

ISSN Print: 2617-4693
 ISSN Online: 2617-4707
 IJABR 2024; SP-8(6): 468-477
www.biochemjournal.com
 Received: 18-04-2024
 Accepted: 24-05-2024

Priyanka Saharan
 Department of Veterinary
 Public Health and
 Epidemiology, COVS, LUVAS,
 Hisar, Haryana, India

Smriti Sharma
 Department of Animal
 Genetics and Breeding, COVS,
 LUVAS, Hisar, Haryana,
 India

Anand Prakash
 Department of Veterinary
 Public Health and
 Epidemiology, COVS, LUVAS,
 Hisar, Haryana, India

Dinesh Mittal
 Department of Veterinary
 Public Health and
 Epidemiology, COVS, LUVAS,
 Hisar, Haryana, India

Corresponding Author:
Smriti Sharma
 Department of Animal
 Genetics and Breeding, COVS,
 LUVAS, Hisar, Haryana,
 India

Characterization of biofilm-forming *Escherichia coli* in canine urinary tract infections: Phenotypic and genotypic insights

Priyanka Saharan, Smriti Sharma, Anand Prakash and Dinesh Mittal

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.33545/26174693.2024.v8.i6Sf.1365>

Abstract

Uro-pathogenic *Escherichia coli* (UPEC) is responsible for causing urinary tract infections in canines. The capacity to form biofilms and employ diverse virulence factors enables UPEC to endure within the uroepithelium, causing chronic and persistent infections. Unintended antimicrobial usage, whether for therapeutic purposes or otherwise, exposes bacterial pathogens to varying concentrations of antimicrobial drugs, promoting the emergence and proliferation of resistant bacteria. To characterize UPEC from urinary tract infections, samples (n=51) were collected and subjected to microbial isolation using MacConkey Lactose agar (MLA) and Eosin Methylene Blue agar (EMB), which led to the isolation of 19 *E. coli* isolates, confirmed using *uspA* gene amplification. These isolates were characterized using a set of three virulence genes namely *aer*, *pap* and *cnf1*. Furthermore, all the 19 isolates were subjected to microtiter plate assay for biofilm detection and the result showed that biofilm formation was observed in both LB and TSB media and at 72h incubation time indicated that in LB media, 2 (10.5%) isolates were strong biofilm producers, 3 (15.7%) isolates were moderate biofilm producers, 7 (36.8%) isolates were weak biofilm producers and 7 (36.8%) isolates had not produced any biofilm while in TSB media (72h), 4 (21%) isolates were strong biofilm producers, 9 (47.3%) isolates were moderate biofilm producers, 3 (15.7%) isolates were weak biofilm producers and 3 (15.7%) isolates had not produced any biofilm. Antimicrobial sensitivity test using Bauer-Kirby revealed that isolates were found maximum resistant to Cephalexin, Ciprofloxacin, Metronidazole, Ampicillin, Penicillin G, Tetracycline while susceptible to Chloramphenicol, Co-trimoxazole, Imipenem, Meropenem, Gentamicin and Amikacin. This study demonstrates the presence of UPEC capable of forming biofilms in canines suffering from urinary tract infections. Further research is essential to elucidate the role of biofilms in the pathogenesis of UPEC and their implications for antimicrobial resistance.

Keywords: Dogs, *Escherichia coli*, urinary tract infections, virulence genes, biofilm

Introduction

The bond between dogs and human's dates back to ancient times, with dogs continuing to be the most valued companion animals for people today. Among all infectious diseases that affect dogs, urinary tract infections (UTIs), which include conditions such as cystitis and pyelonephritis, are the most prevalent (Farshad *et al.*, 2012; Xia *et al.*, 2011) ^[11, 56]. On average, 14% of dogs will experience a urinary tract infection (UTI) at some point in their lives (Thompson *et al.*, 2011) ^[52]. *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) is the leading cause of urinary tract infections (UTIs) in dogs, being isolated in over 80% of cases (Hilbert *et al.*, 2008; Thompson *et al.*, 2011) ^[18, 52]. *E. coli* strains that cause urinary tract infections (UTIs) are commonly referred to as uropathogenic *E. coli* (UPEC). These strains contain additional genetic material encoding various virulence genes, which are linked to severe or recurrent UTIs (Agarwal *et al.*, 2013) ^[1]. Adhesins, which are surface virulence factors, are among the most significant virulence elements of uropathogenic *E. coli* (UPEC) (Nicole, 2008) ^[32]. Aerobactin, a low molecular weight siderophore encoded by the *aer* gene, exhibits strong Fe³⁺ binding capability in acidic conditions. Moreover, aerobactin production is enhanced in low pH environments (Tóth *et al.*, 2003; Hagberg *et al.*, 1981) ^[53, 16]. This siderophore scavenges Fe³⁺ from host iron-binding proteins and is internalized via an outer membrane TonB receptor protein (Tóth *et al.*, 2003) ^[53].

The *pap* operon encodes P fimbriae, which allow uropathogenic *E. coli* (UPEC) to penetrate the epithelial barrier and enter the bloodstream, leading to the hemagglutination of erythrocytes (Riegman *et al.*, 1988) [40]. These fimbriae play a crucial role in the pathophysiology of pyelonephritis, as they enhance the early colonization of the tubular epithelium. Cytotoxic necrotizing factor 1 (*CNFI*), encoded by the *cnfI* gene, stimulates the formation of actin stress fibers and membrane ruffles in a Rho GTPase-dependent manner. This mechanism aids uropathogenic *E. coli* (UPEC) in entering the host's urinary tract cells (Connell *et al.*, 1996) [3]. UPEC strains associated with pyelonephritis and kidney invasion typically carry the *cnfI* virulence factor. This factor can lead to the exfoliation of bladder cells, facilitating the deeper invasion of UPEC into the underlying tissues of the urinary tract (Hultgren *et al.*, 1985; Hagberg *et al.*, 1983) [19, 15].

The capacity to form biofilms and employ various virulence factors enables Uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* (UPEC) to persist within the uroepithelium, leading to chronic and persistent infections (Terlizzi *et al.*, 2017) [51]. Biofilms consist of a sessile community of microbial cells that are firmly attached to surfaces or to each other, embedded in an extracellular matrix primarily composed of polysaccharides secreted by the bacteria (Donlan *et al.*, 2002) [7]. The collective behavior of bacteria within biofilms optimizes nutrient utilization and enhances resistance to host defenses and antimicrobial agents compared to planktonic cells (Kostakioti *et al.*, 2013) [23]. Additionally, bacteria within biofilms secrete a variety of antibiotic-inactivating enzymes, such as beta-lactamases, which further contribute to their resilience against antibiotic treatments.

The molecular characterization of *E. coli* virulence genes associated with UTIs in dogs has been extensively studied worldwide. However, there is relatively limited documented information on *E. coli* virulence genes and biofilm formation associated with UTIs in dogs specifically in India. Therefore, the present study aims to investigate the correlation between virulence genes, biofilm formation, and antibiotic resistance.

