Distribution of Colonization and Antimicrobial Resistance Genes in *Campylobacter jejuni* Isolated from Chicken

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Abstract

Campylobacter jejuni is an important worldwide foodborne pathogen commonly found as a commensal organism in poultry that can reach high numbers within the gut after colonization. Although information regarding some genes involved in colonization is available, little is known about their distribution in strains isolated specifically from chickens and whether there is a linkage between antimicrobial resistance (AMR) and colonization genes. To assess the distribution and relevance of genes associated with chicken colonization and AMR, a C. jejuni microarray was created to detect 254 genes of interest in colonization and AMR including variants. DNA derived from chicken-specific Campylobacter isolates collected in 2003 (n=29) and 2008 (n=28) was hybridized to the microarray and compared. Hybridization results showed variable colonization-associated gene presence. Acquired AMR genes were low in prevalence whereas chemotaxis receptors, arsenic resistance genes, as well as genes from the cell envelope and flagella functional groups were highly variable in their presence. Strains clustered into two groups, each linked to different control strains, 81116 and NCTC11168. Clustering was found to be independent of collection time. We also show that AMR weakly associated with the CJ0628 and *ars*R genes. Although other studies have implicated numerous genes associated with C. jejuni chicken colonization, our data on chicken-specific isolates suggest the opposite. The enormous variability in presumed colonization gene prevalence in our chicken isolates suggests that many are of lesser importance than previously thought. Alternatively, this also suggests that combinations of genes may be required for natural colonization of chicken intestines.

Introduction

CAMPYLOBACTER JEJUNI IS A MAJOR foodborne pathogen. Human campylobacteriosis has been linked to consumption and mishandling of contaminated poultry (Young *et al.*, 2007). One way to reduce human exposure to *C. jejuni* would be to control pathogen levels at the farm (Nauta *et al.*, 2009). In order to do so, a better understanding of the dynamic existing between *C. jejuni* and its chicken host is needed (Hermans *et al.*, 2011).

Several studies have identified genes that may be associated with chicken colonization (Hermans *et al.*, 2011): flagella/ motility/chemotaxis (*fliA*, *pglE*, *pflA*, *motA*, *cheY*, *rpoN*, *fliA*) (Wassenaar *et al.*, 1993; Hendrixson and DiRita, 2004; Fernando *et al.*, 2007), stress tolerance (*katA*, *AhpC*, *sodB*, *ahpC* PKK) (Klancnik *et al.*, 2009; Palyada *et al.*, 2009; Gangaiah *et al.*, 2010), efflux pump (*cmeABC*) (Lin and Martinez, 2006; Quinn *et al.*, 2007), nutrient acquisition and use (*cj1403*, *cj1198*, *cfrA*)

(Palyada et al., 2004; Metris et al., 2011), secreted protein (cia) (Biswas et al., 2007), and adhesins (cadF, dnaJ, pldA, porA) (Ziprin et al., 2001; Hiett et al., 2008). The link existing between genes and chicken colonization is often validated using single strains and transposition mutants (Javed et al., 2010), without comparison of their presence in a large population of field strains. There are still knowledge gaps in their exact distribution and stability over time in chicken strains. Gaining more knowledge on their distribution would be helpful to better understand field strain genetic diversity in regard to chicken colonization and to establish which genes are more important in strains isolated from a commercial setting. Two separate reviews on Campylobacter chicken colonization (Dasti et al., 2010; Hermans et al., 2011) have stressed that more comprehensive studies are necessary in order to understand the relative importance of colonization factors, which could help in the design of suitable farm control strategies.

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Although virulence has been linked with antimicrobial resistance (AMR) (Pitout, 2012), such linkages are less clear in *C. jejuni* despite the fact that AMR is increasingly recognized as an important public health threat (Alfredson and Korolik, 2007). Monitoring of the association of *C. jejuni* colonization traits and AMR is important in order to anticipate the emergence of highly adapted strains due to the use of antimicrobial agents during rearing.

Given their inherent parallel processing power, microarrays are useful tools for assessing the genetic contents of a bacterial isolate. With regard to *Campylobacter*, they have been successfully used in comparative hybridization studies (Wilson *et al.*, 2010), to measure differential gene expression levels (Malik-Kale *et al.*, 2008), for typing (Rodin *et al.*, 2008), for the detection of *Campylobacter* in various environmental matrices (Suo *et al.*, 2010), and in epidemiological studies (Hepworth *et al.*, 2011; Marotta *et al.*, 2012). To our knowledge, no comprehensive microarray studies have focused on correlating the distribution of chicken colonization genes and their possible association with AMR in *C. jejuni* strictly isolated from chickens.

