

Adah et al. /Sokoto Journal of Veterinary Sciences, **18**(3): 119 - 128.

Microbiota of gills and antibiotic susceptibility patterns of bacteria isolates from *Clarias gariepinus* in different holding facilities

DA Adah¹*, L Saidu², SJ Oniye³, SA Adah⁴, OB Daodu⁵, SM David⁶ & AO Olatunde⁷

- ^{1.} Department of Veterinary Medicine, University of Ilorin, Nigeria
- Veterinary Teaching Hospital, Ahmadu Bello University Zaria, Nigeria
 Department of Zoology, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria
- ^{4.} Department of Veterinary Physiology and Biochemistry, University of Ilorin, Nigeria
 - ^{5.} Department of Veterinary Microbiology, University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria
- ^{6.} Department of Pharmaceutical Microbiology and Biotechnology, University of Ilorin, Nigeria
 - ^{7.} Department of Theriogenology and Production, University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria

*Correspondence: Tel.: +2348060652832; E-mail: adah.ad@unilorin.edu.ng

	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,						
Copyright: © 2020	Abstract						
Adah <i>et al</i> . This is an	Gill is a key respiratory and excretory organ in fish as it provides oxygen need for						
open-access article	survival and excretes waste products. However, gills can be infected with pathogenic						
published under the	and opportunistic bacteria leading to increasing fish morbidity and mortality. This						
terms of the Creative	study was carried out to isolate, estimate and identify bacteria on the gills of Clarias						
Commons Attribution	<i>gariepinus</i> reared in different holding facilities. The susceptibility patterns of the bacteria were also studied using 10 antibiotics commonly used in pisciculture in						
License which permits							
unrestricted use,	Nigeria. A total of 84 bacteria belonging to 12 genera were isolated from the gills of						
distribution, and	75 Clarias gariepinus. Gram-negative bacteria isolated included Salmonella species						
reproduction in any	(3.6%), Pseudomonas species (7.1%), Aeromonas species (2.4%), Escherichia coli						
medium, provided the original author and	(13.1%), Proteus species (11.9%) Klebsiella species (3.6%), Citrobacter species (4.8%),						
source are credited.	and Shigella species (3.6%). Gram-positive Corynebacterium species (3.6 %),						
source are created.	Staphylococcus species (20.3%), Bacillus species (19.0%) and Streptococcus species						
	(7.1%) were also isolated. The result showed varying bacteria species when						
	considering the different holding facilities. Greater than 50 % of Gram-positive and						
	Gram-negative bacteria isolated were resistant to 5 and 6 different antibiotics						
	respectively while greater than 80 % of all the bacteria were resistant to \geq 3						
	antibiotics. The presence of these bacteria in fish predict subsequent impediment in						
Publication History:	pisciculture and may lead to socioeconomic losses, environmental contaminations						
Received: 11-02-2020	and high public health risk. This study calls for concern and an urgent intervention						
Accepted: 19-06-2020	on antibiotic stewardship among fish farmers.						

Keywords: Antibiotics resistance, Clarias gariepinus, Fish farms, Gills microbiota, Kaduna state

Introduction

Fish production through aquaculture is one of the fastest growing agricultural enterprises in the world

with a great capacity to meet the increasing demand for food supply (Hossain *et al.*, 2014; FAO, 2018). Fish

and fish products make up more than 60% of the total protein intake in adults and children especially in rural areas where they are widely accepted and form a much-cherished delicacy that cuts across all strata of the population. They have played a significant role in food security especially in developing countries like Nigeria (Adedeji & Onwenefah, 2013). In bridging the demand and supply gap of fish, *Clarias gariepinus* (*C. gariepinus*) is a suitable and the most preferred choice for fish production in Africa particularly in Nigeria due to its hardy nature, wide acceptability, consumers' delicacy and commands of good price (Tsutsui *et al.*, 2011).

C. gariepinus can be reared in different holding facilities that can retain water such as earthen ponds concrete, plastic, wooden, metal, glass, and fibre tanks (Ozigbo *et al.*, 2014). However, with an increase in commercial fish production, disease outbreak has become a major setback in production. Bacteria are one of the most important etiological agents and are of great risk in aquaculture worldwide (Wamala *et al.*, 2018). There are numerous bacterial organisms in an aquatic environment that affect the health of the cultured fish and are also known to affect the postharvest quality of fish (Al-Harbi & Uddim, 2008).

The knowledge of the bacteria of gills of *C. gariepinus* remains relatively poor. Gills play very important roles in gas exchange, ion-regulation, osmoregulation, acid–base balance, ammonia excretion, hormone production, modification of circulating metabolites and immune defense (Brauner & Rombough, 2012).

Moreso, the gill is in constant contact with the aquatic environment and thus represent an important target organ of dissolved pollutants and microorganisms. The gills may also provide an ideal portal of entry to all kind of pathogens that may play critical roles in overall fish health (Asmaa *et al.*, 2015). Microbiological evaluation of the gills of fish from commercial fish farms would therefore be essential to assure the farmers and consumers about the quality and safety of fish products (AI-Harbi & Uddim, 2008; Pal *et al.*, 2016).

Antibiotics are currently utilized to treat fish infected by bacteria, as well as preventing the establishment of pathogenic bacteria within fish farms (Miranda *et al.*, 2018). Knowledge of etiological agents of infections and their sensitivities to available drugs is of great value for rational selection and development of appropriate decision on prescription in the use of antimicrobial agents in order to avoid the occurrence of antimicrobial resistance (Abubakar, 2009). Therefore, the aim of this study was to determine the microbiota of the gills of *C. gariepinus* and their antibiotic susceptibility patterns obtained from different holding facilities from selected commercial fish farms in Kaduna State.

