

International Journal of Veterinary Science

www.ijvets.com; editor@ijvets.com

Research Article <https://doi.org/10.47278/journal.ijvs/2021.080>

Insight of Prevalence, Toxin Typing and Antimicrobial Susceptibility of Egyptian *Clostridium perfringens* **Isolates Recovered from Broiler, Layer and Breeder Chicken Flocks**

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ABSTRACT

Clostridial infection is associated with significant health problems in poultry today, as its enteritis affects intestinal integrity in poultry flocks and may cause considerable losses, which caused by *Clostridium perfringens* that found all over the world, so fighting this infection is a continuing challenge for the poultry sector. Preventive actions using dedicated products are a valuable solution to maintain healthy gut flora. In this study the prevalence of *Clostridium perfringens* was detected in different chicken flocks at a rate of 32%. Also, toxin-typing showed presence of *cpa, cpb, etx, iap* and *cpe* toxins among the isolates which mainly associated with necrotic enteritis cases. *Net-B* toxin is a novel toxin that had been recently identified in virulent avian *C. perfringens* isolates and it presence potentiate the necrotic lesions and destroy the enterocytes. Antimicrobial patterns showed high resistance against most common antibacterial drugs as β-lactams, aminoglycosides, macrolides and tetracyclines. *NetB toxin* harboring isolates, originating from diseased broiler, layer and breeder chickens showed the lowest minimum inhibitory concentration MICs values for the penicillin from β-lactams and tylvalosin from macrolides.

Key words: *Clostridium perfringens*, *Net-B* toxins, Chicken flocks, MICs, Penicillin.

INTRODUCTION

Clostridium belongs to *Clostridiaceae* family which contains more than 203 species. *Clostridium perfringens* (*C. perfringens*) is the most commonly isolated species, which is classified to five types according to major lethal toxins they produce (Koneman et al. 1997). Clostridium diagnosis at bacteriological and molecular base still difficult till now for several reasons, including their specific growth (Collins et al. 1994). Clinically the important *Clostridium* species that associated are with clinical aspects in humans, animals and birds ranged from 40-50 species that produce a variety of toxins which leads to the distinctive clinical features of the diseases they cause (Hatheway 1990). PCR-based methods for *C. perfringens* genotypes are accumulating as more

diagnostic and research laboratories adopt for toxin gene detection. There were various genotypes by geographic region, although *C. perfringens* type A remains the most commonly isolated type overall (Garmory et al. 2000), which act as the causative agent of necrotic enteritis, and its clinical form is most often seen in broilers but may also be seen in broiler breeders and layers kept on litter system, while subclinical form appear in the intestine and liver. The disease is characterized by distinct ulcers and necrosis in the mucosa of the anterior small intestine and hepatitis (Fossum et al. 1988; Kaldhusdal and Hofshagen 1992). *C. perfringens*-related hepatitis is characterized by cholangiohepatitis or focal necrosis in the liver and bile ducts, leading to obstruction of the bile ducts (Randall 1991), as the pathogens migrate from duodenum to liver through bile ducts or via liver veins (Sasaki et al. 2000).

Cite This Article as: Bastamy M, Raheel I, Ellakany H, Samir A, Hamoud M, Khalifa RA, Ibrahim S, El Rahman SA and Orabi A, 2022. Insight of prevalence, toxin typing and antimicrobial susceptibility of Egyptian *Clostridium perfringens* isolates recovered from broiler, layer and breeder chicken flocks. International Journal of Veterinary Science 11(1): 110-116.<https://doi.org/10.47278/journal.ijvs/2021.080>