The aim of this study was to describe the relative distribution of genes related to chicken colonization and AMR, in strains isolated from cecal contents sampled at slaughterhouses, using a custom DNA microarray. This study also assessed the data for any association of the detected genes with the year of isolation as well as correlations between AMR and colonization genes.

Materials and Methods

Strains and media

Isolates collected in 2003 and 2008 were recovered from chickens at slaughter (average of 37 days of age) using the same method as described elsewhere (Arsenault et al., 2007). Thirty individual 1-g cecal samples were taken from different lots and then pooled in three 10-g samples. Samples were mixed 1:1 (wt/vol) in peptone buffered water (AES Laboratory, Montreal, Québec, Canada), directly streaked on mCCDA Agar (Oxoïd, Nepean, Ontario, Canada) and incubated at 42°C for 48 h in a microaerobic atmosphere using Oxoïd's Atmosphere Generation System with the Campylobacter gas generation kit. Typical colonies (ASPC MFLP-46) were purified on mCCDA Agar (Oxoïd) and plated on trypticase soy agar (TSA) 5% sheep blood agar (PML Microbiologicals [Quélab], Montreal, Quebec, Canada). Typical isolates (small Gramnegative spiral-shaped bacteria, motile) (Thibodeau et al., 2011) were further identified to the species level by polymerase chain reaction as previously described (Inglis and Kalischuk, 2003). A total of 57 C. jejuni confirmed isolates (29 from 16 lots in 2003 and 28 from 9 lots in 2008) were used in this study.

Control strains *C. jejuni* RM1221 (#BAA-1062, chicken carcass origin [Fouts *et al.*, 2005]), *C. jejuni* NCTC11168 (#BAA-33291, human origin [Gundogdu *et al.*, 2007]), and *Escherichia coli* ATCC 25922 were acquired from Cedarlane (Ontario, Canada). Strains *C. jejuni* 81–176 (human origin [Pearson *et al.*, 2007]) and *C. jejuni* 81116 (human origin [Hofreuter *et al.*, 2006]) were a kind gift from Dr. Shaun Cawthraw, Veterinary Laboratories Agency, United Kingdom. All strains were kept at –80°C in Brucella broth containing 0.1% agar and 25% glycerol. To minimize strain genetic variations, all experiments were started from an aliquot taken from a new –80°C stock, thus avoiding potential variations caused by the use of a single colony for starting inoculums. Strains were cultured on mCCDA, Mueller Hinton Agar (Oxoïd) or TSA sheep blood agar when needed.

Microarray gene selection and probe design

The *C. jejuni* microarray V1 was composed of 70-mer oligonucleotide probes specific for genes associated with envelope biosynthesis, pathogenesis, chemotaxis/mobility, detoxification, metabolism, transport and nutrient binding, global regulation, hypothetical or unclassified functions, and AMR genes. They were chosen based on a literature review of genes or functional groups involved to different degrees in chicken colonization.

Oligonucleotides were designed (see Supplementary Table S1; Supplementary Data are available online at www.liebertpub .com/fpd) as described previously with some modifications (Bruant *et al.*, 2006). Some AMR probe sequences were derived from a published microarray (Hamelin *et al.*, 2007). The rest of the probes were design using the YODA program (Nordberg, 2005). Probes were based on GenBank sequences including, whenever possible, sequences from the chicken strain RM1221 as a template. The specificity of each oligonucleotide sequence was individually verified through Blastn searches (nr/nt database, *Campylobacter jejuni* taxid 197, word size of 11) in GenBank. Details on probe specificity are given in supplementary Table S1. Probes were synthesized by Operon (Huntsville, AL) and printed at the National Research Council (Montreal, Quebec, Canada).

Microarray construction

Positive controls included *groEL* (*cpn60*, designed in this study) (Chaban *et al.*, 2009) for the identification of *Campylobacter* genera as well as *map*A and *hip*O for the confirmation of *C. jejuni* species (Inglis and Kalischuk, 2003). A universal probe, EUB, able to hybridize to prokaryotic 16S rRNA genes was also added as a positive control (Maynard *et al.*, 2005). The newly designed probe for *Arabidopsis thaliana* chlorophyll synthetase gene (*ara*) was included as a negative control. The complete array was composed of four subarrays, in which each oligonucleotide was printed in duplicate (except EUB, which was printed four times) on Corning Ultra GAPStm slides (Corning Canada, Whitby, Ontario) (Fig. 1). Three complete independent arrays were printed on the same slide. Some printing spots were left empty (printing buffer only) (Fig. 1).