Materials and Methods

Sample and data collection

The present study was carried out in canines suspected to be suffering from urinary tract infections, admitted to Veterinary Clinical Complex (VCC), Lala Lajpat Rai University of Veterinary and Animal Sciences (LUVAS), Hisar. Dogs of varying ages, sexes, and breeds exhibiting clinical signs such as anorexia, urine dribbling, urinary retention, straining during urination, scant urine output, cloudy urine, increased water intake, frequent urination, excessive licking of the urinary opening, hematuria, lethargy, fever, proteinuria, painful urination, foul-smelling urine, and back arching (Indicative of cystitis) were diagnosed with urinary tract infections (UTIs). A total of 51 urine samples were aseptically collected in sterile containers, and information regarding the dogs' UTI symptoms was obtained through a self-designed questionnaire. Samples were promptly chilled and processed in the laboratory on the same day of collection.

Isolation and identification of *E. coli*

Aseptically collected fresh urine samples were inoculated and streaked onto 5% sheep blood agar (BA) and MacConkey lactose agar (MLA) plates using a 4 mm diameter platinum loop. The plates were then aerobically incubated at 37 °C for 24–48 hours.

Colonies displaying typical pink coloration indicative of fermentation on MLA plates were selected and subjected to Gram staining to identify other bacterial isolates. Subsequently, these colonies were purified by re-streaking on MLA and then plated on Eosin Methylene Blue (EMB) agar. Following another 24-hour incubation at 37 °C, bacterial colonies exhibiting pink to red fermentation on MLA and purple-bluish precipitation on EMB, with or without a metallic sheen, were tentatively identified as *E. coli* and assigned isolate numbers accordingly.

The identification of these *E. coli* isolates was confirmed using the Vitek 2 Compact system. Gram-negative (GN) reagent cards were employed for the identification of *E. coli*, following the manufacturer's recommendations and the method outlined in a previous study (Mittal *et al.*, 2014) [28].

PCR amplification for *E. coli*: The genomic DNA extraction from *E. coli* isolates confirmed by Vitek 2 was performed using a heat lysis/snap-chill method (Englen and Kelley, 2000) [9]. Briefly, 2–3 pure bacterial colonies were suspended in 150 µl of nuclease-free water, heated in a dry bath for 10 minutes, and immediately snap-chilled on ice for 5 minutes. After centrifugation at 8,000×g, the supernatant containing DNA was collected and stored at -20 °C for further use. Genomic DNA from ATCC 25922 served as a positive control for *E. coli*. PCR amplification targeted the universal stress protein (*uspA* gene) using specific primer pairs. PCR reactions were conducted in 25 µl volumes in an Applied Biosystems thermocycler under the following conditions: initial denaturation at 95 °C for 2 minutes; followed by 30 cycles of denaturation at 94 °C for 30 seconds, annealing at 58 °C for 1 minute, extension at 72 °C for 1 minute; final extension at 72 °C for 5 minutes, followed by a hold at 4 °C. The amplified PCR products were analyzed by agarose gel electrophoresis at a constant voltage of 90V using 2% agarose in TRIS acetate EDTA buffer (TAE) stained with 0.5 µl/ml ethidium bromide. Subsequently, the amplified products were visualized under UV transillumination using a gel documentation system.

UPEC characterization

PCR primers targeting virulence genes specific to Uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* (UPEC) were employed to detect three virulence genes (Table 1). Each PCR assay was conducted separately for the *aer*, *pap*, and *cnfI* genes in a total volume of 25 µl, consisting of 12.5 µl Master Mix (2x), 3 µl DNA template, 1 µl forward primer, 1 µl reverse primer, and 7.5 µl nuclease-free water. The amplification conditions are detailed in Table 2.

The amplified PCR products underwent analysis by agarose gel electrophoresis using 2% agarose in Tris-acetate EDTA buffer (TAE), stained with 0.5 µl/ml ethidium bromide, at a constant 80V. Subsequently, the products were visualized using UV transillumination in a gel documentation system.

Table 1: Primer pairs used for characterization of *E. coli* virulence genes

Target Genes	Primer sequence (5'-3')	Amplified Product (bp)	Reference
<i>aer</i>	F: TACCGGATTGTCATATGCAGACCGT R: AATATCTTCCTCCAGTCCGGAGAAAG	602	Herrero <i>et al.</i> , 1988 [17]
<i>pap</i>	F: GCAACAGCAACGCTGGTTGCATCAT R: GAGAGAGCCACTCTTATACGGACA	336	Yamamoto <i>et al.</i> , 1995 [57]
<i>cnfI</i>	F: AAGATGGAGTTTCCTATGCAGGAG R: CATTGAGAGTCTGCCCTCATTATT	498	Falbo <i>et al.</i> , 1992 [10]

Table 2: PCR timetable program for *aer*, *pap* and *cnfI* genes in UPEC strain

Genes	Initial denaturation	Denaturation	Annealing	Extension	Final cycle of extension
<i>aer</i>					
Time	3m	1m	1m	1m	7m
Temperature	94 °C	94 °C	59 °C	72 °C	72 °C
No. of cycle	1	35	35	35	1
<i>pap</i>					
Time	5m	1m	1m	1m	7m
Temperature	94 °C	94 °C	60 °C	72 °C	72 °C
No. of cycle	1	35	35	35	1
<i>CnfI</i>					
Time	5m	1m	1m	1m	7m
Temperature	94 °C	94 °C	56 °C	72 °C	72 °C
No. of cycle	1	35	35	35	1

Biofilm formation and quantification

To assess the biofilm-forming ability of *E. coli* isolates, biofilm formation and quantification were performed in 96-well polystyrene microtiter plates according to methods described by Skyberg *et al.* (2006) [47] and Grakh *et al.* (2019) [14]. Initially, *E. coli* colonies were inoculated into 5 ml of Luria-Bertani (LB) broth and incubated overnight at 37 °C. The overnight culture turbidity was adjusted to OD 600 = 0.05 in both Tryptic Soy Broth (TSB) and LB broth separately. Next, 200 µl aliquots of these dilutions were dispensed into triplicate wells of a microtiter plate and incubated at 37 °C for 72 hours. After incubation, the contents of the plates were discarded, and the plates were washed with sterile double distilled water. The washed plates were then stained with 200 µl of 0.1% Crystal Violet solution for 30 minutes. Subsequently, the microtiter plates were washed three times with sterile double distilled water to remove excess stain, followed by air-drying for 30 minutes. To resolubilize adherent cells, 250 µl of a solution containing ethanol and acetone (80:20) was added to each well. A volume of 150 µl of the resolubilized solution was transferred to a new microtiter plate, and the optical density (OD) of each well was measured at 570 nm using an automated microplate reader. Uninoculated TSB and LB broths served as negative controls, while ATCC 25922 was used as a positive control for biofilm production. All tests were performed in triplicate, and the average value of the results was recorded. The cutoff OD (OD_c) was calculated as: OD_c = average OD of negative control + 3 (SD of negative control) where, SD = Standard deviation.

Based on the OD produced by bacterial biofilms, bacterial isolates were classified into the following categories as described by Stepanovic *et al.*, 2004 [49].

