Table 1: Strains of Salmonella Infantis
Table 2: Disinfectants used in this study 15
Table 3: MICRONAUT-S plate assignment 20
Table 4: concentrations and reference level for antibiotics used in this study
Table 5: Application of disinfectants
Table 6: Antimicrobial classes of MRS16/01939 26
Table 7: Number of single increased resistances and number of antimicrobial classes
detected for MRS16/01939 after exposure to Virkon [™] S27
Table 8: Number of single increased resistances and number of antimicrobial classes
detected for MRS16/01939 after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES28
Table 9: Antimicrobial classes of MRS17/00712 29
Table 10: Number of single increased resistances and number of antimicrobial classes
detected for MRS17/00712 after exposure to Virkon [™] S
Table 11: Antimicrobial classes of MRS17/00712 medium colony 35
Table 12: Number of single increased resistances and number of antimicrobial classes
detected for variant MRS17/00712 medium colony after exposure to Virkon [™] S36

Table 13: Number of single increased resistances and number of antimicrobial	classes
detected for variant MRS17/00712 medium colony after exposure to calgonit st	erizid
Ecokok	

Table 14: Number of single increased resistances and number of antimicrobial classesdetected for variant MRS17/00712 medium colony after exposure to calgonit sterizidP12 DES38

 Table 22: Number of single increased resistances and number of antimicrobial classes

 detected for PA19/26029 yellow after exposure to calgonit sterizid P12 DES......51

Table 23: Antimicrobial classes of PA19/26029 black	52
---	----

Table 24: Number of single increased resistances and number of antimicrobial classesdetected for PA19/26029 black after exposure to Virkon[™] S53

 Table 29: Presentation of the inhibition zone diameters (in mm) of the Agar diffusion

 test of Salmonella Infantis MRS17/00712 large colony after exposure to calgonit

 sterizid Ecokok (MIC = 0.125%) and resistance profiling and development of each

 clone according to the CLSI reference level for antibiotics (Table 4) by color coding

 compared to the parental strain MRS17/00712 large colony

Figure 1: preparation of bacterial suspension......16

Figure 2: Preparation of CFU count17
Figure 3: Macrodilution/Application of disinfectants
Figure 4: Schematic overview of the antibiotic susceptibility test setting
Figure 5: Resistance profile of MRS16/0193926
Figure 6: Resistance profile of MRS17/0071229
Figure 7: different variants of <i>Salmonella</i> Infantis strain MRS17/00712 on MacConkey Agar
Figure 8: Resistance profile of MRS17/00712 medium colony
Figure 9: Resistance profile of MRS17/00712 large colony
Figure 10: Resistance profile of MRS17/0204643
Figure 11: Resistance profile of PA19/26029 yellow46
Figure 12: Resistance profile of PA19/26029 black
Figure 13: Deviations from the parental strain MRS17/00712 in the inhibition zone diameters after exposure to Virkon [™] S. Bars above the base line represent increasing resistance as the inhibition zone diameter was decreased. Bars under the base line

Figure 14: Deviations from the parental strain MRS17/00712 medium colony in the inhibition zone diameters after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok. Bars above the base line represent increasing resistance as the inhibition zone diameter was decreased. Bars under the base line show an increased inhibition zone diameter 64

Figure 15: Deviations from the parental strain MRS17/00712 large colony in the inhibition zone diameters after exposure to calgonit sterizid Ecokok. Bars above the base line represent increasing resistance as the inhibition zone diameter was decreased. Bars under the base line show an increased inhibition zone diameter 67