Materials and Methods

Study location

The study was carried out in Kaduna State, which is located on latitude 10° 36' 33.54" N and longitude 7° 25' 46.2144" E. It occupies an area of approximately 48,473.2 square kilometers and has a population of more than 6 million people (KSGC, 2015).

Study design

The cross-sectional study involved multistage random sampling of 15 active farms comprising of five earthen ponds, five concrete and five plastic tanks from four Local Government Areas of Kaduna State. Four farms each from Sabon Gari, Kaduna North, Kaduna South, and 3 farms in Zaria Local Government Areas were selected for the study. The fish farms with concrete and plastic tanks were intensively managed and sourced their water from borehole while the earthen ponds were semi intensively managed with water supplementation from natural water bodies around the farms. The fish farms had different stages of C. *gariepinus* (fingerlings, growers, adults and broodstocks) stocked in the farms. The management practises were assessed and evaluated on the spot on the fish farms. Information on the antibiotic usage on the fish farms was recorded and used for the selection of the antibiotics for the susceptibility test.

Fish selection and processing

A total of 75 live *Clarias gariepinus* (5 fish per farm) were randomly collected from the selected fish farms. *C. gariepinus* of 4 - 8 months of age, with a total length of \geq 12-33cm and a weight of 0.5-1kg, fed with commercial feed and reared in monoculture system were included in the study. The fish was caught at about 8.00 am using a fishnet of the farm and placed in a plastic bucket containing the pond water to ensure the survival of the fish samples. This was later transported to the Microbiology Laboratory, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria for further processing within 2 hours of collection.

Each live fish was sacrificed (by brain spiking to minimize suffering) and placed on a clean stainless tray dorsally and sterile cotton wool swab soaked in 70% alcohol was used to clean the fish from the operculum to the abdominal area to reduce bacterial load and surface contamination. The operculum of

the fish was lifted to expose the gills and the sterile surgical scalpel blade was used to cut out the gill, which was placed in a sterile petri dish for bacterial isolation and estimation.

Bacteria population culture, isolation, estimation, and identification

Standard bacterial population, isolation, estimation, and identification as described by Barrow & Feitham (2003) were strictly followed. One gram of the fish gills was macerated aseptically in 10 ml of sterile distilled water (10% w/v), then, a 10-fold dilution of this was carried out. Subsequently, 0.1ml of the tube containing 10⁻¹⁰ dilution factor was inoculated on nutrient agar and MacConkey agar (MCA) (Oxoid, UK) in duplicate using the spread plate method. The plates were then incubated for 18-24 hrs at 37 °C. The colony forming unit (CFU)/gram of the gills was determined (APHA, 1993). After incubation, discrete isolates from the plates were picked with sterilized loop and streaked again on a nutrient agar plate for the isolation and purification of bacteria colonies and on MacConkey agar plate for growing of Gramnegative organisms and to differentiate between lactose fermenters and non-lactose fermenters. Eosin methylene blue agar (Oxoid, UK) was used for the isolation of E. coli, Citrobacter species and Klebsiella species. Salmonella Shigella Agar (Oxoid, UK) was used for isolation of Salmonella and Shigella species. The agar plates were then incubated for 18-24 hrs at 37 °C. The bacteria were identified using morphological characteristics, Gram staining, and biochemical tests such as motility test, oxidase test, catalase test, triple sugar iron (TSI), indole test, urease test, citrate utilization test, methyl red test, oxidative fermentation test, Voges Proskauer test nitrate, reduction test and gelatine liquefaction test (Barrow & Feitham 2003; Daodu et al., 2017).

Antibiotic susceptibility test

Antibiotic susceptibility test was carried out on each of the isolates using Kirby-Bauer disc diffusion method on Mueller-Hinton agar plates (MHA) (Oxoid Basingstoke, UK) with inocula adjusted to an optical density of 0.5 McFarland standard units (CLSI, 2010). The antibiotics used were ampicillin (10 μ g), chloramphenicol (10 μ g), ciprofloxacin (5 μ g), gentamycin (10 ug), oxacillin (5 ug), oxytetracycline (30 ug), penicillin (10 iu), streptomycin (10 μ g), tetracycline (30 μ g) and vancomycin (30 μ g) (Oxoid, UK). The susceptibility test followed the procedure described by Clinical Laboratory and Standards Institute, CLSI (2015).

Data analysis

Data of the isolates were initially entered into Microsoft Office Excel version 2010 for the determination of absolute frequencies and percentages. The mean \pm standard deviation of the total bacterial count of the gills from the different holding facilities were calculated and compared using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, Chicago, Illinois, USA) for windows version 22.0. The values of p < 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

Results

The total bacteria load from the gills, from the different holding facilities varies from 2.44 \pm 0.77 x 10⁴ to 5.20 \pm 0.76 x 10⁶ colony forming unit/gram of fish gill (Table 1). The bacterial load of gills of *C. gariepinus* from concrete tanks ranged between 2.81 \pm 0.99 x 10⁴ and 3.80 \pm 0.73 x 10⁴, while the value from earthen ponds ranged between 3.70 \pm 1.75 x 10⁵ and 5.20 \pm 0.76 x 10⁶ and values from plastic tanks ranged between 2.4 \pm 0.77 x 10⁴ and 4.06 \pm 0.37 x 10⁴. There was significant difference in the total bacterial load of gills at P < 0.05 between earthen ponds and both concrete and plastic tanks. However, there was no significant difference within the farms from the different holding facilities except for earthen ponds between farm 5 and the other farms.

