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1 **Credit author statement**

2 Rodriguez C: conceptualization, methodology, formal analysis, writing-original draft

3 Mith H: conceptualization, sampling collection, data collection and analysis

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5 supervision, review and editing.

6 Bouchafa L, Van Broeck J, Soumillon K, Ngyuvula E: methodology, resources, data
7 curation and analysis

Journal Pre-proof

1 **FIRST ISOLATION OF CLOSTRIDIOIDES DIFFICILE FROM SMOKED AND**
2 **DRIED FRESHWATER FISH IN CAMBODIA**

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14

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24 **Abstract**

25

26 In Cambodia, freshwater aquaculture is the most important source of food production.
27 Fresh fish meat is considered a highly perishable food that requires the use of different
28 manipulations and preservation techniques to inhibit the proliferation of undesirable
29 bacteria. These bacteria are naturally present in the raw product or could be acquired
30 during manipulation by cross-contamination. Many studies worldwide have investigated
31 the epidemiology of *Clostridioides difficile* (*C. difficile*) in food, but to date, there are no
32 publications about the bacterium in ready-to-eat fish or descriptions in Cambodia. The
33 objective of this study was to assess the presence of *C. difficile* in one of the main food
34 supplies of this country, smoked freshwater fish, originating from different provinces. A
35 total of 25 samples were collected directly from local markets, yielding 4 *C. difficile*
36 isolates and an overall recovery rate of 16%. Most of the isolates were toxigenic and
37 classified as rare PCR profiles, and they were resistant to clindamycin. These findings
38 indicate contamination during handling and/or contamination of the raw fish, followed by
39 insufficient heat treatment to kill the spores. The presence of *C. difficile* in smoked and
40 dried fish implies a potential risk of human exposure, contamination and infection.

41 **Keywords**

42 *Clostridioides difficile*, smoked dried freshwater fish, cross-contamination, ready-to-eat
43 food, antibiotic resistance, food contamination

44

45 1. Introduction

46

47 *Clostridioides difficile* (historically classified as *Clostridium difficile*) is a spore-forming
48 anaerobic bacterium ubiquitous in the natural environment and is considered the leading
49 cause of nosocomial antibiotic-associated diarrhea in developed countries. Although the
50 infection is classically related to healthcare settings, several cases in the community have
51 been detected in recent years. Some recent regional studies reported a prevalence between
52 40% and 50% of community *C. difficile* infection (CDI) cases, with a proportion that
53 increases yearly but decreases during winter months (Crobach et al., 2019; Suarez-Bode et
54 al., 2019). These findings have led to the further study of bacterial routes of transmission.

55 Different types of soils, farmlands and rivers are often contaminated with bacterial spores
56 and constitute a potential source of transmission for both animals and humans. Some
57 evidence of this direct or indirect exposure is the contamination of rivers, puddle water,
58 animal manure, composts, farm environments and food products (Rodriguez et al., 2018).
59 In this context, the presence of *C. difficile* in some fresh food products has been repeatedly
60 reported in Europe and America in the last decade. Cross-contamination of carcasses at
61 slaughterhouse has been suggested (Hampikyan et al., 2018; Rodriguez et al., 2014;
62 Rodriguez et al., 2013), and the bacterium has been observed in uncooked meat with a
63 prevalence of approximately 10% and a maximum of 20% (Lee et al., 2018; Rodriguez et
64 al., 2014; Rodriguez-Palacios et al., 2007). Vegetables such as potatoes, beetroots, onions
65 and carrots have been found to be contaminated and therefore involved in potential
66 foodborne transmission of the bacterium (Tkalec et al., 2019; Lim et al., 2018, Eckert et
67 al., 2013). Spores of *C. difficile* have also been isolated from seafood, with a prevalence of
68 11.6% and 23.2% in mussels and clams, respectively (Agnolletti et al., 2019). Further
69 studies also detected the bacterium in fresh salmon, shrimp and scallops (Norman et al.,
70 2014; Metcalf et al., 2011). The presence of *C. difficile* has been previously demonstrated
71 in saltwater samples from the sea coastline, rivers and lakes (Al Saif et al., 1996);
72 therefore, contamination of shellfish probably occurs directly in the marine environment.
73 However, for other fish products, especially those that undergo postmortem manipulation,
74 cross-contamination during their transformation cannot be excluded (Arvanitoyannis et
75 al., 2008). In the context of processed food, only a few reports found *C. difficile* in ready-
76 to-eat foods, such as salads (Romano et al., 2018), or other cooked meals, including a
77 ready-to-eat sample composed of pork sausage, mustard sauce and carrot salad (Rodriguez
78 et al., 2015a).