DNA extraction, labeling, and hybridization

C. jejuni isolates were plated on mCCDA agar from a single -80° C storage aliquot. They were incubated 24 h at 42°C then streaked on Mueller-Hinton agar. DNA was extracted using the commercial Qiagen DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Toronto, ON, Canada) following the manufacturer's instructions. DNA labeling and hybridization was performed according to the protocol described in another study (Bruant *et al.*, 2006). Complete details are provided in the Supplementary Materials and Methods.

Microarray analysis and validation

Arrays were read using a ScanArray Lite fluorescent scanner and the resulting images were analyzed with Scan-Array Express version 1.1 (Canberra-Packard, Mississauga,



FIG. 1. Hybridization of the NCTC11168 strain to the custom microarray. 1, positive control (EUB); 2, *Campylobacter* sp. control (*GroEL*); 3, *C. jejuni* control (*mapA* and *hipO*); 4, negative control (ara); 5, printing buffer (empty). Gray and white spots represent a positive hybridization.

ON, Canada). After an initial visual inspection of the image was performed, a numerical analysis of the fluorescence obtained for each probe was carried out. For each hybridized strain, a probe was considered positive if the mean of the median probe fluorescence of the duplicates was above 1000 fluorescence units and four times higher than the background. The background was determined as the mean fluorescence of the negative control (*ara*) and empty spots (printing buffer). Microarray validation was done by multiple hybridizations of the four control *C. jejuni* strains. *C. coli* LSPQ 3655 (lab strain) and *E. coli* ATCC 25922 were used as negative controls. For each control strain, total DNA was extracted from three distinct fresh cultures, labeled, and hybridized to the microarray slides.

Statistical analysis

Microarray results were analyzed with the TMeV 5 program (Hannon *et al.*, 2009); a dendrogram was derived from the presence of all genes (genes and variants) with heterologous hybridization (Euclidian distance and single linkage for clustering). Cluster stability (percent) was defined by subjecting the chosen clusters to 500 bootstrapping iterations in TMeV 5. The Fisher's exact test (S-Plus, v8) and Bonferroni correction were used to assess the association of specific genes to strains clusters or to a recovery time. The relevance network analysis was also carried out using TMeV 5 with a minimal correlation value of 0.9. For all statistical analysis, α was fixed at 0.05.

Results

Gene distribution and correlation

All strains were positive for 94 genes (see Supplementary Table S1), which were distributed in the following fashion: 14

AMR, four envelope biosynthesis, seven pathogenesis, 11 chemotaxis/mobility, five detoxification, five metabolism, 32 transport and nutrient binding, three regulation, five hypothetical, and four unclassified genes including four controls. Although all probes on the microarray have been validated, a total of 13 genes were never detected in any of the strains in this study (see Supplementary Table S1) while most probes (147) demonstrated a variable presence, ranging from 2% to 98% (Table 1).

Relevance network analysis identified some co-linked genes (see Supplementary Tables S2–S4). Among the 2008 strains, the presence of an antibiotic resistance gene (*aph*A-3, coding for resistance to the aminoglycoside kanamycin [Gibreel *et al.*, 2004]) correlated with a variant of a colonization gene (*CJ0628*, a lipoprotein, putative autotransporter, mediating adherence and invasion of epithelial cells [Ashgar *et al.*, 2007]). In the 2003 strains, the presence of *CJE900*, a metallo- β -lactamase family protein, correlated with the presence of a variant of *ars*R, an arsenic resistance operon repressor.

Strains comparison

Dendrogram analysis, based on the heterogeneous presence of the genes, made it possible to divide the strains into two main groups (Fig. 2). A total of 24 strains were clustered in a group that included strain 81116 and 35 others with strain NCTC11168. These two groups were separated by a total of 37 genes (Table 2). Strain comparisons revealed that they mainly aggregated together according to their origin (lot; i.e., a group of chickens raised on the same farm and processed the same day) rather than the collection time period (Fig. 2), even though strains recovered from a specific sampling year were exclusively positive for some probes (Table 1). Control strains 81–176, RM1221, and *C. coli* were distant to all hybridized strains.