A total of 84 bacteria belonging to 12 genera were isolated from gills of 75 Clarias gariepinus studied. The isolates comprised of 4 Gram-positive bacteria (Streptococcus species, Bacillus species, Staphylococcus species, and Corynebacterium species) and 8 Gram-negative bacteria known to be pathogenic to fish (Escherichia coli, Proteus species, Pseudomonas Citrobacter species, species, Aeromonas species, Salmonella species, Shigella species and Klebsiella species). Gills of fish cultured in concrete tank harboured the highest number of bacteria isolates with 30/84 (35.7%) followed by those cultured in earthen ponds with 28/84 (33.3%) and plastic tanks with 26/84 (31.0%) (Table 2).

Generally, there were 6 common bacteria genera/species isolated from the gills of fish cultured in any of the holding facilities and these were

Holding Facilities	Farms	Bacterial population					
		Mean ± SD (x 10 ⁴) CFU/gram of gill	Mean ± SD (x 10 ⁴) CFU/gram of gill				
		(within holding facilities)	(between holding facilities)				
Concrete tanks	1	3.40 ±1.98x10 ^{4 a}					
	2	$3.80 \pm 0.73 \times 10^{4}$ a					
	3	3.71 ±2.29 x10 ^{4 a}	$3.4 \pm 1.4 \times 10^{4}$ a				
	4	$3.23 \pm 0.61 \times 10^{4}$ a					
	5	$2.81 \pm 0.99 \times 10^{4}$ a					
Earthen ponds	1	3.70 ±1.76 x10 ^{5 a}					
	2	3.90 ± 0.51 x10 ^{5 a}					
	3	4.19 ± 0.80 x10 ^{5 a}	1.4 ± 2.0 x10 ^{6 b}				
	4	4.48 ± 0.85 x10 ^{5 a}					
	5	5.20 ± 0.76 x10 ^{6 b}					
Plastic tanks	1	2.91 ±1.04 x10 ^{4 a}					
	2	$3.30 \pm 0.23 \times 10^{4}$					
	3	2.44 ± 0.77 x10 ^{4 a}	$3.1 \pm 0.9 \times 10^{4 a}$				
	4	2.98 ± 1.25 x10 ^{4 a}					
	5	$4.06 \pm 0.37 \times 10^{4}$ a					

Table 1: Bacteria population in gills of Clarias gariepinus (average) from some selected fish farms in Kaduna State

Different alphabets (a, b) connote significant differences (p < 0.05) within and between holding facilities

Table 2 : Distribution of different bacteria isolates from gills of Clarias gariepinus in different holding facilities from
selected fish farms in Kaduna State

Bacteria	Concrete Tanks (%)	Plastic Tanks (%)	Earthen Ponds (%)	Total (%)	
Gram-positive isolate	15 (50.0)	15 (57.7)	12 (42.9)		
Bacillus species	5 (16.7)	6 (23.1)	5 (17.9)	16 (19.0)	
Corynebacterium species	2 (6.7)	1 (3.8)	0 (0.0)	3 (3.6)	
Staphylococcus species	6 (20.0)	7 (26.9)	4 (14.3)	17 (20.3)	
Streptococcus species	2 (6.7)	1 (3.8)	3 (10.7)	6 (7.1)	
Gram-negative isolates	15 (50.0)	11 (42.3)	16 (57.1)		
Aeromonas species	1 (3.3)	1 (3.8)	0 (0.0)	2 (2.4)	
Citrobacter species	0 (0)	2 (7.7)	2 (7.1)	4 (4.8)	
Escherichia coli	4 (13.3)	3 (11.5)	4 (14.3)	11 (13.1)	
Klebsiella species	2 (6.7)	0 (0.0)	1 (3.6)	3 (3.6)	
Proteus species	4 (13.3)	3 (11.5)	3 (10.7)	10 (11.9)	
Pseudomonas species	3 (10)	1 (3.8)	2 (7.1)	6 (7.1)	
Salmonella species	1 (3.3)	0 (0.0)	2 (7.1)	3 (3.6)	
Shigella species	0 (0)	1 (3.8)	2 (7.1)	3 (3.6)	
Total number of isolates	30 (100.0)	26 (100)	28 (100)		

Staphylococcus species, Streptococcus species, Bacillus species, Escherichia coli, Proteus species and Pseudomonas species (Table 2). In concrete tanks, 10 bacteria genera/species were isolated in the absence of Citrobacter species and Shigella species while 10 bacteria genera/species obtained in earthen ponds fish gill in the absence of Corynebacterium species and Aeromonas species. Staphylococcus species were the highest prevailing isolates among bacteria genera/species obtained from gills of fish cultured in concrete tanks with 6/30 (20%) and plastic tanks with 6/26 (26.9%) while Bacillus species with 5/28 (17.9%) was the highest prevailing bacteria in gills of fish cultured in earthen pond. Among Gram-negative bacteria, *Escherichia coli* and *Proteus* species were most prevalent among bacteria genera obtained from fish gills cultured in the concrete tanks with 4/30 (13.3 %) and plastic tanks with 3/30 (11.5%) while only *E. coli* remains at the peak in gills of fish cultured in the earthen pond (Table 2). Table 3 described the patterns for Gram-positive bacteria. Based on the 10 antibiotics used, resistant percentage ranges include *Corynebacterium* species (33.3 – 100%), *Bacillus* species (25 - 75.0%), *Staphylococcus* (16.7 - 83.3%). The Gram-positive bacteria antibiotic resistant pattern followed the order vancomycin > penicillin >