Virulent *C. perfringens* isolates produce 16 protein toxins that are important for the development of different diseases, such as food poisoning, antibiotic associated diarrhea, fatal gas gangrene, enterotoxaemia, and hemorrhagic gastroenteritis (Jihong et al. 2016). *C. perfringens* α-toxigenic strains of are the most common type isolated from chickens suffering from necrotic enteritis (Timbermont et al. 2009), but recently *netB* is a new toxin, in avian *C. perfringens* type A strains (Keyburn et al. 2008). Alpha toxin is a phospholipase that hydrolyzes phospholipids and promotes membrane disorganization, also hydrolysis of lecithin results in stimulation of the arachidonic acid cascade that induces the synthesis of inflammatory mediators which causes blood vessel contraction, platelet aggregation and myocardial dysfunction, leading to acute death, while beta toxin induces hemorrhagic necrosis of the intestinal mucosa (Titball et al. 2000; Awaad et al. 2019). The most
common predisposing factors for NE include common predisposing factors for NE include environmental stress, high stocking density, concurrent infection with IBD and coccidiosis, high protein and fat levels in diet change in mucus production and gut transit time and other dietary factors including lectins, trypsin inhibitors, tannins and mycotoxins (Prescott et al. 2016), so NE has been controlled by reducing exposure to risk factors such as coccidiosis, unsuitable diets and adding antibiotics in the feed and water of poultry (Gabriel et al. 2003). Unfortunately, antibiotic resistance in bacteria may make the commonly used antibiotics less effective (Yegani and Korver 2007), so antibiotic growth promoters (AGPs) have been banned from animal feed worldwide to avoid the spread of antimicrobial resistance and this has contributed to the higher prevalence of economically important diseases such as necrotic enteritis (Van Immerseel et al. 2009). The present study aimed to assess the prevalence of *netB* harboring *C. perfringens* among Egyptian chicken flocks either broiler, or breeder with special attention to its antimicrobial susceptibility and minimum inhibitory concentration.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Isolation and Identification of *C. Perfringens*

During 2020, three hundred intestinal contents of enteritis lesions from broiler (n=160), layer (n=100) and breeder (n=50) chicken's suspected cases from 40 flocks (broilers $(n=25)$, layer $(n=30)$ and breeder $(n=10)$ were inoculated into tryptone proteose peptone glucose, then transfer to fluid thioglycollate (Becton, Dickinson, USA) and plated onto TSC agar (Oxoid, UK) at 37°C in an anaerobic condition (Martin et al. 2009). Colonies were further sub-cultured on sheep blood agar and checked visually for double-hemolysis zone surrounding the colonies of *C. perfringens* and confirmed biochemically using API 20 A Anaerobes system. The recovered isolates bacterial suspensions were then frozen in BHI broth with 20% glycerol at -80° C (Quinn et al. 2011).

C. perfringens **Toxin Typing by using PCR Assay**

The boiling technique according to Kanakaraj et al. (1998), was used to extract DNA from the isolates and the primers for toxins typing were *cpa, cpb, etx, iap, cpe* according to Yoo et al. (1997), while *netB* toxin primers were used according to Datta et al. (2014) at which selected

netB toxin positive isolates were sequenced and accessed on Genbank from broiler, and breeder chicken flocks.

Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing

Agar disc diffusion method were used for tested antimicrobial susceptibility *C. perfringens* strains at 37°C overnight in anaerobic conditions using the following antimicrobial agents (Oxoid, Hampshire, UK) were tested: penicillin G (10U), penicillin V (30µg), ampicillin (10µg), amoxicillin (20µg), ceftifur (30µg), bacitracin (10µg), lincomycin (30µg), florphenicol (30µg), clindamycin (2µg), erythromycin (15µg), tylosin (30µg), tilmicosin (15µg), spiramycin (100µg), tylvalosin (0.6µg), flumequine (30µg), ciprofloxacin (5µg), enerofloxacin (5µg), (30µg), ciprofloxacin (5µg), enerofloxacin (5µg), difloxacin (10µg), oxytetracycline (30µg), doxycycline (30µg), metronidazole (30µg) rifampicin (5µg), vancomycin (5µg), colistin(10µg), neomycin (30µg), gentamycin (10µg), streptomycin (10µg), spectinomycin (100µg) and trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole (25µg) (Perelman et al. 1991; BSAC 2011).