79 In Cambodia, freshwater aquaculture is one of the most important sources of food
80 production. Fresh fish meat is considered a highly perishable food that requires the use of
81 different manipulations and preservation techniques not only to reduce water activity but
82 also to inhibit the development of several undesirable bacteria (Hubackova et al., 2014).
83 These bacteria are naturally present in the raw product or could be acquired during
84 manipulation by cross-contamination

85 Many studies worldwide have investigated the epidemiology of *C. difficile* in humans,
86 animals and food, but to date, there are no publications about the bacterium in ready-to-eat
87 fish or descriptions in Cambodia. The objective of this study was to investigate the
88 presence of *C. difficile* in one of the main food supplies of this country, smoked and dried
89 freshwater fish, originating from five different provinces. The aim was to determine how
90 healthy individuals in the community may be exposed to *C. difficile* by food ingestion. *C.*
91 *difficile* isolates obtained for the first time in Cambodia were characterized by PCR
92 ribotyping, toxin gene profiling and antibiotic resistance.

93 2. Materials and methods

94 2.1 Sample collection

95 Twenty-five samples of smoked and dried freshwater fish were collected from local
96 markets and producing sites from five provinces, Battambang, Kampong Chhnang,
97 Kampong Cham, Kampong Thom and Siem Reap, in Cambodia (Supplementary file 1).
98 Each sample was collected from one individual sampling point to exclude the detection of
99 positive samples in a single stall and to obtain a better representation of the extent of
100 bacterial distribution. These samples, often found available at local markets and sold as
101 ready-to eat products, corresponded to nine species of smoked and dried freshwater fish
102 (Supplementary file 2). All collected samples were wrapped in aseptic plastic bags, frozen
103 and transported to the laboratory. The samples were aseptically ground, lyophilized and
104 stored at -80°C prior to further analysis.

105 2.2 *C. difficile* isolation and identification

106 Culture of fish samples was performed following the protocol and with the same selective
107 medium (cycloserine cefotaxime fructose taurocholate) used in Rodriguez et al. (2019). In
108 this study, two parallel plates were used for each single sample. For the detection of
109 spores present in low numbers, enrichment cultures were also performed. Suspected
110 colonies were identified by morphological criteria, subcultured onto blood agar and
111 checked using a *C. difficile* latex agglutination rapid test kit DR 1107A (Oxoid, FR).
112 Multiple colonies were taken when morphologies suggested more than one type of PCR
113 ribotype or when the presumptive colonies were too small to ensure isolation on blood
114 agar. Confirmation of *C. difficile* was performed by detection of a species-specific internal
115 fragment of the *tpi* gene and detection of genes for toxin A (*tcdA*), toxin B (*tcdB*) and
116 binary toxin (*cdtA*) by classical PCR (Rodriguez et al., 2013). PCR ribotyping based on
117 capillary gel electrophoresis was performed using the primers and the method proposed by
118 Bidet et al. (1999) and Fawley et al. (2015), respectively. International nomenclature was
119 used for *C. difficile* strains that presented a PCR ribotype profile matching the Cardiff
120 ribotypes (Anaerobic Reference Unit (ARU), UK) from the strain collection available in
121 our laboratory. Otherwise, strains were identified with an internal nomenclature system
122 beginning with UCL (database at the Catholic University of Louvain, National Reference
123 Laboratory for *C. difficile* in Belgium) or as rare profiles if the strains presented new PCR
124 ribotype profiles never detected in our laboratory before. The results were further analyzed
125 using the web-based database WEBRIBO (Indra et al., 2008).

126 2.3 Antimicrobial susceptibility testing

127 Resistance to erythromycin (15 µg), vancomycin (5 µg), clindamycin (2 µg), tetracycline
128 (30 µg), metronidazole (5 µg) and moxifloxacin (5 µg) (Oxoid) was tested through a disc
129 diffusion assay on Brucella Blood Agar with hemin and vitamin K1 (Oxoid) according to
130 the French Society of Microbiology protocols (SFM, 2017). Zone diameters were
131 measured after 24 h of anaerobic incubation at 37°C and interpreted as previously
132 described (Rodriguez et al., 2014). *Bacteroides fragilis* ATCL 25285 was included as a
133 quality control.