oxacillin > ampicillin > oxytetracycline > tetracycline > streptomycin > chloramphenicol > gentamycin > ciprofloxacin. Generally, the study showed that > 50% of Gram-positive isolates (n= 42) were resistant to oxytetracycline, oxacillin, ampicillin, penicillin and vancomycin (Table 3). For Gram-negative bacteria isolates, resistant percentage ranges include *Aeromonas* species (25 – 100.0%), *Citrobacter* species (0.0 – 100.0%), *E. coli* (18.2 - 90.9%), *Klebsiella* species (33.3 – 100.0%), *Proteus* species (20.0 – 90.0%), *Pseudomonas* species (16.7 - 83.3%), *Salmonella* species (33.3 - 100.0%) and *Shigella* species (33.3 – 100.0%) (Table 4). Gram-negative antibiotic resistant pattern followed the order penicillin > oxacillin > vancomycin > ampicillin > oxytetracycline > tetracycline > streptomycin > chloramphenicol > gentamycin > ciprofloxacin. Generally, the study showed that \geq 50% of Gram-negative isolates (n= 42) were resistant to tetracycline, oxytetracycline, oxacillin, vancomycin, penicillin and ampicillin.

Discussion

There was variation in the bacterial load obtained from gills in the different holding facilities sampled in this study. This may be due to the difference in pond type, sources of water and management practices in the different fish farms leading to the different levels of organic content consequently, resulting in the

Table 3: Antibiotic susceptibility patterns of Gram-positive bacteria isolates from gills of *Clarias gariepinus* from selected fish farms in Kaduna State

Antibiotic	Reaction	Staphylococcus	Streptococcus	Corynebacterium	Bacillus	Total
	pattern	species	species n= 6	<i>species</i> n = 3 (%)	species	n = 42 (%)
		n = 17 (%)	(%)		n = 16	
					(%)	
Ampicillin	Sensitive	2 (11.8)	1 (16.7)	0 (0.0)	3 (18.8)	6 (14.3)
	Intermediate	4 (23.5)	1 (16.7)	1 (33.3)	3 (18.8)	9 (21.4)
	Resistant	11 (64.7)	4(66.7)	2 (66.7)	10 (62.5)	27 (64.3)
Chloramphenicol	Sensitive	8 (47.1)	3 (50.0)	2 (66.7)	7 (43.8)	20 (47.6)
	Intermediate	2 (11.8)	1 (16.7)	0 (0.0)	3 (18.8)	6 (14.3)
	Resistant	7 (41.2)	2 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	6 (37.5)	16 (38.1)
Ciprofloxacin	Sensitive	10 (58.8)	4 (66.7)	2 (66.7)	9 (56.3)	25 (59.5)
	Intermediate	2 (11.8)	1 (16.7)	0 (0.0)	3 (18.8)	6 (14.3)
	Resistant	5 (29.4)	1 (16.7)	1 (33.3)	4 (25.0)	11 (26.2)
Gentamycin	Sensitive	6 (35.3)	3 (50.0)	3 (100.0)	9 (56.3)	21 (50.0)
	Intermediate	4 (23.5)	1 (16.7)	0 (0.0)	3 (18.8)	8 (19.0)
	Resistant	7 (41.2)	2 (33.3)	0 (0.0)	4 (25.0)	13 (31.0)
Oxacillin	Sensitive	3 (17.6)	1 (16.7)	1 (33.3)	2 (12.5)	7 (16.7)
	Intermediate	4 (23.5)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (12.5)	6 (14.3)
	Resistant	10 (58.8)	5 (83.3)	2 (66.7)	12 (75.0)	29 (69.0)
Penicillin	Sensitive	1 (5.9)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (6.3)	2 (4.8)
	Intermediate	4 (23.5)	2 (33.3)	0 (0.0)	4 (25.0)	10 (23.8)
	Resistant	12 (70.6)	4 (66.7)	3 (100.0)	11 (68.8)	30 (71.4)
Streptomycin	Sensitive	4 (23.5)	2 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	3 (18.8)	10 (23.8)
	Intermediate	4 (23.5)	2 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	7 (43.8)	14 (33.3)
	Resistant	9 (52.9)	2 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	6 (37.5)	18 (42.9)
Tetracycline	Sensitive	4 (23.5)	1 (16.7)	1 (33.3)	3 (18.8)	9 (21.4)
	Intermediate	4 (23.5)	3 (50.0)	1 (33.3)	6 (37.5)	14 (33.3)
	Resistant	9 (52.9)	2 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	7 (43.8)	19 (45.2)
Oxytetracycline	Sensitive	4 (23.5)	1 (16.7)	0 (0.0)	2 (12.5)	7 (16.7)
- •	Intermediate	4 (23.5)	1 (16.7)	0 (0.0)	4 (25.0)	9 (21.4)
	Resistant	9 (52.9)	4 (66.7)	3 (100.0)	10 (62.5)	26 (61.9)
Vancomycin	Sensitive	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
	Intermediate	4 (23.5)	1 (16.7)	1 (33.3)	4 (25.0)	10 (23.8)
	Resistant	13 (76.5)	5 (83.3)	2 (66.7)	12 (75.0)	32 (76.2)