Measuring MICs of *[Clostridium perfringens](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Minimum_inhibitory_concentration) net-B* **Toxins Isolates**

Brucella broth was used for broth micro dilution susceptibility testing. Refreshes of *C. perfringens* strains from frozen condition by subculture twice on TSA supplemented with 5% defibrinated sheep blood followed by inoculation into brucella broth supplemented with Oxyrase to generate anaerobiosis. Inoculum was grown at 37 \degree C for 24 \pm 12h then diluted in brucella broth to a 0.5 McFarland turbidity standard. Sixteen antibiotics were obtained from Sigma (St Louis, MO) as the following: penicillinV and G, ampicillin, amoxicillin, ceftifur, bacitracin, lincomycin, tylosin, tilmicosin, tylvalosin, ciprofloxacin, enrofloxacin, difloxacin, flumequine, vancomycin, metronidazole and rifampicin and Stock solution prepared according to the guidelines of the producer. Stocks were either frozen or freshly prepared and subsequent dilutions of the stock solutions were performed using the procedure listed in NCCLS (CLSI 2018).

Statistical Analysis

Data were analyzed by with SPSS version 7.5 software. All values were expressed as the mean±SD. significant differences between the groups were statistically analyzed by one way analysis of variance (ANOVA). A statistical difference of P<0.05 was considered significant.

RESULTS

The prevalence of *C. perfringens* during the different season of 2020 was 37% distributed as the following in broilers (42%), layers (38%) and breeders (44%) with high incidence in autumn (30%) followed in winter (26%), spring (22%) and summer (19%). Toxin typing of the recovered isolates by using PCR assay revealed that; *cpa* toxin in broilers (73%), layers (79%) and breeders (68%). Whereas *cpb* toxins was found in 25% broilers, 66% layers and 45% breeders. The *etx* toxin was detected in 14.5% broilers, 32% layers and 18% breeders. The *iap* toxin was noted in 27% broilers, 37% layers and 27% breeders. The *cpe* and *netB* toxin were found in 45 and 82% broilers, 53 and 89% layers and 45 and 90% breeders, respectively.

Table 1: Disk diffusion antimicrobial susceptibility of Egyptian *C. perfringens* isolates recovered from various chicken flocks

