
Successful detection of pathogenic Shiga-toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* in shellfish, environmental waters and sediment using the ISO/TS-13136 method

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Abstract :

The presence of highly pathogenic Shiga-toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* (STEC) in shellfish, upstream waters and sediment from coastal shellfish sites was evaluated using the ISO/TS-13136 method. Shellfish (oysters, mussels and cockles), water and sediment samples were collected monthly over a period of 1 year. The method used real-time PCR detection of stx1, stx2 and eae genes and genetic markers corresponding to the five major serogroups (O157, O26, O103, O111 and O145) on enrichment broths and the identification of STEC when these genes and markers were detected. stx genes were detected in the broth of 33% of shellfish batches (n = 126), 91% of water samples (n = 117) and 28% of sediment (n = 39). One stx1+, eae+ O26:H11 strain was isolated from a shellfish batch, and O26:H11, O145:H28 and O103:H2 strains without the stx gene (n = 9) were isolated from shellfish and waters. In conclusion, this study shows the suitability of the ISO/TS-13136 method to assess the presence of highly pathogenic *E. coli* strains in shellfish farming areas. It also highlights a low prevalence of STEC and consequently suggests a reduced corresponding human health risk.

Keywords : eae, sediment, shellfish, Shiga-toxin-producing *Escherichia coli*, stx, water

Significance and Impact of the Study

(STEC) infections have been reported following ingestion of contaminated food or water or after bathing in contaminated waters. However, to date, few studies concerning their detection in coastal environment and shellfish have been reported. The aim of this work was to assess the presence of STEC in three shellfish-harvesting areas by the ISO/TS-13136 method, which has recently been used for STEC detection in food.

41 **INTRODUCTION**

42 Pathogenic Shiga-toxin-producing *E. coli* (STEC) may cause human illnesses such as
43 haemorrhagic colitis and life-threatening haemolytic-uraemic syndrome. Although a wide
44 range of serotypes have been implicated in human STEC infections, five major serotypes
45 (O157:H7, O26:H11, O103:H2, O111:H8, and O145:H28) are responsible for the vast
46 majority of sporadic cases and outbreaks in Europe (Beutin and Fach 2014). Pathogenic
47 STEC are characterized by the production of Shiga-toxin, a bacteriophage-encoded cytotoxin
48 (O'Brien *et al.* 1984) and, in addition, are often shown to produce attaching and effacing
49 lesions on intestinal mucosa. This latter property is encoded by genes, including *eae*, grouped
50 together in a pathogenicity island referred to as the "locus of enterocyte effacement" (Paton
51 and Paton 1998). Human infection occurs through ingestion of contaminated food or water or
52 by contact with animals. The main reservoir for STEC is domestic ruminants, especially cattle
53 (Pradel *et al.* 2000). Other animals, such as sheep, goats, pigs, birds, other wild animals, as
54 well as humans, can also harbour STEC (Gyles 2007). STEC contamination of the
55 environment may occur through the spreading of livestock manure, animal waste on pastures,
56 via wastewaters from slaughterhouses, from treatment plant effluents and by wildlife (Ogden,
57 *et al.* 2001; Vernozy-Rozand *et al.* 2002; Loukiadis *et al.* 2006). Coastal environments,
58 including shellfish, may therefore become contaminated with STEC. Because of their filter-
59 feeding behaviour and because they are traditionally consumed raw or undercooked, shellfish
60 may present a potential risk to public health (Potasman *et al.* 2002). However, to our
61 knowledge, while they have previously been detected in shellfish, STECs have not yet been
62 reported as being involved in shellfish-borne outbreaks (Guyon *et al.* 2000; Gourmelon *et al.*
63 2006).

64 To date, few studies concerning the detection and isolation of pathogenic STEC strains in
65 coastal environments and shellfish have been reported and, of those that have, none has

66 focused on the prevalence of the five major STEC serotypes. Recently, a horizontal PCR-
67 based method has been developed for the detection of STEC (including the five major
68 serotypes associated with human infection) in foods and animal feed. This method,
69 recommended by EFSA (2009), is described in the ISO-13136 Technical Specification
70 (ISO/TS-13136:2012). It has already been applied in France for monitoring control in minced
71 meat frozen beef (DGAL 2013) and to evaluate the prevalence of STEC from their
72 corresponding serotypes in cattle faeces (Bibbal *et al.* 2014).