Antibiotic		E. coli	<i>Salmo</i> n=	<i>Pro</i> n=	Pseu n=	Kleb n=	<i>Aero</i> n=	<i>Citro</i> n= 4	Shige n= 3	Total n= 42
		n=11	3	10	6	3	2			
Ampicillin	S	1 (9.1)	0 (0.0)	1 (10.0)	1 (16.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (7.1)
	IN	4 (36.4)	1	3 (30.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (33.3)	0 (0.0)	1 (25.0)	1 (33.3)	11 (26.2)
	R	6 (54.5)	2 (66.7)	6 (60.0)	5 (83.3)	2 (66.7)	2 (100.0)	3 (75.0)	2 (66.7)	28 (66.7)
Chloramphenicol	S	5 (45.5)	2 (66.7)	5 (50.0)	5 (83.3)	2 (66.7)	2 (100.0)	3 (75.0)	2 (66.7)	26 (61.9)
	IN	2 (18.2)	0 (0.0)	2 (20.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	4 (9.5)
	R	4 (36.4)	1 (33.3)	3 (30.0)	1 (16.7)	1 (33.3)	0 (0.0)	1 (25.0)	1 (33.3)	12 (28.6)
Ciprofloxacin	S	7 (63.6)	2 (66.7)	6 (60.0)	4 (66.7)	2 (66.7)	2 (100.0)	4 (100.0)	2 (66.7)	29 (69.0)
	IN	2 (18.2)	1 (33.3)	2 (20.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	5 (11.9)
	R	2 (18.2)	0 (0.0)	2 (20.0)	2 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (33.3)	8 (19.0)
Gentamicin	S	7 (63.6)	2 (66.7)	5 (50.0)	5 (83.3)	2 (66.7)	2 (100.0)	2 (50.0)	3 (100.0)	28 (66.7)
	IN	1 (9.1)	0 (0.0)	2 (20.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (7.1)
	R	3 (27.3)	1 (33.3)	3 (30.0)	1 (16.7)	1 (33.3)	0 (0.0)	2 (50.0)	0 (0.0)	11 (26.2)
Oxacillin	S	2 (18.2)	0 (0.0)	1 (10.0)	2 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	6 (14.3)
	IN	2(18.2)	0(0.0)	1 (10.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (50.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (33.3)	5 (11.9)
	R	7 (63.6)	3(100.0)	8 (80.0)	4 (66.7)	2 (66.7)	1 (50.0)	4 (100.0)	2 (66.7)	31 (73.8)
Penicillin	S	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (66.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (4.8)
	IN	1 (9.1)	0 (0.0)	1 (10.0)	2 (33.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (25.0)	0 (0.0)	5 (11.9)
	R	10 (90.9)	3(100.0)	9 (90.0)	4 (66.7)	1 (33.3)	2 (100.0)	3 (75.0)	3 (100.0)	35 (83.3)
Streptomycin	S	2 (18.2)	1 (33.3)	2 (20.0)	3 (50.0)	1 (33.3)	0 (0.0)	1 (25.0)	1 (33.3)	11 (26.2)
	IN	3 (27.3)	1 (33.3)	3 (30.0)	2 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	2 (100.0)	1 (25.0)	0 (0.0)	13 (31.0)
	R	6 (54.5)	1 (33.3)	5 (50.0)	1 (16.7)	1 (33.3)	0 (0.0)	2 (50.0)	2 (66.7)	18 (42.9)
Tetracycline	S	3 (27.3)	1 (33.3)	0 (0.0)	1 (16.7)	1 (33.3)	0 (0.0)	1 (25.0)	1 (33.3)	8 (19.0)
	IN	1 (9.1)	1 (33.3)	5 (50.0)	3 (50.0)	1 (33.3)	0 (0.0)	1 (25.0)	1 (33.3)	13 (31.0)
	R	7 (63.6)	1 (33.3)	5 (50.0)	2 (33.3)	1 (33.3)	2 (100.0)	2 (50.0)	1 (33.3)	21 (50.0)
Oxytetracycline	S	1 (9.1)	1 (33.3)	1 (10.0)	2 (33.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (25.0)	0 (0.0)	6 (14.3)
	IN	3 (27.3)	0 (0.0)	4 (40.0)	1 (16.7)	1 (33.3)	1 (50.0)	1 (25.0)	1 (33.3)	12 (28.6)
	R	7 (63.6)	2 (66.7)	5 (50.0)	3 (50.0)	2 (66.7)	1 (50.0)	2 (50.0)	2 (66.7)	24 (57.1)
Vancomycin	S	2 (18.2)	0 (0.0)	2 (20.0)	1 (16.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	5 (11.9)
	IN	4 (36.4)	1 (33.3)	1 (10.0)	1 (16.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (16.7)
	R	5 (45.5)	2 (66.7)	7 (70.0)	4 (66.7)	3	2 (100.0)	4 (100.0)	3 (100.0)	30 (71.4)
						(100.0)				

Table 4: Antibiotic susceptibility patterns of Gram-negative bacteria isolates from gills of *Clarias gariepinus* from selected fish farms in Kaduna State