OD ≤ OD_c = Isolates with no biofilm forming ability

OD_c < OD < (2 x OD_c) = Isolates with weak biofilm forming ability

(2 x OD_c) < OD ≤ (4 x OD_c) = Isolates with moderate biofilm forming ability

(4 x OD_c) < OD = Isolates with strong biofilm forming ability

Antimicrobial susceptibility testing

The *in vitro* drug sensitivity testing of *E. coli* isolates was conducted following the Clinical Laboratory Standards Institute guidelines (CLSI) and Bauer-Kirby method (Bauer *et al.*, 1966) [60], using commercially prepared antibiotic discs (Hi-media, India) with predetermined concentrations. The diameter of the inhibition zones was measured in millimeters using a ruler. In this study, the following 24 antibiotics utilized against *E. coli* pathogens included Amikacin (AK 30), Amoxicillin (AMX 30), Amoxiclav (AMC 50/10), Ampicillin (AMP 10), Cephalothin (CF 22), Ceftizoxime (CZX 30), Ceftriaxone/sulbactam (CIS 30/15), Cephalexin (CN 30), Chloramphenicol (C30), Ciprofloxacin (CIP 10), Co-trimoxazole (COT 25), Doxycycline (DO 30), Enrofloxacin (EX 10), Gentamicin (GEN 10), Imipenem (IPM 10), Meropenem (MRP 10), Moxifloxacin (MO 5), Metronidazole (MT 5), Norfloxacin (NX10), Ofloxacin (OF 5), Oxytetracycline (O 30), Penicillin G (P10), Streptomycin (S 10), Tetracycline (TE 30).

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis was conducted using SPSS software for Windows. Spearman's rank correlation was employed to assess the association between biofilm production in different media and the antimicrobial resistance of *E. coli* isolates. Additionally, to determine the relationship between the presence or absence of specific virulence genes and biofilm production, biofilm formation was categorized into two groups: moderate-strong biofilm and weak or no biofilm. Fischer's Exact test was applied using a 2x2 contingency table. A significance level of $p < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

Results

Out of 51 urine samples analyzed, bacterial growth was detected in 46 samples, while 5 samples showed no growth on blood agar, brain heart infusion (BHI) agar, and MacConkey lactose agar (MLA). Among the 46 isolates, 19 (37.25%) exhibited lactose-fermenting pink to red colonies on MLA and displayed a blue-green metallic sheen on Eosin-methylene blue (EMB) agar. Gram staining

confirmed these 19 isolates as gram-negative rods (Microscopic Examination). Biochemical tests indicated positive results for Indole and Methyl Red, and negative results for Voges-Proskauer and citrate utilization tests,

confirming their identification as *E. coli*. These biochemically identified *E. coli* isolates were further confirmed using PCR targeting the *uspA* gene specific to *E. coli*. (Fig.1).

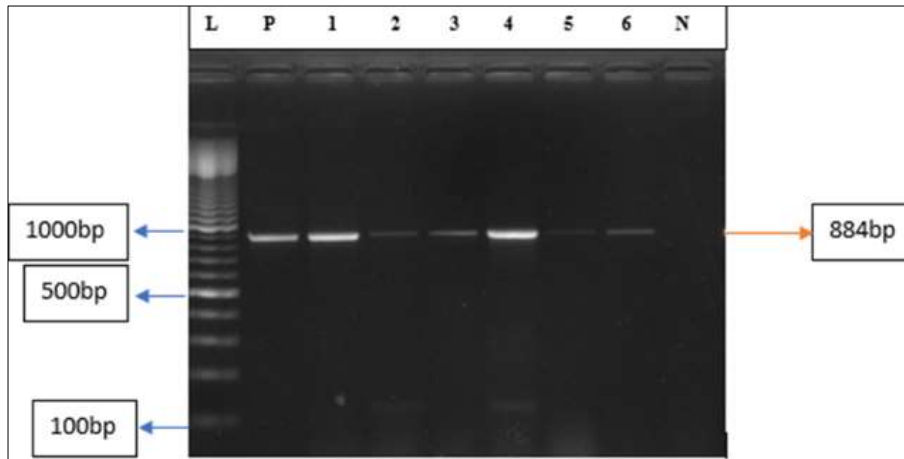


Fig 1: Agarose gel electrophoresis pattern of *uspA* specific PCR products of *E. coli* isolates. Lane L: 100 bp DNA ladder; Lane P: positive control (ATCC 25922), Lane 1-6: positive isolates (884 bp); Lane N: negative control

Characterization of UPEC using PCR

DNA extracted from colonies of confirmed *E. coli* isolates were subjected to PCR for each individual gene (*aer*, *pap* and *cnfI*) separately and distribution of these three virulence genes is shown in Fig. 2, Fig. 3 and Fig. 4. Out of 19 *E. coli*

isolates, *aer*, *pap* and *cnfI* virulent genes were isolated from 12 (63.2%), 12 (63.2%) and 10 (52.6%) samples respectively. Distribution of these virulence gene is shown using heat map in Fig.5.

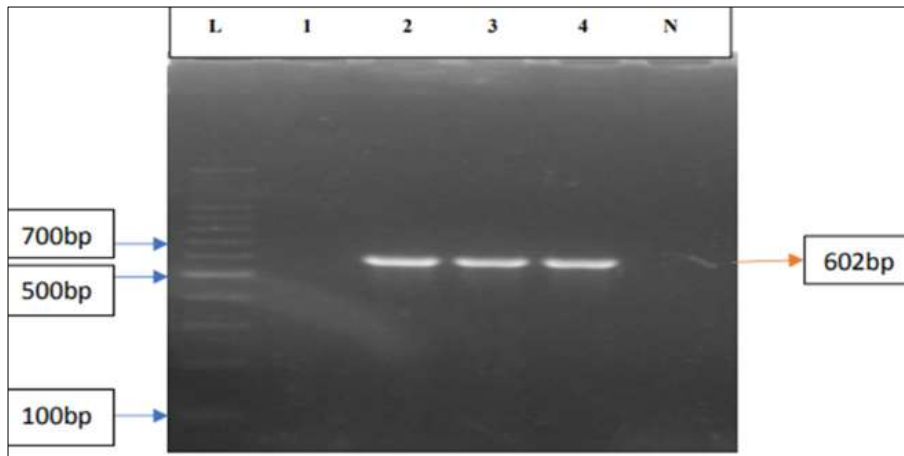


Fig 2: Agarose gel electrophoresis pattern of *aer* specific PCR products of *E. coli* isolates, Lane L: 100 bp DNA ladder, Lane 1: negative isolates, Lane 2, 3, 4: positive isolates (602 bp), Lane N: negative control

