

Prevalence, Serogroups, Shiga-toxin Genes and Pulsed Field Gel Electrophoresis Analyses of *Escherichia coli* Isolated from Bovine Milk

Dilecta D'Costa · Saroj N. Bhosle · R. B. Dhuri · S. P. Doijad ·
K. V. Poharkar · D. R. Kalorey · S. B. Barbuddhe

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Abstract Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* (STEC) including non-O157 strains have been linked to outbreaks and sporadic cases of illness worldwide. A total of 647 milk samples were collected at different levels of collection and processing (udder, milking utensils, milk collection centres and receiving dock) within West Coast region of India. The milk samples were screened for the presence of *E. coli* and further tested for the Shiga-toxin (*stx*) genes by PCR. The isolates were characterized for their serogroups and *Xba*I digestion patterns of total DNA separated by pulsed-field gel electrophoresis (PFGE). A total of 77 (11.90 %) isolates were confirmed as having *E. coli*. The serogroups reported were O4, O60, O112, O56, O159, O120, O2, O83, O88, O95, O141, O21, O25, O80, O140, O97, O24, O166, O146, O51, O169, O147, O103, O18, O100, O15, O69, O43, O7, O3, O45, O124, O110, O84, and O114. Out of the 77 *E. coli* isolates, 25 (32.46 %) could be classified as Shiga-toxigenic based on PCR results. Of these 11, 3 and 11 isolates were positive for

stx1, *stx2*, and both *stx1* and *stx2*, respectively. PFGE profiles indicated genetic diversity of *E. coli* strains. Much variation was observed among isolates recovered at different levels of collection. Further research is needed to uncover unique characteristics and resistance of non-O157 STEC strains.

Keywords Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* · Milk · Shiga-toxin gene · Pulsed-field gel electrophoresis · Serogroups

Introduction

Milk and milk products may be a pool of a variety of microorganisms and can be important source of foodborne pathogens. Foodborne pathogens can gain entrance in milk due to direct contact with contaminated sources in the dairy farm environment and through an infected udder [1]. Milk also gets contaminated at various stages of production and processing including the animal, milker, extraneous dirt or unclean process water [2, 3]. Therefore, contamination of raw milk with foodborne pathogens either directly or indirectly poses the risk of ingestion and transmission of foodborne pathogens.

The presence of the pathogenic bacteria in milk is of considerable public health concern, particularly for individuals drinking raw milk [4]. The true incidence of milkborne disease remains obscure. A number of microorganisms including *Escherichia coli* can contaminate milk and milk products. *E. coli* inhabits the intestinal tract of animals, humans and birds. Though most *E. coli* are harmless, some are known to be pathogenic, causing both severe intestinal and extra-intestinal diseases in human beings [5, 6]. Pathogenic *E. coli* have been classified into

D. D'Costa · S. P. Doijad · K. V. Poharkar ·
S. B. Barbuddhe (✉)
ICAR Research Complex for Goa, Old Goa 403 402, India
e-mail: barbuddhesb@yahoo.com

S. N. Bhosle
Department of Microbiology, Goa University, Taleigao Plateau
403 206, India

R. B. Dhuri
Goa State Cooperative Milk Producers' Union Ltd., Curti,
Ponda, Goa, India

D. R. Kalorey
Department of Microbiology and Animal Biotechnology, Nagpur
Veterinary College, Maharashtra Animal and Fishery Sciences
University, Nagpur 440006, India