Key: E. coli- *Escherichia coli,* Pro - *Proteus* species, Pseu- *Pseudomonas* species, Kleb- *Klebsiella* species, Aero- *Aeromonas* species, Salmo- *Salmonella* species, Citro - *Citrobacter* species, Shige- *Shigella* species. S: Sensitive; IN: Intermediate, R: Resistant

proliferation of the bacterial load observed in the gills (Sule *et al.*, 2016). It was found that the bacterial load was higher in gills of *C. gariepinus* cultured in earthen ponds compared with plastic tanks. The higher values could be due to sources of water used in earthen ponds. Water in earthen ponds is usually untreated surface water sourced from dams, streams, rivers, lakes and runoff water while, the underground water source is used in most of the concrete and plastic tanks (Moshood, 2017). Also, the rate of change of the water in the different holding facilities affected the microbial load, especially in concrete and plastic tanks where water is completely drained and refilled with fresh water while in earthen ponds topping system is practiced by adding more water to maintain specific volume or water levels. Moreso, excessive feed and faecal wastes are known to increase bacteria load in fish holding facilities which occur more in earthen ponds and can cause stress, weakness of the immune system with subsequent precipitation of diseases in earthen ponds (Olojo *et al.*, 2010). Gram-negative bacteria known to be pathogenic to the fish were the most prevalent bacteria isolated from the gills in this study, which was similar to the finding of Oni *et al.* (2013) and Njoku *et al.* (2015). The different genera of bacteria isolated in this study are similar to those reported by Njoku *et al.* (2015) and Sule *et al.* (2016). Most of the genera of bacteria isolated from the gills of *C. gariepinus* in this study have the tendency to cause serious diseases in fish and have high public health significance as they are zoonotic. The number of bacteria genera isolated in this study are similar to the report of Uddim & Al-Harbi (2012), who identified 12 possible bacteria genera from fish gills. However, this study differs from the reports of Fatuyi et al. (2014), Subhash et al. (2015), Abu & Uwadirioha (2016), and Wamala et al. (2018), who isolated 14, 13, 5, and 15 different bacteria genera respectively, in a similar study. Varying bacteria genera reported might be due to difference in locations, sampling and isolation methods. These genera are associated with tropical freshwater environment and have been isolated from water, sediments, planktons, invertebrates and digestive tracts of many aquatic animals (Austin & Austin, 2007).

The numbers of bacteria associated with the gill's lamellae are reported to be actively maintained at low levels to avoid invasion of the fish (Koppang *et al.*, 2015). However, the increasing intensive fish farming practice characterized by high stocking density, low water quality and increased human interference as observed in this study could increase stress on the fish making them prone to opportunistic infections (Lio-Po & Lim 2014).

The occurrence of Salmonella species and Shigella species may indicate contamination by livestock manure added to the fish ponds for pond fertilization. The isolation of Salmonella species, Shigella species, and *E. coli* is also an indication that the water in which the fish were reared was contaminated with faeces and as such could be a possible source of infection during handling by the farm workers (Traore et al., 2015). Similar observation was made by Osungbemiro et al. (2014) who reported that Salmonella species and Shigella species existed on the skin, gills and intestine of *C. gariepinus*. Furthermore, considering the role of fish in meeting the protein needs of humans and animals (poultry ration) (Mona et al., 2011), the presence of Salmonella species in fish gills could be a possible source of salmonellosis in humans and poultry especially in inappropriately preserved crude fish (Fernandes et al., 2018). Aquatic environment is the major reservoir of the Salmonella spp. (Bibi et al., 2015), which is the second leading cause of food borne illness worldwide (Wong & Chen, 2013), with about 1.3 billion annual cases in humans seen as human gastroenteritis caused by the ingestion of undercooked fish (Awuor et al., 2011). Also, Fujioka (2001) reported that Salmonella species and Escherichia coli can survive for very long periods in tropical waters and once introduced may become indigenous to the environment.

The presence of *Bacillus* species and *Pseudomonas* species in gills has been incriminated in the fast deterioration of *C. gariepinus* as soon as they are taken out of the water from ponds (Olojo *et al.*, 2010; Oni *et al.*, 2013).).

Varying antibiotic resistance has been overtly reported in fish production (Akinbowale et al., 2006; Adedeji et al., 2011) and these occurrences among different bacterial genera are very complex. Apart from natural resistance exhibited by some organisms, resistance has been reported to occur mainly as the consequences of the abuse of antimicrobial agents in aquaculture (WHO, 1999). Spanggard et al. (1993) suggested that bacterial groups that co-habit in a common environment may share a pool of R-factor plasmids and therefore have similar antibiotics resistant patterns. Beside these, other sources of resistant bacteria in aquaculture systems may be due to the rapid multiplication of few antibiotic-resistant organisms originally inhabiting the system or introduced from enteric tracts of fish. This multiplication is usually aided by the degradation of uneaten feed and organic manure used for pond fertilization. The high resistance of the Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria isolated in this study correlate with the findings of Samuel et al. (2011), Shah et al. (2012) and Ayandiran & Dahunsi (2017). Also as observed in this study, the same bacteria genera isolated from gills in the different holding facilities showed the varying level of antibiotic resistance (Ayandiran & Dahunsi, 2017). This might have resulted from the different environmental conditions, management systems and physiological mechanisms of survival. The emergence of antibiotic resistance of bacteria in fish production again calls for global concern as it poses a major public health threat (Magiorakos et al., 2012).

In conclusion, this study reported the presence of 12 bacteria genera in the gills of *C. gariepinus* with potential pathological implications on the fish and environment. Also, the presence of antibiotics resistance of bacteria in this study is suggestive of misuse and abuse of antibiotic in the fish production line in the study area. Thus, the presence of these bacteria in gills of *C. gariepinus* predict subsequent impediment to outstanding fish production processes from farm to table and carries notable socioeconomic losses, environmental contaminations and high public health risk (food borne disease). This study calls for concern and urgent intervention on antibiotic stewardship among fish farmers.