134 3. Results and discussion

135 3.1 Prevalence of *C. difficile*

136 A total of 25 samples were collected directly from local markets, yielding four *C. difficile*
137 isolates and an overall recovery rate of 16%. Only a few previous studies have

138 investigated the presence of the bacterium in sea products, and most of them focused on
139 bivalve mollusks (Figure 1). In fish, Al Saif and Brazier (1996) reported negative results
140 when investigating the bacterium in 107 samples obtained from fishery stores in Cardiff.
141 Norman et al. (2014) detected the presence of the bacterium in frozen whole wild-caught
142 pink salmon (whose origin was Alaska) collected from a local grocery in Texas. A third
143 study (Metcalf et al. 2011) reported the isolation of *C. difficile* in fresh perch and in fresh
144 salmon purchased on different days and from different grocery stores. Both studies with
145 positive results identified the strains as toxigenic and belonging to PCR ribotype 078. This
146 PCR ribotype has been largely isolated from animals and food (Krutova et al., 2018;
147 Rodriguez et al., 2018) and is associated with interspecies clonal transmission between
148 animals and humans (Knight and Riley, 2019). To the best of our knowledge, this is the
149 first study reporting the presence of *C. difficile* in ready-to-eat smoked and dried
150 freshwater fish. Furthermore, to date, no study has previously investigated this bacterium
151 and its epidemiology in Cambodia.

152 Positive samples were collected from 3 different provinces (Battambang, Kampong
153 Chhanang and Kampong Cham) separated within a radius of approximately 500 km and
154 from 4 different sellers. Samples with *C. difficile* spores belonged to 3 fish species,
155 *Ompok bimaculatus*, *Paralauca typus* and *Clarias macrocephallus* (supplementary file
156 2). All of them are found in quiet slow-flowing rivers, often muddy or stagnant water,
157 sandy streams or inundated fields. Aquatic pollution caused by human activities is directly
158 associated with important health problems for both animals and humans. Due to
159 recreational as well as other pollution activities in coastal and river city waters, such as
160 sewage and drain discharges, this environment is increasingly contaminated by
161 microorganisms, especially those with fecal origins (Kacar et al., 2017). Discharges of
162 fecal matter-contaminated water could be associated with an increase in *C. difficile*
163 presence in the aquatic medium, and therefore, it represents a risk for public health. A
164 previous study investigating the rivers and the coastline of the Bristol Channel found the
165 presence of *C. difficile* with spore counts ranging from 3 to 6 cfu/100 ml and a prevalence
166 of 43.7%. Furthermore, most of the isolates obtained were identified as toxigenic. These
167 findings demonstrated that the population could be exposed to *C. difficile* directly via sea
168 water and indirectly via seafood.

169 In Cambodia, traditional smoking is the most common procedure to preserve food due to
170 the general low level of industrialization. This process includes salting, evisceration and
171 wood smoking, with a final temperature in the product of approximately 80°C. The total
172 smoking time can vary between 1 and 5 days based on the fish species, the type of
173 firewood and the kiln. Therefore, all of these variable factors will finally determine the
174 quality of the final product (Slamova et al., 2017). As with other clostridial species, *C.*
175 *difficile* is able to survive in unfavorable environments due to its sporulation capacity. In
176 processed foods, it has been shown that food preservatives, such as nitrites, cannot kill *C.*
177 *difficile*, but they can inhibit the growth of the bacterium (Lim et al., 2016). The thermal
178 resistance of *C. difficile* spores depends on the matrix. In meat, previous studies reported
179 minimal destruction of spores at 70°C for 3 hours and the recovery of viable spores even
180 after incubation at 85°C- 90°C for 10 minutes (Redondo-Solano et al., 2016; Rodriguez-
181 Palacios et al., 2011; Lawley et al., 2009). This resistance to thermal treatments and food
182 preservatives could explain the presence of the bacterium in chorizo and other ready-to-eat
183 foods, such as summer sausage, Braunschweiger sausage and a meal sample composed of
184 pork sausage, mustard sauce and salad. The isolates belonged mainly to PCR ribotypes
185 078 and 027 (Rodriguez et al., 2015a; Songer et al., 2009; Harvey et al., 2011).