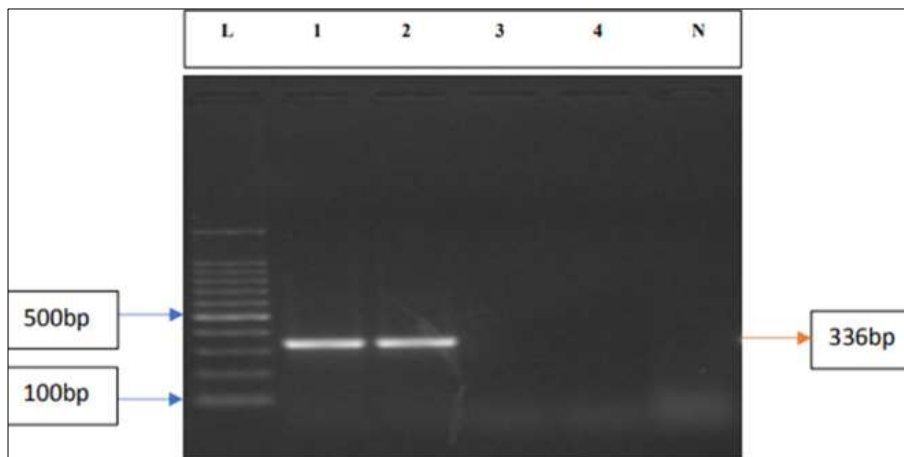


Fig 3: Agarose gel electrophoresis pattern of *pap* specific PCR products of *E. coli* isolates, Lane L: 100 bp DNA ladder, Lane 1, 2: positive isolates (336 bp), Lane 3, 4: negative isolates, Lane N: negative control

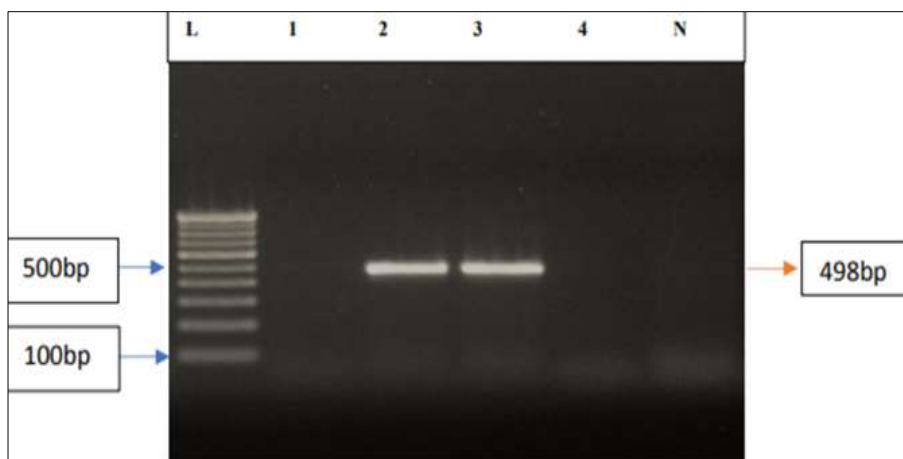


Fig 4: Agarose gel electrophoresis pattern of *cnfI* specific PCR products of *E. coli* isolates, Lane L: 100 bp DNA ladder, Lane 1, 4: negative isolates, Lane 2, 3: positive isolates (498 bp), Lane N: negative control

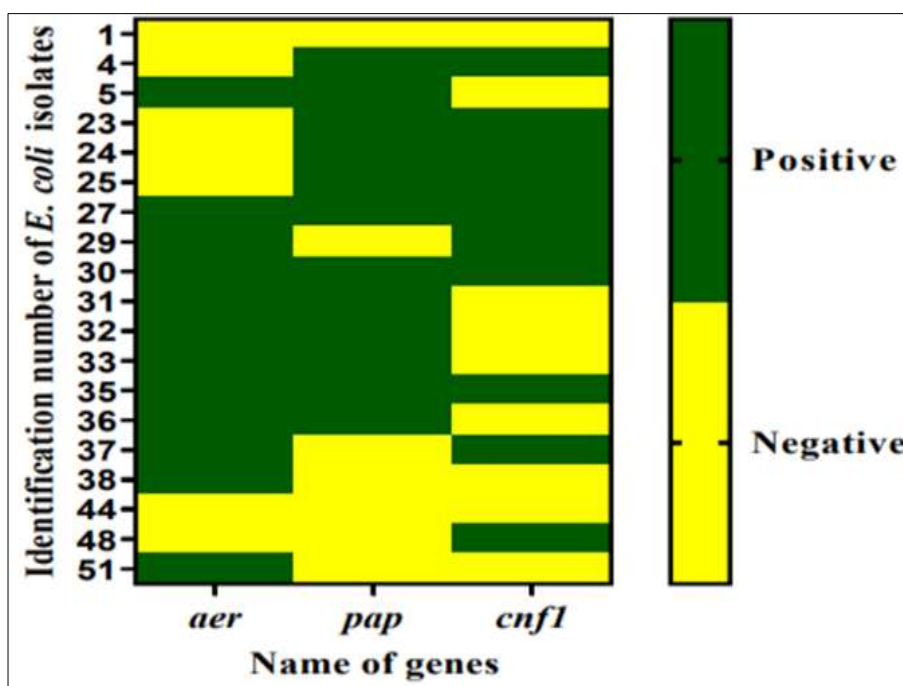


Fig 5: Distribution of virulence genes of *E. coli* isolates (n=19) (heat map)

Biofilm detection and quantification:

All 19 isolates were cultured in two different media, LB and TSB, to evaluate their ability to form biofilms after 72 hours of incubation. In LB medium, 2 isolates (10.5%) were classified as strong biofilm producers, 3 isolates (15.7%) as moderate producers, 7 isolates (36.8%) as weak producers, and 7 isolates (36.8%) did not produce any biofilm. In TSB medium, after 72 hours of incubation, 4 isolates (21%) were identified as strong biofilm producers, 9 isolates (47.3%) as moderate producers, 3 isolates (15.7%) as weak producers, and 3 isolates (15.7%) did not produce any biofilm (Table 3).

Table 3: Biofilm produced by UPEC isolates in LB and TSB media (72h)

Group	Strong (%)	Moderate (%)	Weak (%)	None (%)	Total
LB 72h	2 (10.5%)	3 (15.7%)	7 (36.8%)	7 (36.8%)	19
TSB 72h	4 (21.0%)	9 (47.4%)	3 (15.7%)	3 (15.7%)	19

Antimicrobial susceptibility testing: The result of antimicrobial susceptibility test for 19 *E. coli* isolates

indicated the maximum sensitivity towards Chloramphenicol (78.9%), Co-trimoxazole (78.9%), Imipenem (68.4%), Meropenem (63.1%), Gentamicin (57.8%) and Amikacin (52.6%) whereas maximum resistance towards Cephalexin (100%), Ciprofloxacin (100%), Metronidazole (100%), Ampicillin (100%), Penicillin G (100%), Tetracycline (100%), Cephalothin (94.7%), Enrofloxacin (94.7%), Norfloxacin (94.7%), Ofloxacin (94.7%), Doxycycline (94.7%), Oxytetracycline (89.4%), Amoxycillin (89.4%), Moxifloxacin (89.4%), Moxifloxacin (89.4%), Cefprozime (73.6%) and Ceftriaxone/sulbactam (57.8%) as shown in Fig 6.

Using ranked correlation, Biofilm formation is significantly associated ($p < 0.05$) with antimicrobial resistance. Of the two media, more significantly associated with TSB media than LB media.