Acknowledgement

We are deeply grateful to the fish farmers and handlers for granting us access to their fish farms and the laboratory technologists for the work in the laboratory.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

- Abu OMG & Uwadirioha U (2016). Comparative study on bacterial load in intestine, gills and skin of cultured African catfish (*Clarias gariepinus*) from different locations in Rivers State, Nigeria. *International Journal of Innovative Studies in Aquatic Biology and Fisheries*, **2**(3): 21-29.
- Abubakar EM (2009). Antimicrobial susceptibility patterns of pathogenic bacteria causing urinary tract infection at the Specialist Hospital, Yola, Adamawa State, Nigeria. Journal of Clinical Medicine and Research, 1(1): 1-8.
- Adedeji OB, Emikpe BO & Adebisi T (2011). Bacterial load on the skin and stomach of *Clarias* gariepinus and Oreochromis niloticus from Ibadan, South West Nigeria: Pubic health implications. Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology Research, 1(1): 52-59.
- Adedeji OB & Onwenefah M (2013). The antibiotic resistance patterns of bacterial flora of cultured catfish fed with poultry hatchery waste from selected farms in Ibadan, Nigeria. *Researcher*, **5**(9): 37-43.
- Akinbowale OL, Peng H & Barton MD (2006). Antimicrobial resistance in bacteria isolated from aquaculture sources in Australia. *Journal of Applied Microbiology*, **100**(5): 1103–1113.
- Al-Harbi AH & Uddim MN (2008). Aerobic bacterial flora of common carp (*Cyprinus carpio L.*) cultured in earthen ponds in Saudi Arabia. *Journal of Applied Aquaculture*, **20**(2): 108-119.
- APHA (1993). Standard Method for the Examination of Water and Waste Water. American Public Health Association (EW Rice, AB Baird, AD Eaton, LS Clesceri, editors), Twentieth edition. Washington D. C. Pp 9-57.
- Asmaa HS, Nashwa E, Osman MH, Aboul EH & Vaclav S (2015). Water pollution detection system based on fish gills as a biomarker. *Procedia*

Computer 10.1016/j.procs.2015.09.004.

Austin B & Austin DA (2007). Bacterial Fish Pathogens. In: *Diseases of Farmed and Wild Fish*. Fourth edition, Praxis Publishing Ltd, Chichester, UK. Pp 7-16.

Science,

- Awuor WS, Miruka OD & Eliud WN (2011). Charaterisation of *Salmonella* isolated from Nile Tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*) along Lake Victoria Beaches in Western Kenya. *World Academic of Science Engineering Technology*, doi.10.5281/ZENODO.1329651.
- Ayandiran TA & Dahunsi SO (2017). Microbial evaluation and occurrence of antidrug multi resistant organisms among indigenous *Clarias spp* in River Oluwa, Nigeria. *Journal of King Saud University Science*, **29**(1): 96-105.
- Barrow GI & Feitham RKA (2003). Cowan and Steel's Manual for the Identification of Medical Bacteria, third edition. Cambridge University Press. Pp 158 -226.
- Bibi F, Qaisrani SN, Ahmad AN, Akhtar M, Khan BN & Ali Z (2015). Occurrence of salmonella in freshwater fishes: A review. *The Journal of Animal and Plant Sciences*, **25**(3): 303-310.
- Brauner CJ & Rombough K (2012). Ontogeny and paleophysiology of the gill: Insight from larval and air breathing fish. *Respiratory Physiology and Neurobiology*, 1**84**(3): 293-300.
- CLSI (2015) Performance Standards for Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing. In: Information Supplement M100-S17. Clinical Laboratory and Standards Institute, Wayne, PA, USA. Pp 76–79.
- Daodu OB, Amosun EA & Oluwayelu DO (2017). Antibiotic resistance profiling and microbiota of the upper respiratory tract of apparently healthy dogs in Ibadan, South west Nigeria. *African Journal of Infectious Diseases*, **11**(1): 1-11.
- FAO (2018). The State of World Fisheries and Aquaculture. Food and Agriculture Organization, Rome. Pp 223.
- Fatuyi OE, Daniel OD & Emmanuel AF (2014). Composition, distribution and antibiotic sensitivities of bacteria associated with cultured *Clarias gariepinus* (Burchell 1822). *Malaysian Journal of Microbiology*, **10**(2):72-79.
- Fernandes DV, Castro GS, Vinicius S, Cunha N, Adelino DA & Figueiredo EE (2018). *Salmonella* spp.

in the fish production chain: A review. *Ciência Rurale*, **48**(8): 141-152.