different pathotypes that cause a common disease using common and assortments of virulence factors [6]. The Shiga toxin-producing *E. coli* (STEC) causes severe clinical syndromes in humans such as haemorrhagic colitis and haemolytic uremic syndrome [7]. The virulence factors of STEC are the cytotoxins, Shiga-toxins 1 and 2 (encoded by the *stx1* and *stx2* genes, respectively) and the protein intimin (encoded by the chromosomal gene *eae*) responsible for the intimate attachment of the bacteria to intestinal epithelial cells and the enterohaemolysin, encoded by the *ehxA* gene [7]. In 2006, 19 outbreaks in the European Union have been linked to STEC, in which 111 persons with 42 hospitalizations were involved [8]. Earlier studies also documented the presence of some *E. coli* from raw milk and products possessing virulence markers [9–11]. Recent outbreak of *E. coli* O104:H4 in more than 14 European countries has caused 42 deaths and illness of more than 4,000 people [12]. Schaffzin et al. [13] summarized two outbreaks caused by non-O157 STEC in USA. These reports highlight the ability of non-O157 STEC to cause outbreaks and call for concerted efforts for their effective control.

Guaranteeing a greater food safety level for consumer products warrants an integrated approach to control food safety throughout the food chain [14, 15]. A number of regulations have been developed and introduced to assure food safety at different stages of the food production chain. Given many potential and emerging hazards along the chain, it is of practical importance to prioritize attributes. Though dairy products are deemed to be one of the safest classes of food, there is considerable concern about the possibility of hazards from dairy products to affect a large number of consumers [15].

Livestock production including dairy plays a multipurpose role in the agriculture systems of India. Dairy plays a dynamic role in India's agro-based economy. Today, India ranks the first in the world in terms of milk production. In India, limited information is available regarding the STEC in animals including cattle [16], sheep [17], fish [18], beef [19] and human faeces [19]. The objective of the study was to screen milk samples for the presence of *E. coli* and to further test for Shiga-toxin (*stx*) genes by PCR. The isolates were also characterized for their serogroups and *Xba*I digestion patterns of total DNA separated by pulsed-field gel electrophoresis (PFGE).

Material and Methods

Samples

A total of 647 milk samples from dairy cows were collected at different levels of collection and processing (udder,

milking utensils, milk collection centres and receiving dock) within West Coast region, India during 2006–2010. All the samples were collected aseptically, transported to the laboratory under chilled conditions and processed for microbiological analysis within 24 h of collection.

Isolation and Identification

The samples were plated on MacConkey's agar (HiMedia, Mumbai, India) plates and incubated at 37 °C for 18–24 h. Pure and a single population of bacterial colonies were recorded. Five randomly selected colonies from MacConkey's agar were picked up and subcultured on eosin methylene blue (EMB) agar (HiMedia, Mumbai, India) plates to observe the characteristic metallic sheen of *E. coli*. The well separated pure colonies were picked up on nutrient agar slants as pure culture and subjected for standard morphological and biochemical tests [20].

Detection of Virulence Genes by PCR

The singleplex PCR was carried out using two sets of oligonucleotide primers for the *stx1* and *stx2* genes. The PCR primers for *stx1* and *stx2* genes were previously described by Cebula et al. [21]. The primers used to amplify the *stx1* gene 5'-CAGTTAATGTGGTGGCGAAG G-3' and 5'-CACCAGACAATGTAACCGCTG-3' and the *stx2*: 5'-ATCCTATTCCTGGGAGTTTACG-3' and 5'-GC GTCATCGTATACACAGGAGE-3' were synthesized by Sigma Aldrich, USA. The expected size for PCR-amplified products was 348 bp for the *stx1* and 584 bp for the *stx2*. In brief, the genomic DNA of all the isolates was extracted using bacterial DNA extraction kit (Chromous Biotech, Bangalore, India). The PCR mixture of 25.0 µl contained 10× PCR buffer, 1.5 mM of MgCl₂, each primer within the two primer sets at a concentration of 40 nM, 200 µM each of dNTPs, 1.0 U of *Taq* DNA polymerase and 2.0 µl of template DNA. The PCR reaction was performed in a thermal cycler (Eppendorf, Germany). The samples were initially denatured at 94 °C for 3 min and then subjected to 35 cycles, each consisting denaturing for 1 min at 94 °C, annealing at 64 °C for 1.5 min and extension at 72 °C for 2 min. A final extension step was done for 10 min at 72 °C. The fragments were separated on 1.2 % agarose gel followed by ethidium bromide staining. Standard molecular size marker (100 bp DNA ladder) was included in each gel. DNA fragments were observed by ultraviolet transilluminator and photographed in a gel documentation system (Alpha Imager, USA). Both positive and negative controls were used in PCR experiments. *E. coli* MTCC 723 obtained from Institute of Microbial Technology, Chandigarh, India was used as control which was positive for the *stx1* and *stx2* genes.