Using Fisher’s exact test, non-significant relationship of *aer* and *cnfI* virulence genes with biofilm formation was found. The absence of *pap* gene found significant ($p < 0.05$) with Moderate-Strong biofilm in LB media not in TSB media.

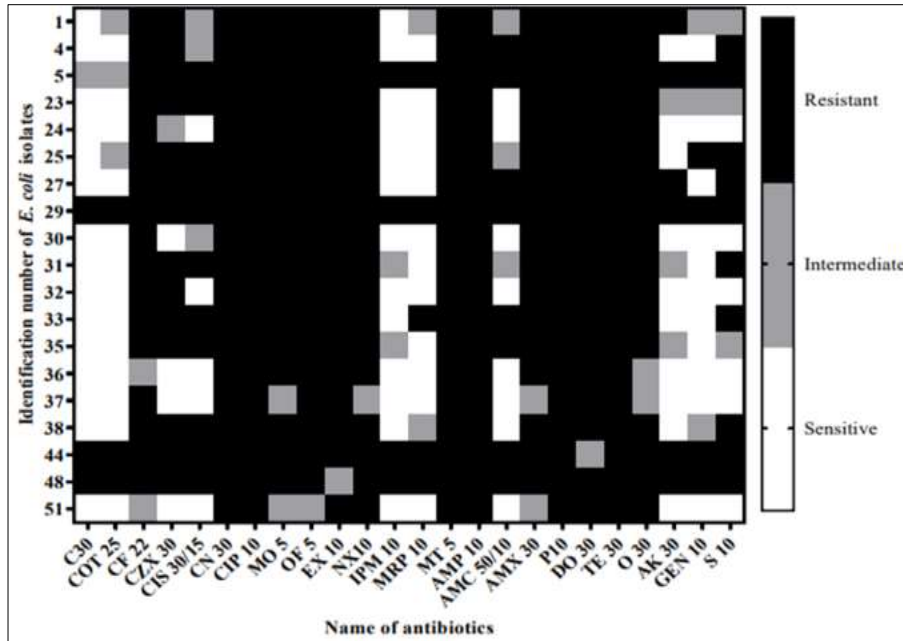


Fig 6: Antibiotic Susceptibility Pattern of *E. coli* isolated from dogs (n=19)

Discussion

Dogs and humans have shared an unparalleled bond for ages, with dogs often considered man's best companion. In dogs, urinary tract infections (UTIs) are very common and can be life-threatening if not treated promptly. *Escherichia coli* remains the most frequent pathogen causing UTIs in dogs (Johnson, 2003; Brolund, 2014) [21, 2]. Consequently, there is a pressing need for thorough investigations into Uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* (UPEC). While numerous studies on UPEC in dogs have been conducted globally and in India, significant gaps remain in our understanding of the emergence of UPEC in dogs.

In the present study, out of 51 collected samples, 19 isolates (37.2%) were identified as *E. coli* based on conventional methods such as colony morphology on MLA and EMB, and Gram staining. All 19 isolates were confirmed as *E. coli* using PCR. These findings are consistent with a study by Kuan *et al.* (2016) [24], who reported that 35.6% (146/289) of canine urine samples were positive for *E. coli*. Other studies by Qekwana *et al.* (2018) [37], Punia *et al.* (2018) [36], and Mustapha *et al.* (2020) [30] reported lower proportions of *E. coli*-positive canine urine samples, with rates of 22.3% (168/755), 22.7% (5/22), and 24.3% (25/103), respectively, in urine samples from dogs with UTIs. Conversely, higher proportions of *E. coli* in canine urine samples affected by UTIs were reported by Liu *et al.* (2017) [26] and Roopali *et al.* (2018) [12], documenting positivity rates of 60.9% (106/174) and 80.0% (8/10), respectively.

Several studies (Munkhdelger *et al.*, 2017; Tramuta *et al.*, 2014; Liu *et al.*, 2017; Siqueira *et al.*, 2009) [29, 54, 26, 46] have investigated and characterized the distribution of virulence genes associated with UTIs caused by UPEC in canines worldwide. Specifically, Mustapha *et al.* (2020) documented the distribution and characterization of seven UPEC virulence genes, namely *aer*, *pap*, *cnf1*, *cnf2*, *afa*, *sfa*, and *hly*, in the study area. In the present study, the distribution of three common UPEC genes-*aer*, *pap*, and *cnf1*-was examined. The aerobactin receptor gene, encoded by *aer*, facilitates bacterial growth in iron-limited conditions and contributes significantly to the pathogenesis of urinary tract infections, making it a crucial virulence factor for UPEC

(Mittal *et al.*, 2014) [28]. In this study, the *aer* virulence gene was detected in 63.20% of *E. coli* strains isolated from canine urinary tract infection cases. Similarly, Munkhdelger *et al.* (2017) [29] reported the presence of the *aer* gene in over 56% of *E. coli* strains from urine samples of dogs with persistent UTIs. Other studies by Drazenovich *et al.* (2004) [8], Firoozeh *et al.* (2014) [12], and Oliveira *et al.* (2014) [34] found the *aer* gene in about 30% of *E. coli* strains from dogs with UTIs. In contrast, a study by Mustapha *et al.* (2020) [30] in the same region as the present study reported an even higher prevalence (80%) of the *aer* gene in *E. coli* isolates from dogs suspected of having UTIs. These findings suggest that the prevalence of iron acquisition system genes may vary geographically, warranting further research to confirm this observation.

In uropathogenic *E. coli*, adhesion and colonization of the uroepithelium are critical processes (Siqueira *et al.*, 2009) [45]. The *pap* virulence gene is consistently associated with pyelonephritis and is essential for the pathogenesis of UPEC (Johnson, 1991; Marrs *et al.*, 2005) [20, 27]. In the current study, the *pap* gene was found in 63.20% of *E. coli* strains isolated from dogs with urinary tract infections. This finding is in line with studies by Mustapha *et al.* (2020) [30] and Oliveira *et al.* (2014) [34], which observed the *pap* gene in 56.0% and 42.4% of *E. coli* strains, respectively. Conversely, studies by Siqueira *et al.* (2009) [45] and Tramuta *et al.* (2014) [54] reported a lower prevalence of the *pap* gene, with only 23.5% and 13.4% of *E. coli* strains from dogs with UTIs testing positive for this gene.

Several studies have reported that cytotoxic necrotizing factor 1 (*CNFI*), encoded by the *cnf1* gene, is expressed by UPEC strains isolated from dogs. This virulence factor enables the bacteria to evade host defense mechanisms such as phagocytosis by the polymorphonuclear system, thus facilitating bacterial invasion into the bloodstream (Oelschlaeger *et al.*, 2002) [33]. In the present study, the *cnf1* gene was found in 52.60% of *E. coli* strains isolated from dogs with UTI symptoms. Similar findings have been reported by Johnson *et al.* (2003) [21], Drazenovich *et al.* (2004) [8], Rahman and Deka (2014) [38], and Liu *et al.* (2017) [26], who documented *cnf1* gene presence in 41%,

50%, 61.90%, and 46.90% of *E. coli* isolates from dogs with UTIs, respectively. In contrast, Mustapha *et al.* (2020) [30] found the *cnf1* gene in only 20.0% of UTI-affected *E. coli* strains. These variations suggest that the distribution of virulence genes among UPEC can vary even within the same geographical regions, underscoring the need for larger-scale studies to better define the distribution of these genes among UPEC.