- Fujioka RS (2001). Monitoring coastal marine water for spore-forming bacteria of faecal and soil origin to determine point from non-point source pollution. Water Science Technology, 44 (7): 181-188.
- Hossain S, Sharker R, Haque SA, Reza S & Mondal AH (2014). Effects of antibiotic on the bacterial microflora in two commercially important catfish species, *Clarias batrachus* and *Heteropneustes fossilis* in Bangladesh. *Journal of Coastal Life Medicine*, **2**(11): 845-848.
- KSGC (2015). Kaduna State Geographical Center, www.kadunastate.gov.ng, retrieved 25-06-2018.
- Koppang EO, Kvellestad A & Fischer U (2015). Fish mucosal immunity: Gill in Mucosal Health in Aquaculture. Page 93-133
- Lio-Po GD & Lim LHS (2014). Infectious Diseases of Warmwater Fish in Fresh Water. In: *Diseases and disorders of finfish in cage culture*, PTK *Woo, DW Bruno, LHS Lim, editors*), Second edition, CABI Publishing Wallingford, UK. Pp 231-281.
- Magiorakos AP, Srinivasan A, Carey RB, Carmeli Y, Falagas ME, Giske CG, Harbarth S, Hindler JF, Kahlmeter G, Olsson Liljequist B & Paterson DL (2012). Multidrug resistant, extensively drug resistant and pandrug resistant bacteria: an international expert proposal for interim standard definitions for acquired resistance. *Clinical Microbiology and Infection*, **18**(3): 268-281.
- Miranda CD, Godoy FA & Lee MR (2018). Current status of the use of antibiotics and the antimicrobial resistance in the Chilean salmon farms. *Frontier in Microbiology*, doi.10.3389/fmicb.2018.01284.
- Mona SZ, Nabila E, Olfat MF, Isis A & Nagara SA (2011). Effect of mercuric oxide toxicity on some biochemical parameters on African cat fish *Clarias gariepinus* present in the river Nile. *Life Science Journal*, **8** (1): 363-368.
- Moshood KM (2017). Comparative assessment of the water quality of four types of aquaculture ponds under different culture systems. *Advanced Research in Life Sciences*, **1**(1): 104-110.
- Njoku OE, Agwa OK & Ibiere AA (2015). An investigation of the microbiological and physicochemical profile of some fish ponds

water within Niger Delta of Nigeria. *African Journal of Food Science*, **9**(3): 155–162.

- Olojo EAA, Amusa NA, Osho A & Badejo VO (2010). Commensal bacterial flora of *Synodontis nigrita* and *Clarias gariepinus* from River Osun, South West, Nigeria. *Research Journal of Applied Science*, 10.3923/rjasci.2010.235.
- Oni TA, Olaleye VF & Omafuvbe BO (2013). Preliminary studies on associated bacterial and fungal load of artificially cultured *Clarias* gariepinus (Burchell, 1822) fingerlings. *Ife* Journal of Science, **15**(1): 15-19.
- Osungbemiro NR, Rafiu OS, Rotimi F & Olaniyan AOO (2014). Bacteria flora in the gut and respiratory organs of *Clarias gariepinus* in Fresh and Brackish water habitats of Ondo State, South/West Nigeria. *International Journal of Animal and Veterinary Sciences*, **8** (6): 558-561.
- Ozigbo E, Ayaraike C, Adegbite O & Kolawole P (2014). Review of aquaculture production and management in Nigeria. *American Journal of Experimental Agriculture*, **4**(10): 112 – 121.
- Pal M, Ketema A, Anberber M, Mulu S & Dutta, Y (2016). Microbial quality of fish and fish products. *Beverage and Food World*, **43**(2): 46-49.
- Samuel L, Marian MM, Apun K, Lesley MB & Son R (2011). Characterization of *Escherichia coli* isolated from cultured catfish by antibiotic resistance and RAPD analysis, *International Food Research Journal*, **18**(3): 971-976.
- Shah SQ, Colquhoun DJ, Nikuli HL & Sørum, H (2012).
 Prevalence of antibiotic resistance genes in the bacterial flora of integrated fish farming environments of Pakistan and Tanzania.
 Environmental Science and Technology, 46(16): 8672-8679.
- Spanggard B, Jorgenses FG & Huss HH (1993). Antibiotic resistance in bacteria isolated from three freshwater farms and an unpolluted stream in Denmark. *Aquaculture*, **115**(3-4): 195-207.
- Subhash W, Shivaji K, Navnath P & Shivaji C (2015). Opportunistic pathogens in the mucous of skin, gills, fins and mouth of *Labeo rohita*. *International Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Studies*, **3**(1): 169-172.
- Sule IO, Agbabiaka TO, Ahmed RN, Saliu BK& Olayinka KJ (2016). Bacteriological and physicochemical analysis of waste water from fish ponds. *Ethiopian Journal of*

Environmental studies and Management, **9**(2): 167 – 178.

- Traoré O, Nyholm O, Siitonen A, Juste I, Bonkoungou O,Traoré AS, Barro N & Haukka K (2015). Prevalence and diversity of *Salmonella enterica* in water, fish and lettuce in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso. *BMC Microbiology*, doi.10.1186/s12866-015-0484-7.
- Tsutsui S, Komatsu Y, Suquira T, Araki K & Nakamura O (2011). A unique epidermal mucous lectin identified from catfish (*Silumi sasotus*): First evidence of intelectin in fish skin slime. *Journal of Biochemistry*, **150**(5): 501-514.
- Uddim MN & Al-Harbi AH (2012). Bacterial flora of polycultured common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) and African catfish (*Clarias gariepinus*).

International Aquatic Research, 10.1186/2008-6970-4-10.

- Wamala SP, Mugimba KK, Mutoloki SO, Evensen RM, Byarugaba DK & Sørum H (2018). Occurrence and antibiotic susceptibility of fish bacteria isolated from *Oreochromis niloticus* (Nile tilapia) and *Clarias gariepinus* (African catfish) in Uganda. *Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences*, **21**(6): 2-10.
- WHO (1999) Joint FAO/NACA/WHO Study group on food safety issues associated with products from aquaculture *WHO Technical Report Series.* Pp 883.
- Wong MHY & Chen S (2013). First detection of oqxAB in *Salmonella* spp. isolated from food. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy*, **57**(1): 658-660.