Discussion

Microarray

This novel study assessed the distribution of chicken colonization-associated genes and their correlation with antimicrobial resistance genes in a chicken-specific strain collection with the use of a newly customized DNA microarray. The microarray was found to be a reliable tool for the evaluation of 254 genes, including the detection of gene variants up to a 10% homology divergence. The designed probes were specific, as demonstrated by the C. coli and E. coli negative control hybridizations. The design of the microarray, as well the conservative cut-off criteria used to define positivity for a given probe, possibly resulted in an underestimation of the effective gene presence. However, this approach lowers the likelihood of reporting false-positive results and consequently increased the robustness of the hybridization data. As an example, more than 90% of the strains were positive for *cpr*R, a gene associated with regulatory functions. This was expected, considering the essential roles it plays for all bacterial functions (Raphael et al., 2005). The missing 10% is presumably due to sequence variants not covered by our new probes. It is important to note that our microarray may not be able to detect subtle genomic changes that may have an impact on the C. jejuni phenotype (Gaynor et al., 2004). Phenotypic properties of our strains will be determined in a future study.

1ABLE 1. VARIABLE GENE OCCURRENCE OF CAMPYLOBACTER JEJUNI POULTRY STRAINS KECOVERED FROM QUEBEC FLOCE

Occurrence					
Classification	Gene	Total (%)	2003 (%)	2008 (%)	Gene description
Antimicrobial	aadE	2	0	4	Streptomycin resistance protein
resistance	aphA-3	16	0	32	Aminoglycosidase
	omp50	17	30 ^a	4^{b}	50 kda outer membrane protein
	CJÉ0900v1	28	17	39	Metallo- β -lactamase family protein variant
	tetO	67	77	57	Tetracycline resistance
	CJE0900	74	87 ^a	61 ^b	Metallo- β -lactamase family protein
	CJE0175	84	79	90	Antibiotic transport protein, putative
	CJE1885	93	100 ^a	86 ^b	Acetyltransferase, GNAT family
	bla-oxa61	97	100	93	β -Lactamase
	uppP	97	100	93	Undecaprenyl-diphosphatase
	CJ1173	97	97	96	Multidrug resistance protein, SMR family
	cmeE	98	100	96	Multidrug efflux system CmeDEF
	macA	98	100	96	Macrolide-specific efflux protein macA
Cell envelope	Glf	2	3	0	UDP-galactopyranose mutase
_	CJE1515	3	0	7	Formyltransferase putative
	waaFv1	5	10	0	ADP-heptose–LPS heptosyltransferase II variant
	CJE1278	9	0	17	Lipooligosaccharide biosynthesis galactosyltransferase
	CJ1677nter	10	13	7	Putative lipoprotein autotransporter n-terminal
	CI1677	10	13	7	Putative lipoprotein autotransporter
	wcbK v1	16	20	11	GDP-mannose 4,6-dehydratase, capsular
	CI0628	26	40^{a}	11 ^b	Putative lipoprotein autotransporter
	CI0628v2	29	26	32	Putative lipoprotein autotransporter variant 2
	C8I 1083	38	36	39	Hypothetical, lipooligosaccharide biosynthesis
	CI0628v1	41	40	43	Putative lipoprotein autotransporter variant 1
	CI0628nter	50	56	43	Putative lipoprotein autotransporter n-terminal
	CIE1277	52	53	50	Lipooligosaccharide biosynthesis glycosyltransferase
	pglE(2)	69	80	57	UDP-4-keto-6-deoxy-GlcNAc C4 aminotransferase
	<i>ptm</i> C	81	97 ^a	64 ^b	N-Acetylneuraminic acid synthetase
	, CI1321	81	86	75	Probable transferase
	pglF	90	96	82	UDP-GlcNAc C4,6 dehydratase
	CIE0821	93	90	96	Putative integral membrane protein
	neuC	95	100	89	DP-N-acetylglucosamine 2-epimerase
	acpP2v1	95	100	89	Putative Acyl carrier protein
	waaF	98	97	100	ADP-heptose-LPS heptosyltransferase II
	waaM	98	100	97	Lipid A biosynthesis lauroyl acyltransferase
Chemotaxis and	Maf1 ^c	12	0^{a}	25^{b}	Motility accessory factor
motility	CJE0312	26	16	36	Methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein
inotinty	CIE0140	31	53 ^a	7 ^b	Methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein
	Maf3	33	40	25	Motility accessory factor
	CIE0314	34	43	23	Methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein
	CIE03112	43	60 ^a	25 ^b	Methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein
	motA	59	60	57	Putative flagellar motor proton channel
	Maf5	71	80	61	Motility accessory factor
	cetA	81	87	75	Methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein
	Maf4	84	97 ^a	71 ^b	Motility accessory factor
	CIE1679	86	96 ^a	75^{b}	Methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein
	docBv1	90	100 ^a	79 ^b	Methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein variant 1
	CJ1564	91	87	96	Methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein
	Maf2	93	100 ^a	86 ^b	Motility accessory factor
	CJE1325	95	97	93	Methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein
	flaC.	97	93	100	Flagellin C
	fliM	97	100	93	Flagellar motor switch protein M
	cheR	98	100	96	Chemotaxis protein methyltransferase CheR
	fleK	98	100	96	Flagellar hook-associated protein
	flgE2	98	100	96	Flagellar hook–subunit protein
Detoxification	arsC	47	50	43	Arsenate reductase
	arsC2	47	50	43	Arsenate reductase probe 2