| Antimicrobials | Broilers (n=55) | | | | Layers $(n=38)$ | Breeders $(n=22)$ | | | |
|-------------------------------|-----------------|---------|-------|--------------|-----------------|-------------------|--------------|---------|-------|
| | S/R | $+$ No. | $+$ % | S/R | $+$ No. | $+$ % | S/R | $+$ No. | $+$ % |
| Penicillin G | S | 40 | 73 | S | 28 | 74 | S | 15 | 68 |
| Penicillin V | S | 55 | 100 | S | 38 | 100 | S | 22 | 100 |
| Ampicillin | S | 30 | 54.5 | S | 30 | 79 | \mathbb{R} | 22 | 100 |
| Amoxicillin | S | 45 | 82 | S | 30 | 79 | S | 18 | 82 |
| Ceftifur | S | 25 | 45 | S | 15 | 39 | S | 12 | 55 |
| Bacitracin | S | 25 | 45 | \mathbb{R} | 20 | 53 | \mathbb{R} | 15 | 68 |
| Lincomycin | S | 25 | 45 | \mathbb{R} | 20 | 53 | $\mathbf R$ | 15 | 68 |
| Clindamycin | R | 55 | 100 | \mathbb{R} | 28 | 74 | $\mathbf R$ | 22 | 100 |
| Erythromycin | S | 15 | 27 | \mathbb{R} | 38 | 100 | $\mathbf R$ | 22 | 100 |
| Spiramycin | \mathbb{R} | 55 | 100 | \mathbb{R} | 38 | 100 | $\mathbf R$ | 22 | 100 |
| Tylosin | S | 25 | 45 | S | 18 | 47 | S | 12 | 55 |
| Tilmicosin | S | 20 | 37 | S | 15 | 39 | S | 10 | 45 |
| Tylvalosin | S | 40 | 73 | S | 25 | 66 | S | 15 | 68 |
| Ciprofloxacin | S | 15 | 27 | \mathbb{R} | 38 | 100 | $\mathbf R$ | 22 | 100 |
| Difloxacin | S | 15 | 27 | \mathbb{R} | 38 | 100 | $\mathbf R$ | 22 | 100 |
| Flumequine | S | 15 | 27 | ${\bf R}$ | 38 | 100 | $\mathbf R$ | 22 | 100 |
| Oxytetracycline | R | 55 | 100 | \mathbb{R} | 38 | 100 | R | 22 | 100 |
| Doxycycline | \mathbb{R} | 55 | 100 | \mathbb{R} | 38 | 100 | \mathbb{R} | 22 | 100 |
| Chlortetracycline | \mathbb{R} | 55 | 100 | \mathbb{R} | 38 | 100 | \mathbb{R} | 22 | 100 |
| Vancomycin | S | 55 | 100 | S | 38 | 100 | S | 22 | 100 |
| Rifampicin | S | 30 | 54.5 | \mathbb{R} | 30 | 79 | $\mathbf R$ | 18 | 82 |
| Metronidazole | S | 30 | 54.5 | \mathbb{R} | 20 | 53 | \mathbb{R} | 18 | 82 |
| Colistin | \mathbb{R} | 55 | 100 | \mathbb{R} | 38 | 100 | \mathbb{R} | 22 | 100 |
| Florphenicol | \mathbb{R} | 55 | 100 | \mathbb{R} | 38 | 100 | \mathbb{R} | 22 | 100 |
| Spectinomycin | \mathbb{R} | 55 | 100 | \mathbb{R} | 38 | 100 | \mathbb{R} | 22 | 100 |
| Neomycin | \mathbb{R} | 55 | 100 | \mathbb{R} | 38 | 100 | \mathbb{R} | 22 | 100 |
| Gentamycin | \mathbb{R} | 55 | 100 | \mathbb{R} | 38 | 100 | \mathbb{R} | 22 | 100 |
| Streptomycin | \mathbb{R} | 55 | 100 | \mathbb{R} | 38 | 100 | $\mathbf R$ | 22 | 100 |
| Trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole | \mathbb{R} | 55 | 100 | \mathbb{R} | 38 | 100 | $\mathbf R$ | 22 | 100 |

R: Resistant S: Susceptible.

Three *netB* toxin harboring *C. perfringens* strains were sequenced and accessed on Genbank under code: MW925054 from broiler, MZ382848 from layer and MW925055 from breeder chicken flock respectively. Antimicrobial susceptibility patterns by disk diffusion methods in Table 1 showed that the all recovered isolates were sensitive to penicillin, amoxicillin, tylvalosin and vancomycin, while were resistant for clindamycin, spiramycin, oxytetracycline, doxycycline, chlortetracycline, colistin, florphenicol, spectinomycin, neomycin, gentamycin, streptomycin and trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole. The other antibiotics showed sensitivity against broiler isolates only as lincomycin, erythromycin, ciprofloxacin, enrofloxacin, difloxacin, flumequine and rifampicin. Also, there were some isolates sensitive to amoxicillin, ceftifur, tylosin, and tilmicosin. The minimum inhibitory concentration values "MICs µg/ml'' of *net-B* toxin isolates recorded in (Table 2) which showed that the lowest values were for penicillin MIC=0.25; MIC $_{50}$ =0.44; MIC90=0.82 against *C. perfringens* recovered from broiler chicken flocks, while values against breeder were 0.32, 0.52 and 1µg/ml respectively, followed by tylvalosin values 0.25, 0.82 and 1.2µg/ml against all isolates, while the other examined antimicrobials showed high MIC values.