Antimicrobial susceptibility pattern of the *Escherichia coli* isolates recorded in the current study demonstrated a very high level of resistance to antibiotics of class Cephalosporins (Cephalexin [100%] and Cephalothin [94.73%]); Fluoroquinolones (Ciprofloxacin [100%], Norfloxacin [94.73%] and Enrofloxacin [94.73%]); Penicillins (Ampicillin [100%] and Penicillin G [100%]) and Tetracyclines (Tetracycline [100%] and Doxycycline [94.73%]). Such high level of resistance for antibiotics commonly used for treating canine UTI can be attributed to the natural selection of *E. coli* isolates competent of evading these antibiotics through different mechanisms (Sunde and Sorum, 1999; Weese *et al.*, 2011) [50, 55]. The high levels of resistance to both newer and commonly used antibiotics observed in this study may be attributed to the fact that the samples were collected from the Veterinary Clinical Complex (VCC) hospital. As a referral hospital, VCC receives cases from numerous small animal clinics and veterinary practitioners, where dogs are often treated before being referred to VCC. Due to the lack of infrastructure at these smaller clinics, different classes of antibiotics are administered to dogs without prior laboratory assessment. Furthermore, the presence of multi-drug resistant *E. coli* in dogs poses a significant public health risk, given the zoonotic potential of *E. coli* as established by various studies. The role of livestock as a source of pathogen transmission to humans is well recognized, with food-borne exposure and direct contact being the two major means of transmission (Dechet *et al.*, 2006; Cummings *et al.*, 2012) [6, 4].

Also, studies by Sidjabat *et al.*, (2006) [44] and Platell *et al.*, (2010) [35] had established similarities between MDR strains of *E. coli* of human and animal origin and proposed that transfer of MDR *E. coli* between dogs and humans via the faecal-oral route likely had occurred.

Biofilm formation and quantification associated with canine urinary tract infections had not been previously investigated in the study area. Biofilm-forming organisms are a common cause of recurrent and complicated UTIs, and this ability is often associated with multi-drug resistant (MDR) bacteria (Flores-Mireles *et al.*, 2015) [13]. Understanding the pathogenesis of biofilm formation and the factors contributing to it is essential for developing new therapies (Romling *et al.*, 2012) [41]. This study aimed to elucidate biofilm formation among UPEC strains isolated from UTIs. In this study, biofilm formation in LB media (72h) showed that 2 (10.5%) isolates were strong biofilm producers, 3 (15.7%) were moderate biofilm producers, 7 (36.8%) were weak biofilm producers, and 7 (36.8%) did not produce any biofilm. In TSB media (72h), 4 (21%) isolates were strong biofilm producers, 9 (47.3%) were moderate biofilm producers, 3 (15.7%) were weak biofilm producers, and 3 (15.7%) did not produce any biofilm.

Zamani *et al.* (2018) [58] indicated that the majority of UPEC isolates (84%) were moderate to strong biofilm producers, while the remaining isolates either did not produce biofilm

or exhibited weak biofilm formation potential. Similarly, Katongole *et al.* (2020) [22] demonstrated that among 200 *E. coli* isolates, 125 (62.5%) were biofilm formers. These studies suggest that a significant number of UPEC isolates are capable of forming biofilms, highlighting biofilm formation as an important virulence determinant. The association between UTIs and biofilm formation ability has been previously reported, indicating its critical role (Soto *et al.*, 2007; Naves *et al.*, 2008) [48, 31]. Additionally, Grakh *et al.* (2019) [14] observed that 30 (63.8%) APEC isolates formed moderate to strong biofilms in TSB media, 25 (53.2%) in 1/20 diluted TSB media, and 9 (19.1%) in LB media. In the present study, a significant positive correlation ($p < 0.05$) was found between biofilm presence in either media and antimicrobial resistance. Similar findings have been reported by Oliveira *et al.* (2014) [34] and Shimizu and Harada (2017). Both studies reported a significant positive relationship ($p < 0.05$) between biofilm production by UPEC and antimicrobial resistance in dogs. In our study, a significant association ($p < 0.05$) was found between the absence of the *pap* gene and the presence of strong to moderate biofilm formation. This finding suggests that biofilm production is not associated with fimbrial adhesin. Similarly, Oliveira *et al.* (2014) [34] reported that fimbrial adhesins were not related to biofilm production by canine UPEC isolates. Furthermore, no significant association ($p < 0.05$) was observed between the *aer* and *cnf1* genes and moderate to strong biofilm production by UPEC isolates. In contrast, Oliveira *et al.* (2014) [34] found a significant association between the *aer* gene and biofilm production.

In this study, once *E. coli* isolates were dispensed into the microtiter plates with media, no additional fresh media was added during the incubation period. As incubation time increased, the nutrient levels surrounding the bacteria decreased, creating a nutrient-deficient environment in both media types, which favored biofilm formation. During *in vivo* biofilm production, environmental changes trigger the transition from planktonic growth to the biofilm stage, allowing bacteria to develop properties that promote survival under adverse conditions. The steps involved in *in vivo* biofilm production include reversible attachment to a surface followed by irreversible attachment. Once irreversibly attached, external matrix secretion occurs, leading to the maturation of biofilms and the development of a three-dimensional structure. Similarly, during *in vitro* biofilm production, dilution within the media or nutrient depletion triggers the activation of extracellular polymeric substance (EPS) production, converting planktonic bacterial cells into the biofilm phenotype (Reisner *et al.*, 2006; Zhang *et al.*, 2014) [39, 59]. The growth of biofilms *in vitro* depends on the composition of the media and the duration of incubation. In the present study, a higher number of isolates produced moderate to strong biofilms in TSB media compared to LB media. This could be attributed to the fact that TSB media contains sugars, whereas LB media contains salts. It has been previously reported that sugars enhance *in vitro* biofilm production by *E. coli* isolates (Leme *et al.*, 2006) [25].

Our study underscores the prevalence of biofilm-producing and multidrug-resistant UPEC infections in canines. Further exploration and comparison of UPEC with ExPEC strains of human origin could unveil their zoonotic potential, thereby aiding in the development of preventive and control strategies.

Conclusion

In conclusion, our study provides comprehensive insights into uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* (UPEC) isolated from canine urinary tract infections (UTIs). We identified *E. coli* as the predominant pathogen in our sample set, confirming their presence using conventional methods and PCR. Analysis of virulence genes revealed significant prevalence of aer, pap, and cnf1, crucial in UPEC pathogenesis. Biofilm formation assays highlighted varying capabilities among isolates, with notable associations between biofilm production and antimicrobial resistance. High resistance to several antibiotics underscores the urgency for judicious use in veterinary practices. These findings contribute to understanding UPEC epidemiology in dogs, emphasizing implications for public health and necessitating further research into zoonotic risks and control strategies.