TABLE 1. CONTINUED

			Occurrence		
Classification	Gene	Total (%)	2003 (%)	2008 (%)	Gene description
	arsRv1 arsR	71 90	80 96	61 82	Arsenical resistance operon repressor variant 1 Arsenical resistance operon repressor
Hypothetical proteins	C8J_0065 ^c C8J_0035 CJJ81176_063 C8J_0035v1 C8J_0267 C8J_1456 C8J_0988 CJE1893 CJ1325 CJ0223 CJ1325 CJ0223 CJ1322 CJ1322 CJ1323 CJ1324 CJE0147 CJ1417 CJ1420 <i>lolA</i> CJE0469	9 9 9 10 11 28 43 52 52 57 67 71 74 83 95 97 97 98 98 98	$\begin{array}{c} 0^{a} \\ 0^{a} \\ 10 \\ 0^{a} \\ 3 \\ 7 \\ 43^{a} \\ 43 \\ 60 \\ 60 \\ 60 \\ 60 \\ 60 \\ 76 \\ 80 \\ 87^{a} \\ 87 \\ 97 \\ 100 \\ 93 \\ 97 \\ 100 \\ 93 \\ 97 \\ 100 \\ \end{array}$	18b 7 18b 18 15 11b 43 43 43 54 57 61 61b 79 93 93 100 100 96	Hypothetical protein Hypothetical protein Conserved hypothetical protein Hypothetical protein variant 1 Hypothetical protein Hypothetical protein Hypothetical protein Hypothetical protein Putative methyltransferase Pseudogene putative IgA protease family protein Hypothetical protein Hypothetical protein Hypothetical protein Hypothetical protein Hypothetical protein Putative amidotransferase Putative methyltransferase Outer-membrane lipoprotein carrier protein precursor Putative periplasmic protein
Metabolism	hsdsv1 CJEIv1 Ggt ^c Dns CJEIv2 dmsA hsds hsdsv2 Met CJEI trxB ccpA-1 ctpA	5 7 9 16 16 43 45 45 52 74 95 95 98	$ \begin{array}{r} 10 \\ 10 \\ 13 \\ 0^{a} \\ 7 \\ 23 \\ 43 \\ 50 \\ 46 \\ 60 \\ 63 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 10 \\ 10 \\ 10 \\ 10 \\ 10 \\ 10 \\$	0 0 18 ^b 23 7 43 32 43 43 43 86 89 89 96	Hypothetical protein, Hsds gene variant 1 Type II restriction-modification enzyme variant 1 γ -Glutamyltransferase Extracellular deoxyribonuclease Type II restriction-modification enzyme variant 2 Anaerobic dimethyl sulfoxide reductase chain A Hypothetical protein, Hsds gene Hypothetical protein, Hsds gene variant 2 Homoserine <i>O</i> -acetyltransferase Type II restriction-modification enzyme Thioredoxin-disulfide reductase Cytochrome c551 peroxidase Carboxyl-terminal protease
Pathogenesis	Flav2 flaBv1 flaA virB11 ^c Flav1 ^c CJE1470 porA fla porAv1 CJ1371 pflA flaBv2 ptmB Ptma flaAv1 flaAv2 flaB cjaA	5 5 9 10 38 40 40 50 52 66 78 79 90 91 93 93 93 93 93 98	$\begin{array}{c} 0\\ 0\\ 0\\ 0\\ 20^{a}\\ 27\\ 30\\ 36\\ 37\\ 73^{a}\\ 53\\ 100\\ 97^{a}\\ 100^{a}\\ 100\\ 100^{a}\\ 100^{a}\\ 100^{a}\\ 97\\ \end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{c} 11\\ 11\\ 18\\ 0^{b}\\ 50\\ 50\\ 43\\ 64\\ 29^{b}\\ 79\\ 54\\ 61^{b}\\ 79^{b}\\ 82\\ 86^{b}\\ 86^{b}\\ 86^{b}\\ 86^{b}\\ 100\\ \end{array} $	Flagellin (A and B) 81176 and 81116 Flagellin B 81176 and 81116 Flagellin A 81176 and 81116 Putative type IV secretion system Flagellin (A and B) RM1221 Toxin-antitoxin protein, putative Major outer membrane protein Hypothetical protein Flagellin (A and B) NCTC11168 Major outer membrane protein variant 1 Putative lipoprotein vaCJ homologue Paralysed flagellum protein Flagellin B NCTC11168 Flagellin modification protein B Flagellin modification protein A Flagellin A RM1221 Flagellin B RM1221 and NCTC11168 Surface antigen CJaA
Plasmid Regulatory functions Transport and	pCJ419_p4 ^c cprR racR cfrAv1	9 90 98 2	0 ^a 80 ^a 97 3	18 ^b 100 ^b 100 0	Plasmid putative protein DNA-binding response regulator Two-component regulator Ferric receptor CfrA variant 1
nutrient binding	CJE1754 CJ1584v1	10 16	17 20	4 11	Peptide ABC transporter, permease protein Putative peptide ABC-transport system periplasmic peptide-binding protein variant 1