DISCUSSION

Necrotic enteritis (NE) caused by toxigenic strains of *C. perfringens* costs the worldwide poultry community an estimated \$2 billion annually due to costs of antimicrobial prophylaxis, loss of weight gain and inefficient feed

conversion (Van Immerseel et al. 2009). Elimination of routine antibiotic use has been associated with increased incidence of NE (Cooper and Songer 2009) as the prevalence of *C. perfringens* could be attributed to the unsanitary conditions, poor hygienic measures (McClane et al. 2006). In current study the prevalence of *C. perfringens* was 37% in different Egyptian chicken flocks at which 42% in broiler, 38% in layer and 44% in breeder with high incidence in autumn 30% and in winter 26% than spring and summer which may be due to crowdedness and accumulation behavior of chickens in cold weather, also physiological stress act as an important predisposing factor to NE due to disturbance in corticosteroids hormones which corresponded to increased densities of *C. perfringens* in the small intestine and weight gain impairment in chickens, this emphasizes the importance of managing stress to optimize chicken health (Sarah et al. 2020).

Recently the NE pathogenesis in poultry has been the subject of considerable investigation, following identification of the novel pore forming toxin *netB* on a 42kb plasmid-encoded pathogenicity locus (NELoc-1) harbored specifically by NE strains (Keyburn et al. 2006; Keyburn et al. 2008) which were all highly conserved in both nucleotide and amino acid sequence (Menestrina et al. 2001) and the recovered *C. perfringens* strains from necrotic enteritis lesions were *netB*-positive, so these results provide a further evidence that *netB* is an essential virulence factor in the pathogenesis of necrotic enteritis (Nauerby et al. 2003). There was a strong correlation between *cpb2* gene and *netB* gene (Crespo et al. 2007; Martin and Smyth 2009; Abildgaard et al. 2010).

Table 2: Minimum inhibitory concentration values (μg/mL) of Egyptian *C. perfringens* isolates harboring *net-B* toxin recovered from broiler, layer and breeder chicken flocks

| C. perfringens origin from | Broilers | | | Layers | | | Breeders | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------|-------------------|-------------------|--------------|-------------------|-------------------|-----------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| MIC values (µg/mL) | MIC | MIC ₅₀ | MIC ₉₀ | MIC | MIC ₅₀ | MIC ₉₀ | MIC | MIC ₅₀ | MIC ₉₀ |
| Penicillin G | 0.5 | 1.5 | 1.82 | 1.5 | 2.5 | 3.6 | 2.3 | 4.2 | 4.4 |
| Penicillin V | 0.25 | 0.44 | 0.82 | 0.32 | 0.48 | 0.92 | 0.32 | 0.52 | 1.00 |
| Ampicillin | 0.56 | 2.1 | 2.8 | 2.2 | 3.5 | 5.5 | 2.3 | 4.2 | 8.3 |
| Amoxicillin | 0.52 | 0.62 | 1.2 | 0.83 | 1.5 | 1.8 | 0.72 | 1.2 | 1.8 |
| Ceftifur | 0.58 | 2.2 | 4.5 | 2.2 | 4.4 | 8.3 | 2.2 | 4.4 | 8.3 |
| Bacitracin | 0.56 | 2.3 | 3.6 | 2.5 | 4.5 | 5.4 | 2.2 | 4.4 | 6.3 |
| Lincomycin | 0.57 | 4.2 | 8.4 | 2.1 | 3.6 | 8.4 | 2.1 | 3.6 | 8.4 |
| Tylosin | 1.2 | 2.3 | 4.4 | 1.2 | 2.3 | 4.4 | 1.2 | 2.6 | 4.2 |
| Tilmicosin | 1.2 | 2.3 | 4.4 | 1.5 | 2.5 | 4.8 | 1.4 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Tylvalosin | 0.25 | 0.82 | 1.2 | 0.25 | 0.82 | 1.2 | 0.25 | 0.82 | 1.2 |
| Ciprofloxacin | 2.8 | 4.3 | 8.4 | R | \mathbb{R} | \mathbb{R} | \mathbb{R} | \mathbb{R} | R |
| Difloxacin | 2.8 | 4.3 | 8.4 | \mathbb{R} | \mathbb{R} | \mathbb{R} | \mathbb{R} | \mathbb{R} | R |
| Flumequine | 2.8 | 4.3 | 8.4 | \mathbb{R} | \mathbb{R} | \mathbb{R} | \mathbb{R} | \mathbb{R} | R |
| Vancomycin | 0.25 | 1.2 | 1.8 | 0.25 | 1.2 | 1.8 | 0.25 | 1.3 | 1.8 |
| Rifampicin | 1.33 | 4.3 | 6.2 | 1.8 | 3.5 | 4.5 | 2.3 | 4.3 | 8.4 |
| Metronidazole | 0.52 | 2.5 | 4.3 | 1.6 | 2.8 | 4.2 | 1.2 | 2.4 | 3.6 |