References

- Agarwal J, Mishra B, Srivastava S, Srivastava R. Genotypic characteristics and biofilms formation among *Escherichia coli* isolates from Indian women with acute cystitis. *Royal Societies Tropical Med Hyg*. 2013;107:165-169.
- Brolund A. Overview of ESBL producing Enterobacteriaceae from a Nordic perspective. *Infect Ecol Epidemiol*. 2014;4(1):1-9.
- Connell H, Agace W, Klemm P, Schembri M, Marild S, Svanborg C. Type 1 fimbrial expression enhances *Escherichia coli* virulence for the urinary tract. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1996;93:9827-9832.
- Cummings KJ, Warnick LD, Davis MA, Eckmann K, Gröhn YT, Hoelzer K, et al. Farm animal contact as risk factor for transmission of bovine associated *Salmonella* subtypes. *Emerg Infect Dis*. 2012;18:1929-1936.
- Davies J, Davies D. Origins and evolution of antibiotic resistance. *Microbiol Mol Biol Rev*. 2010;74(3):417-433.
- Dechet AM, Scallan E, Gensheimer K, Hoekstra R, Gundersman-King J, Lockett J, et al. Multistate Working Group. Outbreak of multidrug resistant *Salmonella* enteric serotype Typhimurium Definitive Type 104 infection linked to Commercial ground beef, northeastern United States, 2003-2004. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2006;42(6):747-752.
- Donlan RM, Costerton JW. Biofilms: survival mechanisms of clinically relevant microorganisms. *Clin Microbiol Rev*. 2002;15:167-193.
- Drazenovich N, Ling GV, Foley J. Molecular investigation of *Escherichia coli* strains associated with apparently persistent urinary tract infection in dogs. *J Vet Intern Med*. 2004;18(1):301-306.
- Englen MD, Kelley LC. A rapid DNA isolation procedure for the identification of *Campylobacter jejuni* by the polymerase chain reaction. *Lett Appl Microbiol*. 2000;31:421-426.
- Falbo V, Famiglietti M, Caprioli A. Gene block encoding production of cytotoxic necrotizing factor 1 and hemolysin in *Escherichia coli* isolates from extraintestinal infections. *Infect Immun*. 1992;60:2182-2187.
- Farshad S, Ranjbar R, Japoni A, Hosseini M, Anvarinejad M, Mohammadzadegan R. Microbial susceptibility, virulence factors, and plasmid profiles of uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* strains isolated from children in Jahrom, Iran. *Arch Iran Med*. 2012;15(5):312-316.
- Firoozeh F, Saffari M, Neamati F, Zibaei M. Detection of virulence genes in *Escherichia coli* isolated from patients with cystitis and pyelonephritis. *Intern J Infect Dis*. 2014;29:219-222.
- Flores-Mireles AL, Walker JN, Caparon M, Hultgren SJ. Urinary tract infections: epidemiology, mechanisms of infection and treatment options. *Nat Rev Microbiol*. 2015;13(5):269-284.
- Grakh K. Epidemiology and characterization of biofilm producing Avian Pathogenic *Escherichia coli* in broiler chickens. Master thesis, submitted to Lala Lajpat Rai University of Veterinary and Animal Sciences; c2019.
- Hagberg L, Engberg I, Freter R. Ascending, unobstructed urinary tract infection in mice caused by pyelonephritogenic *Escherichia coli* of human origin. *Infect Immun*. 1983;40(1):273-283.
- Hagberg L, Jodal U, Korhonen TK, Lidin-Janson G, Lindberg U, Eden CS. Adhesion, hemagglutination, and virulence of *Escherichia coli* causing urinary tract infections. *Infect Immun*. 1981;31(2):564-570.
- Herrero M, de Lorenzo V, Neilands JB. Nucleotide sequence of the iucD gene of the pColVK30 aerobactin operon and topology of its product studied with phoA and lacZ gene fusions. *J Bacteriol*. 1988;170:85-64.
- Hilbert DW, Pascal KE, Libby EK, Mordechai E, Adelson ME, Trama JP. Uropathogenic *E. coli* dominantly suppresses the innate immune response of bladder epithelial cells by a lipopolysaccharide and Toll-like receptor 4-independent pathway. *Microb Infect*. 2008;10(2):114-121.
- Hultgren SJ, Porter TN, Schaeffer AJ, Duncan JL. Role of type 1 pili and effects of phase variation on lower urinary tract infections produced by *Escherichia coli*. *Infect Immun*. 1985;50(2):370-377.
- Johnson JR. Virulence factors in *Escherichia coli* urinary tract infection. *Clin Microbiol Rev*. 1991;4(1):80-128.
- Johnson JR. Microbial virulence determinants and the pathogenesis of urinary tract infection. *Infect Dis Clin North Am*. 2003;17(2):261-278.
- Katongole P, Nalubega F, Florence NC. Biofilm formation, antimicrobial susceptibility and virulence genes of Uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* isolated from clinical isolates in Uganda. *BMC Infect Dis*. 2020;20:453.
- Kostakioti M, Hadjifrangiskou M, Hultgren SJ. Bacterial biofilms: development, dispersal, and therapeutic strategies in the dawn of the post-antibiotic era. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Med*. 2013;3.
- Kuan NL, Chang CH, Lee CA, Yeh KS. Extended spectrum beta lactamase producing *Escherichia coli* and *Klebsiella pneumoniae* isolates from the urine of dogs and cats suspected of urinary tract infection in a veterinary teaching hospital. *Taiwan Vet J*. 2016;42(3):143-148.
- Leme AP, Koo H, Bellato CM, Bedi G, Cury JA. The role of sucrose in cariogenic dental biofilm formation - new insight. *J Dent Res*. 2006;85:878-887.
- Liu X, Liu H, Li Y, Hao C. Association between virulence profile and fluoroquinolone resistance in