			Occurrence		
Classification	Gene	Total (%)	2003 (%)	2008 (%)	Gene description
	CJE0534	38	36	39	Tartrate transporter, putative
	CJE1730	53	50	57	Permease, putative
	lctP	55	66	43	L-Lactate permease
	CJE0171	55	53	57	Putative TonB-dependent outer membrane receptor
	cfrA	57	57	57	Ferric receptor CfrA, erric enterobactin uptake receptor
	CJE1728	57	73 ^a	39 ^b	Permease putative
	CJE1820	65	73	54	ABC transporter, periplasmic substrate-binding protein, putative
	CJE1193	81	83	79	Transporter, LysE family
	CJE0830	84	87	82	ABC transporter, permease protein
	CJE0827	88	93	82	ABC transporter, periplasmic substrate-binding protein
	CJE0831	88	93	82	ABC transporter, permease protein
	CJ1584	90	100 ^a	79 ^b	Putative peptide ABC-transport system periplasmic peptide-binding protein
	CIE0937	91	100 ^a	82 ^b	Maior facilitator family protein
	ciaC	93	100	86	Histidine transporter
	, kgtP	95	100	89	α-Ketoglutarate permease
	dcuB	97	93	100	Anaerobic C4-dicarboxylate membrane transporter
	CJE0138	98	100	97	Cation ABC transporter periplasmic cation-binding protein
	CJE0289	98	100	96	Mechanosensitive ion channel family protein
	CJE1833	98	97	100	ABC transporter, permease protein
	dtpT	98	97	100	Di-/tripeptide transporter
	CJE0980	98	100	96	Amino acid ABC transporter, His/Glu/Gln/ Arg/family
Unknown/	<i>pse</i> D ^c	5	0	11	Hypothetical protein, pseD (81176)
unclassified	rloA	45	47	43	Hypothetical protein rloA
	rloB	45	47	36	Hypothetical protein rloB
	CIE1719	48	40	57	Putative NADP-dependent alcohol dehydrogenase
	CJE1719v1	53	63	43	Putative NADP-dependent alcohol dehydrogenase, variant 1
	CJE1538	83	93 ^a	71 ^b	Putative fibronectin/fibrinogen-binding protein
	CJE0464	98	97	100	Oxidoreductase, putative, putative GMC oxidoreductase subunit
	CJJ81176_024	98	100	96	Hypothetical protein

TABLE	1.	CONTINUED

Total presence (%) of genes, following the microarray hybridizations, for all 57 strains: 2003 occurrence (%) was on 29 strains and 2008 occurrence (%) was on 28 strains. Genes that were present or absent in all strains are presented in Supplementary Table S1. Complete details on the genes and associated probes are given in Supplementary Table S1.

^aStatistically different from ^busing Fisher's exact test (p < 0.05).