186 In our study, 3 out of 4 isolates were positive for the presence of genes encoding toxins A
187 and B, but the *cdtA* gene fraction of the binary toxin CDT was not detected in any of the
188 samples. Only one isolate was negative for all toxin genes. Following our nomenclature
189 system, none of the PCR ribotypes identified had profiles that corresponded to the ARU
190 Cardiff collection. Furthermore, only 1 out of 4 isolates (PCR ribotype UCL36) had a
191 ribotype profile matching our available strain collection (database at the Catholic
192 University of Louvain, National Reference Center for *C. difficile* in Belgium). PCR
193 ribotype UCL36 is a nontoxigenic type that has been previously isolated from human
194 feces, pig carcasses and soils in recreative walking areas (Rodriguez et al., 2019;
195 Rodriguez et al., 2015b). In our previous study, we showed that in a neighbor-joining
196 phylogenetic tree constructed with multilocus sequence typing results, the *C. difficile* type
197 with the closest genetic proximity to PCR ribotype UCL36 was the toxigenic PCR
198 ribotype 081. The same results were observed when the strains were analyzed using
199 multilocus variable tandem-repeat analysis (Rodriguez et al., 2015b). The remaining 3
200 isolates were classified as rare profiles, as they had never been detected in our laboratory
201 before. Using the Webribo database, all of the isolates were identified as a new ribotype.

202 In Asia, *C. difficile* epidemiology and infection are not well understood. In Cambodia,
203 there are no previous studies about the presence of the bacterium in humans, animals or
204 food. However, in neighboring countries, including Malaysia, Indonesia, Thailand and
205 Singapore, the reported prevalence of infection in humans is high, ranging between 9%
206 and 11%, and the most common PCR ribotypes described are 017 and 369 (toxin profile
207 A-B+CDT- (Collins and Riley, 2019)). Some surveys in local hospitals also described the
208 presence of PCR ribotypes 078 and 027 in human feces and in the environment, both of
209 which are binary toxin-positive strains (Jia et al., 2016; Jin et al., 2016). Antibiotic
210 resistance of these *C. difficile* Asian isolates to clindamycin, metronidazole, ciprofloxacin
211 and moxifloxacin has been reported (Wang et al., 2018), even among nontoxigenic
212 isolates (Moura et al., 2013). In our study, all of the isolates were resistant to clindamycin,
213 and one isolate with a rare profile presented resistance to moxifloxacin and tetracycline.
214 Resistances to clindamycin have been previously described in strains identified as PCR
215 ribotype 36 from animal origin, as well as in other toxinogenic ribotypes isolated from
216 humans, cattle and pigs (Rodriguez et al., 2015b). Treatments with clindamycin have been
217 associated with diarrheic outbreaks of CDI (Johnson et al., 1999; Thibault et al., 1991;
218 Tedesco et al., 1974), and clinical practice guidelines recommend restrictions in its use as
219 a function of local epidemiology (McDonald et al., 2018). Moxifloxacin use has been
220 associated with increased cases of CDI (Wenisch et al., 2014), and resistance to this drug
221 was described in different PCR ribotypes isolated from humans, cattle and pigs
222 (Rodriguez et al., 2015b). Furthermore, corresponsance of newly emergent *C. difficile* PCR
223 ribotypes towards moxifloxacin, clindamycin, tetracycline and erythromycin has been
224 recently described in Asia (Chow et al., 2017).

225 One positive sample (PCR ribotype classified as rare and toxigenic) was detected by direct
226 culture and was also positive after enrichment. The total count of spore levels in this
227 sample was 100 cfu/g. With our method, the limit of detection is 50 cfu/g for the direct
228 culture and 10 cfu/g for the enrichment culture (Rodriguez et al., 2018). The remaining
229 three positive samples were detected only after an enrichment step, indicating that the
230 spore load of the samples was low. Previous studies in foods also reported low levels of *C.*
231 *difficile* spores, with a mandatory enrichment method to isolate the bacterium. The fish
232 contamination could have originated after thermic treatment, from the food handlers, or by
233 contact with contaminated surfaces. However, it is also possible that the bacterium was