R: resistant. Dilution factor: 0.25-512µg/mL.

NE develops when *C. perfringens* establish and multiply in the chicken's intestinal tract due to reduction of intestinal motility with mucosal damage and leakage of serum proteins into the intestinal lumen (Drew et al. 2004). *C. perfringens* has a generation time of 8 to 10min, so can increase very quickly (Stevens and Bryant 2002). In the present study, toxin typing of the recovered isolates revealed that *cpa, cpb, etx, iap* and *cpe* toxin in broiler isolates represent 73, 25, 14.5, 27 and 45%, respectively and in layers were 79, 66, 32, 37 and 53%, respectively while in breeder isolates 68, 45,18, 27 and 45%, respectively. Toxin typing of *C. perfringens* is critical for understanding of the epidemiology criteria of *C. perfringens* infections and may be helpful in the development of effective preventive measures (Nowell et al. 2010) as the release of these toxins is believed to play a major role in determining pathogenesis properties of *C. perfringens* (Ronco et al. 2017). Datta et al. (2014) showed that out of 30 *C. perfringens* isolates from healthy birds, 33.3% were positive for α toxin alone and 6.7% for $β-2$ toxin alone. In addition, seven (23.3%) isolates were positive for both α and β-2 toxins. In case of the diseased birds, 16 (53.3%) isolates were positive for alpha toxin alone and 2 $(6.7%)$ for β-2 toxin alone. Ten $(33.3%)$ isolates were positive for both α and β-2 toxins. Thus, 19 and 28 isolates from healthy and diseased birds respectively were toxin producing. Agrawal made similar observations et al. (2009) who reported 39.2% isolates of *C. perfringens* to be positive for α toxin alone and 32.10% isolates were positive for both α and β toxins. Fan et al. (2016) reported that the *C. perfringens* type A isolates expressed only the *cpa* gene encoding for alpha toxin. Several studies have indicated that *cpe*-positive strains of *C. perfringens* from poultry occur in low number and can be less than 5% of global *C. perfringens* isolates (Zhang et al.2018). This study showed that the presence of α and β-2 toxin producing strains of *C. perfringens* in healthy as well as enteritis-affected broiler chickens. There was an increase in number of the toxin producing isolates from diseased birds.

Higher percentage of α and beta-2 toxin gene producing *C. perfringens* strains in diseased broiler birds indicates its possible role in pathogenesis of enteritis.