^cGenes found only in isolates recovered in 2003 or in 2008. Statistically different genes between the collections periods, using Bonferroni correction, are highlighted in bold.

The *C. jejuni* genome contains 2427 gene families with an estimated 1295 gene families found in its core genome (Friis *et al.*, 2010). It has been observed that minor nucleotide sequence variations in its core genome, such as mutations in flagella, lipooligosaccharide (LOS), or regulation genes, might account for differential *C. jejuni* pathogenicity in strains indistinguishable by comparative genomic hybridization or pulse-field gel electrophoresis (Duong and Konkel, 2009). Consequently, using probes able to detect gene variants became attractive in order to study *C. jejuni* colonization genes.

Distribution of genes with heterogeneous occurrence

Our data showed a large variation in the distribution of genes monitored by our microarray. As already observed, genes coding for the flagella and the cell envelope were the most variable (Taboada *et al.*, 2004) while many genes (37), in the transport and nutrient binding groups, were more conserved. In an independent study (Marotta *et al.*, 2012), the virulence gene content of different *Campylobacter* species isolated from different sources (i.e., humans and milk in addition to chicken [carcass and cecum]), was also found to be variable. Due to the different sources of isolation, parallels between the two studies are tenuous. However, some important differences were noted. For example, in their paper, *C. jejuni* strains originating from chicken feces showed variability in the presence of *cdt*A, B, and C, unlike our study where they were present in all isolates. Furthermore, *flaB* was never found in *C. jejuni*, while it was found in the majority of our isolates (93%). In contrast, *waaM, neuC, flgK*,



FIG. 2. Strain comparisons based on differential gene presence. Two clusters are resolved: cluster A associated with the 81116 reference strain (Bootstrapping value of 52%) while cluster B associated with the NCTC11168 strain (Bootstrapping value of 87%). Strains and Euclidean distance are presented horizontally. The last column lists the strains. Strain identification begins with a letter (example H2008b) representing the lot origin, followed by the year (example H2008b) of sampling and ends with an identification letter (example H2008b) to differentiate between strains isolated from the same lot.

fliM, *pglE*, and *motA* were conserved in all *C. jejuni* isolated from chicken feces while their presence was highly variable in our strain collection. Interestingly, both studies show that genes cj0903c and *ciaB* were found in all tested *C. jejuni* strains. Finally, the strains in our study displayed more genetic diversity. These differences were presumably due to the incorporation of gene variants into our microarray design and possibly also to the different geographical origins of the strains used by both studies.

 TABLE 2. GENES DIFFERENTIATING TWO MAJOR

 POPULATIONS OF CAMPYLOBACTER JEJUNI

 IDENTIFIED BY CLUSTERING

Cluster	Cluster strain exclusive gene presence (%)
81116 cluster	CJE0034(20)
NCTC11168 cluster	aphA-3(23), CJE0171(88), CJE0900v1(43), motA(94), CJ0628v2(46), CJ1677(17), CJ1484v1(26), porA(63), CJE1277(83), CJE0534(60), CJE0140(51), CJ0828(43), CJ0828v3(80), met(83), CJE1730(86), cfrA(91), CJ1325(91), CJE1893(83), wcbKv1(26), CJE1470(60), flav1(17), CJE1719(77), CJE1677v1(17)

Following hybridization, clustering showed that two main groups were present, each containing a different reference strain. Genes were found in one cluster but not in the other, using Fisher's exact test (p<0.05). Genes statistically different using the Fisher's exact test with Bonferroni correction are highlighted in bold. Gene details may be found in Table 1 or in Supplementary Table S1.

In our study, the overall observed variable gene prevalence in our chicken-colonizing strains illustrates that genes previously thought important for chicken colonization may be of less relevance when characterizing field strains or alternatively, they may present more genetic diversity than expected. For example, the *ggt* gene, involved in persistence of *C. jejuni* in chicken flocks (Barnes *et al.*, 2007), was only found in 16% of all our strains, in accordance with another study (Zautner *et al.*, 2011) and only in the 2008 time period. This might be linked to the fact that *ggt* is not absolutely required for strain persistence or alternatively, that the chickens were only recently colonized. Therefore, the exact role of the observed variable genes and their relative importance in natural chicken colonization in many field strains remains to be elucidated.