234 present in the intestine of the fish and that contamination occurred during
235 gutting/handling. At the treatment temperature (approximately 80°C), there is a sublethal
236 effect, but the recovery of viable spores is still possible. This may explain why, in 3
237 samples, the bacterium was not detected by direct culture but isolated after making
238 conditions of growth very favorable for this pathogen. In animal models with antibiotic
239 treatment, bacterial colonization and diarrhea occur at less than 10 cfu (Larson and
240 Borriello, 1990; Lawley et al., 2010), but in humans, the dose of infection has not yet been
241 established, and it is likely that it varies between strongly susceptible and healthy
242 individuals. Furthermore, it is possible that continuous exposure to the bacterium by foods
243 or contact with a contaminated environment could finally lead to the development of
244 infection.

245 **4. Conclusions**

246 Our results describe for the first time the presence of the pathogen *C. difficile* in ready-to-
247 eat smoked and dried freshwater fish. Furthermore, we isolated for the first time the
248 bacterium in Cambodia, underlining the need for additional epidemiological studies in this
249 country. *C. difficile* was detected before and after enrichment, which indicates
250 contamination during handling and/or contamination of the raw fish, followed by
251 insufficient heat treatment to kill the spores. Most of the PCR ribotypes isolated were
252 toxigenic and belonged to rare PCR ribotype profiles never detected in our laboratory
253 before. In Cambodia, there are no previous studies about the presence of the bacterium in
254 humans, animals or food; therefore, at this moment, it is not possible to establish further
255 relationships between food and human isolates. As aquaculture is one of the main sources
256 of food production in this country, the population may be continuously exposed to the
257 bacterium. Further studies on the proportion of spore-forming bacteria in the gut
258 microbiota of humans and animals in the Cambodian population are needed to determine
259 if there is bacterial adaptation as a function of the levels of exposure.

260 **Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest**

261 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest regarding the publication of this
262 article.

263

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267 of this study were presented at the virtual International Clostridium difficile Symposium
268 (ICDS 2020) and at the FEMS Online Conference on Microbiology 2020

269

270 **Ethical Statement**

271 An ethical statement is not applicable.

272 **Figure 1.** Presence and characterization of *C. difficile* isolates in different types of
273 seafood: bivalve mollusk, fish and decapod crustaceans. Data from Refs. Norman et al.,
274 2012; Metcalf et al., 2011; Pasquale et al., 2011; Pasquale et al., 2012; Agnoletti et al.,
275 2019; Candel-Pérez et al., 2019

276 **Supplementary files**

277 **Supplementary file 1.** Smoked and dried freshwater fish originated from provinces in
278 Cambodia

279

280 **Supplementary file 2.** Smoked and dried fish samples originating from nine freshwater
 281 fish species in Cambodia. (a) *Clarias macrocephallus*, (b) *Paralauca typus*, (c)
 282 *Cirrhinus siamensis*, (d) *Micronema bleekeri*, (e) *Rasbora tornieri*, (f) *Ompok*
 283 *bimaculatus*, (g) *Thynnichthys thynnoides*, (h) *Belodontichthys truncatus*, (i) *Clupeoides*
 284 *borneensis*.