73 The present study describes the first application of the ISO/TS-13136 protocol to shellfish,
74 environmental waters and sediment in order to evaluate the presence of highly-pathogenic
75 STEC in shellfish-harvesting areas.

76

77 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

78 **Level of contamination in water and shellfish**

79 *E. coli* counts were determined for all shellfish and water samples. Widely varying *E. coli*
80 concentrations were found in shellfish, with concentrations ranging from <67 to 71,000 per
81 100 g. Thirty-seven samples presented a concentration of less than or equal to 230 *E. coli* per
82 100 g, 64 contained between 230 and 4,600 *E. coli* per 100 g and 25 presented a concentration
83 greater than 4,600. Among shellfish, cockles were the most contaminated (geometric mean of
84 2,440 *E. coli* per 100 g *versus* 1,070 for mussels, and 364 for oysters). In waters, *E. coli*
85 concentrations ranged from <38 to 190,530 per 100 ml, with a geometric mean of 1,224.

86

87 **Detection of *stx1*, *stx2* and *eae* and prevalence of the five major serogroups**

88 Real-time PCRs enabled detection of *stx* genes from enrichment broths of 44 shellfish batches
89 (34.9%), 107 water samples (91.4%) and 11 sediment samples (28.2%) (Table 1). In
90 correlation with the level of contamination of shellfish, *stx* genes were more frequently
91 detected from cockles and mussels (50.0% and 36.5% *stx*⁺, respectively) than from oysters
92 (22%). The presence of *stx* gene was previously investigated in shellfish batches collected
93 between 2002 and 2004 from across France (Gourmelon *et al.* 2006). In this earlier study, in
94 which 72 samples of mussels (41) oysters (27) and cockles (4) were analyzed, the *stx* gene
95 was also more frequently detected from cockles (100%) than from mussels (43.9%) or oysters
96 (33.3%). The *stx2* gene was slightly more frequently found than *stx1* in enrichment broths
97 from water and sediments, while *stx1* was more frequently detected from shellfish. As with
98 *stx*, *eae* gene was more frequently detected in water than in shellfish or sediments. Indeed,
99 116 water samples (99.1%), 92 shellfish batches (73.0%), and 19 sediments (48.7%) were

100 *eae*⁺ (Table 1). *eae* was more frequently detected in cockles and mussels (87.5% and 82.7%,
101 *eae*⁺, respectively) than in oysters (56.0% *eae*⁺). A total of 152 samples (37 shellfish, 107
102 waters, and 8 sediments) were positive for at least one *stx* gene and the *eae* gene. Real-time
103 PCRs were performed to detect genetic markers associated with the five major serogroups
104 from the 152 corresponding enrichment broths (Table 2). One or several serogroups were
105 detected from 28 samples of shellfish, 106 waters and 7 sediments. Consequently, 22.2% of
106 shellfish samples, 90.6% of water samples and 17.9% of sediment samples were positive for
107 *stx*, *eae* and one of the O-group markers, with a higher percentage of positive samples among
108 environmental water samples than among cattle faeces collected at slaughterhouse (58% in
109 cattle faeces [Bibbal *et al.* 2014]). Regardless of the sample type, serogroups O103 and O145,
110 followed by O26 and O157 were the most frequently detected.

111

112 **Isolation and characterization of strains belonging to serogroup O157, O26, O103, O111** 113 **or O145**

114 Ten strains (five from water and five from shellfish) were isolated using two complementary
115 methods: direct streaking and IMS (Immuno-Magnetic Separation). Their characterization
116 revealed that six belonged to the O26:H11 serotype, while two were identified as O103:H2
117 and two as O145:H28 (Table 3); all 10 isolates contained the *eae* gene. These strains were
118 isolated from highly contaminated samples (*E. coli* geometric mean of 14,550 per 100 g for
119 shellfish and 4,490 per 100 ml for waters). Only one strain possessed a *stx* gene (*stx1*)
120 whereas the remaining corresponded to potentially enteropathogenic *E. coli* (EPEC). The
121 STEC strain belonged to the O26:H11 serotype and was isolated from mussels. Only 9 of the
122 141 enrichment broths that were positive for *stx*, *eae* and one of the major serotypes (6%)
123 resulted in STEC or EPEC isolation. We have to consider the possibility that the targeted *stx*,