- Escherichia coli* isolated from dogs and cats in China. Infect Dev Ctries. 2017;11(4):306-313.
27. Marrs CF, Zhang L, Foxman B. *Escherichia coli* mediated urinary tract infections: Are there distinct uropathogenic *E. coli* (UPEC) pathotypes? FEMS Microbiol Lett. 2005;252(2):183-190.
 28. Mittal S, Sharma M, Chaudhary U. Study of virulence factors of uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* and its antibiotics susceptibility pattern. Ind J Patho Microbiol. 2014;57:61-64.
 29. Munkhdelger Y, Gunregjav N, Dorjpurev A, Juniichiro N, Sarantuya J. Detection of virulence genes, phylogenetic group and antibiotic resistance of uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* in Mongolia. J Infect Develop Ctries. 2017;11(1):51-57.
 30. Mustapha M, Goel P, Kumar V, Maan S. Detection and phylogenetic characterization of virulence genes of *E. coli* associated with canine urinary tract infections in India. Iran J Vet Med. 2020;14(1).
 31. Naves P, del Prado G, Huelves L, Gracia M, Ruiz V, Blanco J, et al. Correlation between virulence factors and *in vitro* biofilm formation by *Escherichia coli* strains. Micro Patho. 2008;45:86-91.
 32. Nicolle LE. Uncomplicated urinary tract infections in adults including uncomplicated pyelonephritis. Urol Clin North Am. 2008;35:1-12.
 33. Oelschlaeger TA, Dobrindt U, Hacker J. Virulence factors of uropathogens. Currnt Opn Urolgy. 2002;12:33-38.
 34. Oliveira M, Dias FR, Pomba C. Biofilm and fluoroquinolone resistance of canine *E. coli* uropathogenic isolates. BMC Res Notes. 2014;7:499.
 35. Platell JL, Cobbold RN, Johnson JR, Trott DJ. Clonal group distribution of fluoroquinolone resistant *Escherichia coli* among humans and companion animals in Australia. J Antimicrob Chemother. 2010;65:1936-1938.
 36. Punia M, Kumar A, Charaya G, Kumar T. Pathogens isolated from clinical cases of urinary tract infection in dogs and their antibiogram. Vet W. 2018;11(8):1037-1042.
 37. Qekwana DN, Phophi L, Naidoo V, Oguttu JW. Antimicrobial resistance among *Escherichia coli* isolates from dogs presented with urinary tract infections at a veterinary teaching hospital in South Africa. BMC Vet Res. 2018;14(1):1-6.
 38. Rahman H, Deka M. Detection and characterization of necrotoxin producing *Escherichia coli* (NTEC) from patients with urinary tract infection (UTI). Ind J Med Res. 2014;139:632-637.
 39. Reisner A, Krogfelt KA, Klein BM, Zechner EL, Molin S. *In vitro* biofilm formation of commensal and pathogenic *Escherichia coli* strains: Impact of environmental and genetic factors. J Bacteriol. 2006;188(10):3572-3581.
 40. Riegman N, Van Die I, Leunissen J, Hoekstra W, Bergmans H. Biogenesis of F71 and F72 fimbriae of uropathogenic *Escherichia coli*: influence of the FsoF and FstFG proteins and localization of the Fso/FstE protein. Mol Microbiol. 1988;2(1):73-80.
 41. Römling U, Balsalobre C. Biofilm infections, their resilience to therapy and innovative treatment strategies. J Intern Med. 2012;272(6):541-561.
 42. Roopali B, Roy M, Roy S. Haemato-biochemical changes and therapeutic management of urinary tract infection in canines. Pharm Innov J. 2018;7(6):89-92.
 43. Shimizu T, Harada K. Determination of minimum biofilm eradication concentrations of or biofloxacin for canine bacterial uropathogens over different treatment period. The societies and John Wiley and sons. Australia. 2017:1348.
 44. Sidjabat HE, Townsend KM, Lorentzen M, Gobius KS, Fegan N, Chin JJ, et al. Emergence and spread of two distinct clonal groups of multidrug-resistant *Escherichia coli* in a veterinary teaching hospital in Australia. J Med Microbiol. 2006;55:1125-1134.
 45. Siqueira AK, Ribeiro MG, Leite DS, Tiba MR, de Moura C, Lopes MD, et al. Virulence factors in *Escherichia coli* strains isolated from urinary tract infection and pyometra cases and from feces of healthy dog. Res Vet Sci. 2009;86:206-210.
 46. Siqueira AK, Ribeiro MG, Leite DS, Tiba MR, de Moura C, Lopes MD, et al. Virulence factors in *Escherichia coli* strains isolated from urinary tract infection and pyometra cases and from feces of healthy dog. Res Vet Sci. 2009;86:206-210.
 47. Skyberg JA, Siek KE, Doetkott C, Nolan LK. Biofilm formation by avian *Escherichia coli* in relation to media, source and phylogeny. J Appl Microbiol. 2006;102:548-554.
 48. Soto SM, Smithson A, Martinez JA, Horcajada JP, Mensa J, Vila J. Biofilm formation in uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* strains: Relationship with prostatitis, uro-virulence factors and antimicrobial resistance. J Urol. 2007;177:365-368.
 49. Stepanovic S, Cirkovic I, Ranin L, Svabic-Vlahovic M. Biofilm formation by *Salmonella* spp. and *Listeria monocytogenes* on plastic surface. Lett Appl Microbiol. 2004;38:428-432.
 50. Sunde M, Sorum H. Characterization of integrons in *Escherichia coli* of the normal intestinal flora of swine. Microb Drug Resist. 1999;5:279-287.
 51. Terlizzi ME, Gribaudo G, Maffei ME. Uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* (UPEC) infections: virulence factors, bladder responses, antibiotic, and non-antibiotic antimicrobial strategies. Front Microbiol. 2017;8:1566. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2017.01566.
 52. Thompson MF, Litster AL, Platell JL, Trott DJ. Canine bacterial urinary tract infections: new developments in old pathogens. Vet J. 2011;190:22-27. doi:10.1016/j.tvjl.2011.01.015.
 53. Tóth I, Héraul F, Beutin L, Oswald E. Production of cytolethal distending toxins by pathogenic *Escherichia coli* strains isolated from human and animal sources: Establishment of the existence of a new cdt variant (type IV). J Clin Microbiol. 2003;41(9):4285-4291. doi:10.1128/JCM.41.9.4285-4291.2003.
 54. Tramuta C, Robino P, Nucera D, Salvarani S, Banche G, Malabaila A, et al. Molecular characterization and antimicrobial resistance of faecal and urinary *Escherichia coli* isolated from dogs and humans in Italy. Vet Ital. 2014;50(1):23-30. doi:10.12834/VetIt.1639.8756.2.
 55. Weese JS, Blondeau JM, Boothe D, Breitschwerdt EB, Guardabassi L, Hillier A, et al. Antimicrobial use guidelines for treatment of urinary tract disease in dogs and cats: Antimicrobial guidelines working group of the

- international society for companion animal infectious diseases. *Vet Med Int*. 2011;263768. doi:10.4061/2011/263768.
56. Xia X, Meng J, McDermott PF, Zhao S. *Escherichia coli* from retail meats carry genes associated with uropathogenic *Escherichia coli*, but are weakly invasive in human bladder cell culture. *J Appl Microbiol*. 2011;110:1166-1176. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2672.2011.04979.x.
57. Yamamoto S, Terai A, Yuri K, Kurazono H, Takeda Y, Yoshida O. Detection of urovirulence factors in *Escherichia coli* by multiplex polymerase chain reaction. *FEMS Immunol Med Microbiol*. 1995;12:85-90. doi:10.1111/j.1574-695X.1995.tb00154.x.
58. Zamani H, Salehzadeh A. Biofilm formation in uropathogenic *Escherichia coli*: association with adhesion factor genes. *Turk J Med Sci*. 2018;48:162-167. doi:10.3906/sag-1706-125.
59. Zhang W, Seminara A, Suaris M, Brenner MP, Weitz DA, Angelini TE. Nutrient depletion in *Bacillus subtilis* biofilms triggers matrix production. *New J Phys*. 2014;16:015028. doi:10.1088/1367-2630/16/1/015028.
60. Bauer AW, Kirby WMM, Sherris JC, Turck M. Antibiotic susceptibility testing by a standard single disk method. *Am. J Clin. Pathol*. 1966;36:493-496.