285

286

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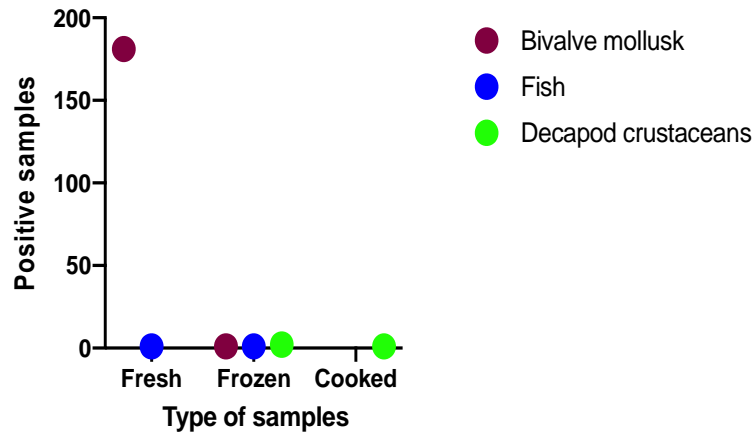
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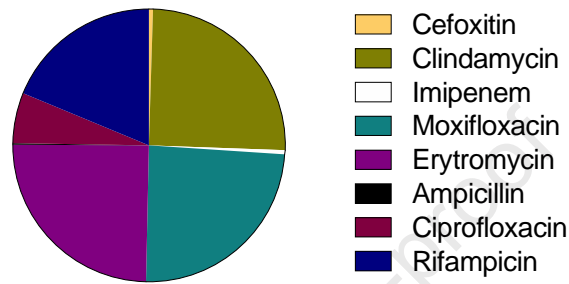
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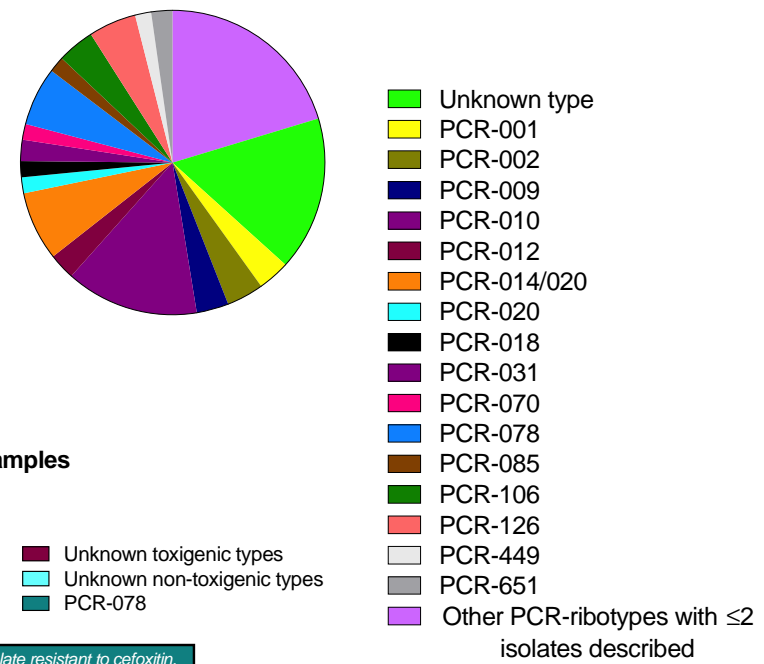
***C. difficile* in seafood, 177 isolates**



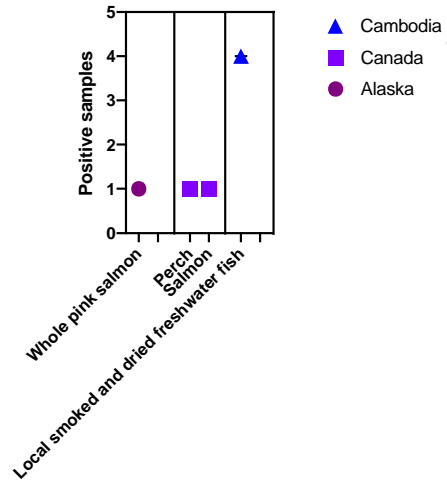
Antibiotic resistances detected in seafood, 177 isolates



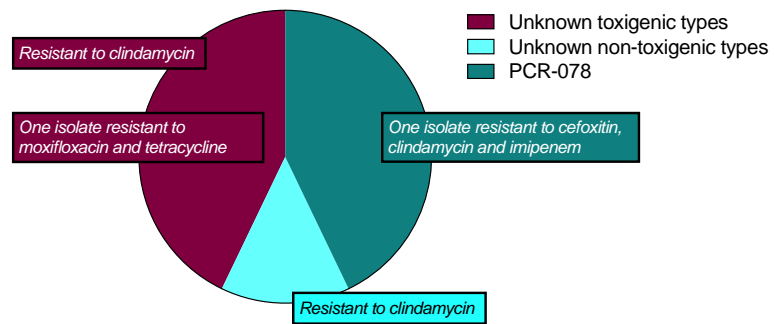
***C. difficile* PCR-Ribotypes in seafood, 177 isolates**



Presence of *C. difficile* in fish samples



***C. difficile* PCR-Ribotypes in fish samples**



*Graph includes available data in the literature and the findings of the present work

*Graph includes available data in the literature (n=3; PCR-078) and the findings of the present work (n=4; unknown PCR-ribotypes)

1 **Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest**

2 The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest regarding the publication of this article.

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