124 *eae* and serotypes markers could also be detected in the absence of culturable STECs. Indeed,
125 their detection can be due to the presence free bacteriophages, dead or viable but non-
126 culturable bacteria, or other bacteria such as *Shigella* and *Citrobacter*, which are also known
127 to carry these genes (Muniesa *et al.* 1999; Martinez-Castillo *et al.* 2013). A poor isolation rate
128 of highly pathogenic STEC was also previously described for other matrices, such as cattle
129 faeces (Bibbal *et al.* 2014), retail-minced beef (Auvray *et al.* 2007) and raw-milk cheeses
130 (Madic *et al.* 2011) from which six (n=150), zero (n=164) and zero (n=400) strains were
131 isolated, respectively. In the present study, EPEC were more frequently isolated than STEC.
132 This may be the consequence of the loss of *stx* genes by STEC discharged in the environment.
133 Indeed, previous studies have demonstrated the capacity of STEC to lose *stx* genes in bovine,
134 avian human and environmental sources (Feng *et al.* 2001; Wetzel and LeJeune 2007).

135 A low detection rate of STEC in shellfish is in agreement with previous studies. Indeed, three
136 studies previously described STEC belonging to the O157-serogroup in shellfish using an
137 immunomagnetic method. One, conducted in France on 150 oyster samples, led to the
138 isolation of only one O157-*E. coli* strain (O157:H- *stx1*⁺, *stx2c*⁺, *eae*⁺) (Guyon *et al.* 2000), a
139 second failed to isolate O157:H7 strains from 192 batches of different shellfish species in the
140 UK (MacRae *et al.* 2005) and the third described the isolation of one EPEC strain (O157:H7)
141 from 72 shellfish batches collected in France (Gourmelon *et al.* 2006). Other approaches
142 focused on the isolation of *E. coli* strains followed by investigation for the presence of *stx*
143 genes, which demonstrated low percentages of STEC among the isolates (6.2% in shellfish
144 from Morocco [Bennani *et al.* 2011] and 4.1% in clams from India [Sanath Kumar *et al.*
145 2001]). Furthermore, five STEC strains not belonging to the five major serogroups have
146 previously been isolated in France from shellfish by analyzing STEC by hybridization,
147 following culture enrichment (Gourmelon *et al.* 2006).

148 These results suggest that STEC and EPEC are occasionally present in the environment and
149 can contaminate shellfish. According to our results, the risk of human infection by highly
150 pathogenic STEC resulting from the consumption of shellfish from the investigated areas
151 seems to be limited as only one STEC strain was isolated from 126 batches taken from the
152 area and shellfish which are from category B or C areas, which are depurated or which
153 undergo protracted relaying prior to sale. As with the *E. coli* indicators, we may expect STEC
154 to be eliminated during the depuration or relaying step. However, further assays are currently
155 being undertaken in our laboratory to compare STEC behavior with that of *E. coli* indicators
156 in shellfish.

157

158 **CONCLUSION**

159 In conclusion, this study shows that the ISO/TS-13136 protocol effectively detects STEC or
160 EPEC strains belonging to the five major serotypes in shellfish and environmental samples.
161 Even though *stx* and *eae* genes were often detected, the presence of STEC in such
162 environments appears to be limited, as only one STEC and nine EPEC were isolated from
163 water or shellfish samples. Furthermore, the human health risk associated with consuming the
164 shellfish collected from these sites should be reduced as they are depurated or relayed prior to
165 consumption.