Alpha toxin hydrolyzes lecithin a major component of the cell membrane and thus destroys the red blood cells, platelets and muscles leading to the myonecrosis. Beta toxin induces hemorrhagic necrosis of the intestinal mucosa. Australian strain of *C. perfringens* type A harbored *NetB* was isolated from necrotic enteritis (NE) affected broiler chicken (Keyburn et al. 2010). In the present study, traceability of *net-B* toxins in the recovered isolates showed that *net-B* toxin distribution in broiler isolates 82%, layer isolates 89% and breeder isolates 90%. Sequencing of three isolates and accessesion numbers on Genbank and under code: MW925054 from broiler, MZ382848 from layer and MW925055 from breeder chicken flock respectively. *Net-B* is a pore forming toxin with structure equal to 3.9 Angstrom (Savva et al. 2013), which can damage the phospholipid membrane bilayer of both human and animal cells, causing an influx of ions (i.e., Na+, Cl, Ca2+that leads to osmotic cell lysis (Keyburn et al. 2010; Sergio et al. 2014). Interestingly, all *netB-*positive isolates were from flocks with the subclinical form of NE, with a moderate increase of mortality rate but an absence of typical pathologic findings of enteritis. In contrast, when severe NE was observed during autopsy of deceased birds, no *netB* gene was detected (Francesca et al. 2019).

Antibiotic as β-lactams, aminoglycosides, macrolides and tetracyclines used in broiler farms for therapeutic purposes of enteric diseases, particularly necrotic enteritis Penicillins as a β-lactams members are known to be particularly active against *C. perfringens* as resistance against penicillin is very rare and β-lactamase has not been demonstrated with three days as minimum duration of treatment, however longer applications may be required (Hughes et al. 2008). In the current study, the antimicrobial sensitivity test showed that all isolates were 100% sensitive for penicillin, amoxicillin, tylvalosin and vancomycin, while were resistant for clindamycin, spiramycin, oxytetracycline, doxycycline, chlortetracycline, colistin, florphenicol, spectinomycin, neomycin, gentamycin, streptomycin and trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole. Recently, Gad et al. (2011) determined MIC of 16 antibiotics for 100 *C. perfringens* isolates collected between 2008 and the results revealed that there were no

isolates were resistant β-lactam antibiotics, lincospectin, tylosin, doxycycline, tetracycline, trimethoprim/ sulfamethoxazole, lincomycin, and tilmicosin with low frequency of resistance was detected against erythromycin and tiamulin with 5 and 20%, respectively, while the highest incidence of resistance were spectinomycin, neomycin and colistin with 74, 94 and 100%, respectively. In economic point of view controlling of necrotic enteritis cases even clinical or subclinical form in commercial poultry flocks become urgent to overcome its losses in body weight gain and costs of medication (Kaldhusdal and Løvland 2000; Skinner et al. 2010), so strategies to reduce the incidence of clostridial infections become important to avoid economic losses and increase the profitability (McReynolds et al. 2009).

Finally, the present study survey of the minimum inhibitory concentration of *net-B* toxins isolates at which the lowest values were for penicillin $MIC₉₀=0.82$ against *C. perfringens* recovered from broiler chickens flocks, while values against layers and breeders were 1µg/ml respectively, followed by tylvalosin MIC90=1.2µg/ml against all isolates, while the other examined antimicrobials showed variable values. Resistance of *C. perfringens* the most common antibiotics become recorded (Shojadoust et al. 2010), and also there were MDR isolates as detected in Iran 34.17% (Akhi et al. 2015), this may be due to the wide spread of the antimicrobials in combating infections. Resistance rate of *C. perfringens* to tetracycline 66and 56.2% (Tansuphasiri et al. 2005) and 87.5% to neomycin (Shojadoust et al. 2010), while the percentage of resistance to β-lactams was less than 7% (Silva et al. 2014; Hamza et al. 2017; Chon et al. 2018; Mwangi et al. 2019).

Conclusion

C. perfringens has been shown to develop multiple drug resistance mainly in winter and autumn season, indicating that the treatment for this bacterium is quite challenging, so must depend on MICs values for common used antibiotics which revealed that penicillin is the drug of choice against isolates from different flocks.

Author's Contribution

All authors contributed equally to study the design methodology, interpretation of results, and writing of the manuscript.

Acknowledgment

We gratefully thank Dr. Moatasem Nowara, the Chairman of MN Trade Veterinary Pharmaceutical Company for antibiotic supply.

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