It was previously reported that arsenic resistance genes differ from strains with different chicken colonization potentials (Ahmed *et al.*, 2002) and that poultry isolates present variable levels of arsenic resistance (Sapkota *et al.*, 2006; Wang *et al.*, 2009). Arsenic compounds are commonly used in poultry for the control of coccidiosis (Li *et al.*, 2011), and their impact on *C. jejuni* chicken colonization has yet to be assessed. In the present study, we noted that arsenic resistance genes had a variable presence among the isolates and that their presence in the 2008 strains correlated with the presence of other genes such as *dmsA*, *fspA*, and *rloA* (see Supplementary Table S2). This suggests that arsenic resistance may only have an indirect role in chicken colonization.

Resistance to kanamycin can be mediated by the plasmidbased gene *aphA-3* in *C. jejuni*. (Gibreel *et al.*, 2004). Kanamycin resistance is rarely monitored in *C. jejuni* as it is not the drug of choice for treatment of severe human campylobacteriosis (drugs of choice, in order of importance, are macrolide, quinolone/fluoroquinolone, and tetracycline [Young *et al.*, 2007]). Monitoring this resistance is of interest since *C. jejuni* can act as a reservoir of the *aphA-3* gene and could transfer this resistance to other bacteria. The *tetO* gene, mediating resistance to tetracycline by target protection, is also located on a plasmid. The *tetO* plasmid may be involved in *C. jejuni* episome plasticity and can be present in strains in the absence of antibiotic pressure (Friis *et al.*, 2007). In the current study, *aph*A-3 and *tet*O occurred in 16% and 67% of the isolates, respectively.

For some bacteria, it has been demonstrated that AMR genes may co-localize with virulence genes, making the coselection of virulent AMR strains possible (Rosengren *et al.*, 2009). For *C. jejuni*, involvement of AMR genes in chicken colonization remains to be clarified as the present study was not able to clearly confirm such a link even though some AMR genes weakly correlated with colonization genes.

Distribution of genes conserved in all strains

Among the 254 genes in this study, 94 genes were present in all strains regardless of the isolation year (see Supplementary Table S1). These gene products could be considered as a target of choice for control of C. jejuni (e.g., for either vaccination or a novel antimicrobial target). Interesting results were obtained for the chemotaxis gene group where the deletion of the chemotaxis protein cheY impaired chicken colonization (Hendrixson and DiRita, 2004), while modification of the regulatory proteins cheB and cheR (Kanungpean et al., 2011) or chemotactic receptors (Hendrixson and DiRita, 2004; Vegge et al., 2009) increased or lowered the C. jejuni virulenceassociated phenotype. In our study, the presence of genes coding for most chemotaxis receptors was found to be variable as opposed to the consistent detection of *che* genes. This suggests that different chemoattractant recognition capacities existed in our test strains, potentially leading to different chemotaxis abilities.

Field strain comparison

Chicken colonization is a dynamic process driven by numerous genes. In some cases, strains indistinct by various typing methods presented different phenotypic properties (Malik-Kale *et al.*, 2007). Consequently, the higher resolving power of a DNA microarray makes it attractive as a valuable method to compare closely related strains (Taboada *et al.*, 2008).

In our study, test strains clustered around two different control strains, 81116 and NCTC11168. The strain 81116 was described as more efficient in chicken colonization than strain NCTC11168 (Ahmed *et al.*, 2002). Previous studies found that virulence phenotypes may correlate with genotypes (On *et al.*, 2006). The fact that these two reference strains were found in different clusters in our study suggests that different colonization potentials may exist between the two main *C. jejuni* groups. Confirming chicken colonization potential of strains present in both clusters remains to be done.

As expected, it was observed that strains did not cluster according to the time of sampling but rather to lot origin, suggesting that important genes required for chicken colonization may be stable over time. It was previously observed that *C. jejuni* is highly clonal within the same farm (Normand *et al.*, 2008). In contrast, some strains from different lots in our study also clustered, which could reflect potential contamination by the same *C. jejuni* source.

Conclusions

Overall, our results illustrate the diversity of gene distribution in field strains over time by detailing the presence of chicken-associated colonization genes in a large chickenderived *C. jejuni* collection. Our study also raised the possibility to revisit and refine the exact role of some chicken colonization determinants of *C. jejuni* in the context of natural colonization. Despite the genetic diversity of strains collected, clustering indicated the presence of two populations. We propose that this grouping is not associated with the collection time period but that it could correlate with the colonization potential of the chicken-specific *Campylobacter* isolates. Lastly, our results suggest a weak association between AMR and the studied colonization genes in our strain collection.

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Disclosure Statement

No competing financial interests exist.

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