166

167 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

168 **Origin and collection of samples**

169 Three French shellfish sites from the English Channel coastal area were studied. One is
170 located in the “Cotes d’Armor” department (Brittany region) while others are in the
171 department “La Manche” (Lower-Normandy region). All three sites are characterised as

172 receiving inputs from agricultural catchments with high stocking densities (cattle, sheep, pigs,
173 or poultry) but are also impacted by microbial pollution of human origin. The bays are the
174 focus of extensive shellfish gathering activities. According to the European classification of
175 shellfish harvesting areas (Anonymous 2004), these shellfish sites are classified as category B
176 (*E. coli* <4,600 CFU per 100 g total flesh for 90% of the samples) for mussels and oysters and
177 as category C (*E. coli* <46,000 CFU per 100 g) for cockles. Shellfish from category B areas
178 are only suitable for human consumption following depuration, relaying or cooking by an
179 approved method whereas shellfish from category C areas can only be consumed after
180 relaying for at least two months or cooking by an approved method. For each site, mussels,
181 oysters and cockles were collected monthly, from February 2013 to February 2014. A total of
182 126 batches of shellfish (52 batches for mussels [n≈70], 50 for oysters [n≈14] and 24 for
183 cockles [n≈80]) were analysed. In parallel, 117 water samples from nine different points
184 located upstream of the shellfish areas and 39 samples of sediment were collected. Samples,
185 which were transported in insulated cooler boxes, were analysed within 24h. Before analysis,
186 shellfish were scrubbed under running tap water to remove debris and algae.

187

188 ***E. coli* enumeration**

189 *E. coli* enumeration was performed using the Most Probable Number method in MUG-
190 microtitre plates according to the EN/ISO-9308-3 method (Anon 1998) and using an
191 impedance method according to NF/V-08-106 for shellfish (Anon 2000).

192

193 ***E. coli* enrichment**

194 After opening, shellfish were crushed in a Warring blender for 60 seconds. Twenty-five
195 grammes of crushed flesh and intravalvular liquid were introduced into 225 ml of buffered
196 peptone water (BPW). For sediment, 10 g were introduced into the same quantity of BPW

197 while for water samples, 1 litre was filtered using 0.45 µm membranes and the filter placed in
198 225 ml of BPW. Incubation was performed at 37°C, for 24h.

199

200 **Detection of *stx* and *eae* genes and markers associated with the five major serotypes**

201 DNA was extracted from 1 mL of enrichment cultures in BPW using an automatic method
202 (EZ1-biorobot, and DNA tissue card kit [Qiagen®, Cournaboef, France]). *stx* and *eae* genes
203 were detected by real-time PCR, according to ISO/TS-13136. For samples positive for *stx* and
204 *eae*, genetic markers associated with the major serogroups O157, O26, O103, O111, and
205 O145 (*rfbEO157*, *wzxO26*, *wzxO103*, *wbd1O111*, and *ihp1O145* genes, respectively) were
206 detected by real-time PCR, also according to ISO/TS-13136 and using primers and probes
207 published previously (Nielsen and Andersen 2003; Perelle *et al.* 2007).

208

209 **Isolation of Shiga toxin-producing *E. coli***

210 The isolation of STEC strains was performed only for the positive samples for which the
211 targeted combination of genetic marker was detected, *i.e.*, *stx*, *eae* and at least one O group
212 marker. From the positive BPW broths, direct streaking and streaking after immuno-magnetic
213 separation (IMS), were performed on the following media. The O157 serogroups were
214 searched by direct streaking onto chromID™ O157:H7+cefixime-tellurite (BioMérieux®) and
215 streaking after the IMS onto cefixime-tellurite-Sorbitol-MacConkey agar (biokar, Beauvais,
216 France) and chromID™ O157 (bioMérieux, Marcy l'Etoile, France). Streakings for O26
217 serogroups were performed onto Sorbitol-MacConkey agar (SMAC) (bioMérieux, Marcy
218 l'Etoile, France) and after onto SMAC and chromID™ O26 (bioMérieux, Marcy l'Etoile,
219 France) after the IMS, while serogroups O103, O145 and O111 were directly detected using
220 Posse media (Posse *et al.* 2008) or using SMAC and chromID™ after the IMS. All media
221 were incubated for 18 to 24 h at 37°C. Confirmation of the clones belonging to a particular

222 serotype and presence of *stx* and/or *eae* genes were then tested by PCR on presumptive
223 colonies as described in ISO/TS-13136. Characterization of the *fliCH* alleles (*fliCH2*, *fliCH7*,
224 *fliCH8*, *fliCH11*, and *fliCH28*) was investigated by PCR, as described by Madic *et al.* (2011).

225

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232

233 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

234 No conflict of interest declared

235

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360

361 **TABLES**

362 **Table 1.** Prevalence of *stx1*, *stx2* and *eae* genes in enrichment broths.

Sample (n)	<i>stx1</i> [*] n (%)	<i>stx2</i> [†] n (%)	<i>stx1</i> and <i>stx2</i> n (%)	Total <i>stx1</i> and/or <i>stx2</i> n (%)	<i>eae</i> n (%)
Cockles (24)	3 (12.5)	3 (12.5)	6 (25.0)	12 (50.0)	21 (87.5)
Mussels (52)	12 (23.1)	8 (15.4)	1 (1.9)	21 (40.4)	43 (82.7)
Oysters (50)	7 (14.0)	2 (4.0)	2 (4.0)	11 (22.0) [‡]	28 (56.0) [§]
Total Shellfish (126)	22 (17.5)	13 (10.3)	9 (7.1)	44 (34.9)	92 (73.0)
Waters (117)	10 (8.5)	21 (17.9)	76 (65.0)	107 (91.4) [¶]	116 (99.1) ^{**}
Sediment (39)	3 (7.7)	6 (13.4)	2 (5.1)	11(28.2)	19 (48.7)

363 ^{*} *stx1* was found but not *stx2*.

364 [†] *stx2* was found but not *stx1*.

365 [‡] P value (Khi2 test) between oysters and other shellfish = 0.0136

366 [§] P value (Khi2 test) between oysters and other shellfish = 3.23 x 10⁻⁵

367 [¶] P value (Khi2 test) between waters and other samples = 2.33 x 10⁻²²

368 ^{**} P value (Khi2 test) between waters and other samples = 4.87 x 10⁻¹¹

369

370

371 **Table 2.** Prevalence of strains of the five highly pathogenic serogroups in the BPW broths
 372 and number of isolated strains belonging to the STEC or EPEC pathotype.

Sample (n)	<i>stx</i> ⁺ and <i>eae</i> ⁺	O157 ⁺ (%)*	O26 ⁺ (%)*	O103 ⁺ (%)*	O111 ⁺ (%)*	O145 ⁺ (%)*	<i>stx</i> ⁺ , <i>eae</i> ⁺ and serotype ^{+†} (%)‡	isolated strains
Shellfish (126)	37	7 (18.9)	13 (35.1)	20 (54.1)	3 (8.1)	15 (40.5)	28 (22.2)	5
Waters (117)	107	65 (60.7)	67 (62.6)	93 (86.9)	30 (28.0)	83 (77.6)	106 (90.6) [§]	5
Sediment (39)	8	1 (12.5)	1 (12.5)	5 (65.5)	0 (0.0)	4 (50.0)	7 (17.9)	0

373 * % calculated based on the number of samples *stx*⁺ and *eae*⁺.

374 † *stx*⁺, *eae*⁺ and at least one of the major serotypes

375 ‡ % calculated based on total number of samples.

376 § P value (Khi2 test) between waters and other samples = 1.62 x 10⁻³⁰

377

378 **Table 3.** Characterisation of STEC and EPEC strains isolated from shellfish and water.

Strain	Sample type	<i>E. coli</i> count	Serotype	<i>stx</i> (type)	<i>eae</i>
10	Mussel	15,000*	O26:H11	+ (<i>stx</i> 1)	+
9	Cockle	12,000*	O26:H11	-	+
7	Mussel	15,000*	O26:H11	-	+
4	Water	3,570 [†]	O26:H11	-	+
5	Water	5,200 [†]	O26:H11	-	+
8	Water	16,620 [†]	O26:H11	-	+
2	Cockle	22,000*	O145:H28	-	+
3	Mussel	11,000*	O145:H28	-	+
1	Water	357 [†]	O103:H2	-	+
6	Water	16,620 [†]	O103:H2	-	+

379 * *E. coli* count per 100 g

380 † *E. coli* count per 100 ml