Serotyping

Escherichia coli cultures were referred to National *Salmonella* and *Escherichia* Centre, Central Research Institute, Kasauli, Himachal Pradesh, India, for sero-grouping. The isolates were serogrouped for ‘O’ antigen.

Pulsed-Field Gel Electrophoresis

Genomic DNA fingerprints of the STEC isolates were further determined using PFGE according to a standard protocol developed by PulseNet for *E. coli* O157:H7 [22]. Briefly, agarose-embedded DNA was digested with 50 U of *Xba*I for 3 h in a water bath at 37 °C. DNA fragments were separated by electrophoresis in 0.5× Tris–borate–EDTA buffer at 14 °C for 18 h on a CHEF-II Mapper electrophoresis system (Bio-Rad Laboratories), with a pulse time of 2.2–54.2 s at constant voltage of 6 V/cm. A PFGE Marker I (New England Biolabs) was included in each agarose run. The generated PFGE patterns were analyzed using the Gel Compare II (Applied Maths) software. The pattern clustering was performed by the unweighted-pair group algorithm and the Dice correlation coefficient with a tolerance of 1 %. The results of the clustering analysis were confirmed by visual comparison of the PFGE profiles. A similarity coefficient of 80 % was selected to define the pulsed-field type clusters.

Results and Discussion

Milk may get contaminated with *E. coli* during different stages of production and processing. Therefore, the present work was intended to study the occurrence of *E. coli* in the milk. The bacteriological examination of milk samples ($n = 647$) revealed the presence of *E. coli* in 77 (11.90 %) samples. Biochemically, the isolates were identified as *E. coli*. Maximum isolates were detected at market level followed by the receiving dock. In earlier studies [23], *E. coli* was isolated from 33 (66 %) of the 50 raw milk and product samples tested. A study in Pakistan also reported heavy contamination (57 %) of the raw milk and products by *E. coli* [24].

Of the 77 *E. coli* isolates, 64 were typeable and belonged to 35 different O-serogroups (O2, O3, O4, O7, O15, O18, O21, O24, O25, O43, O45, O51, O56, O60, O69, O80, O83, O84, O88, O95, O97, O100, O103, O110, O112, O114, O120, O124, O140, O141, O146, O147, O159, O166, O169). Eight isolates were considered as O untypeable (UT) and five as rough strains. In the present study, a total of thirty-five different serogroups of *E. coli* were isolated, of which O4 was the predominant. Previous studies in India [25] showed the predominance of O9, O8, O60 and O25 in

animal cases. Mishra et al. [26] found O2, O19, O20 and O78 as predominant serogroups amongst the *E. coli* isolates from 250 clinical specimens from poultry in India. Sanath Kumar et al. [18] reported the presence of STEC in seafood of serogroups other than that of O157. These findings indicate the variable distribution of different serogroups of *E. coli* in different geographical regions in India. Studies in USA reported that *E. coli* O26, O45, O103, O111, O113, O121, O145, and O157 have been the most commonly identified O-serogroups associated with STEC implicated in outbreaks of human illness all over the world [27]. Zweifel et al. [28] detected a notable proportion of non-O157 STEC serogroups associated with human infections in semi-hard and hard raw milk cheese. In another study, about 77.4 % of the isolates from mastitic milk belonged to four different O-serogroups (O26, O86, O111, and O127) [29]. In the context of lack of data on the occurrence of STEC in milk from India, the study is of significance. Studies in India have confirmed that cattle are the principal reservoir of non-O157 serogroups [19].

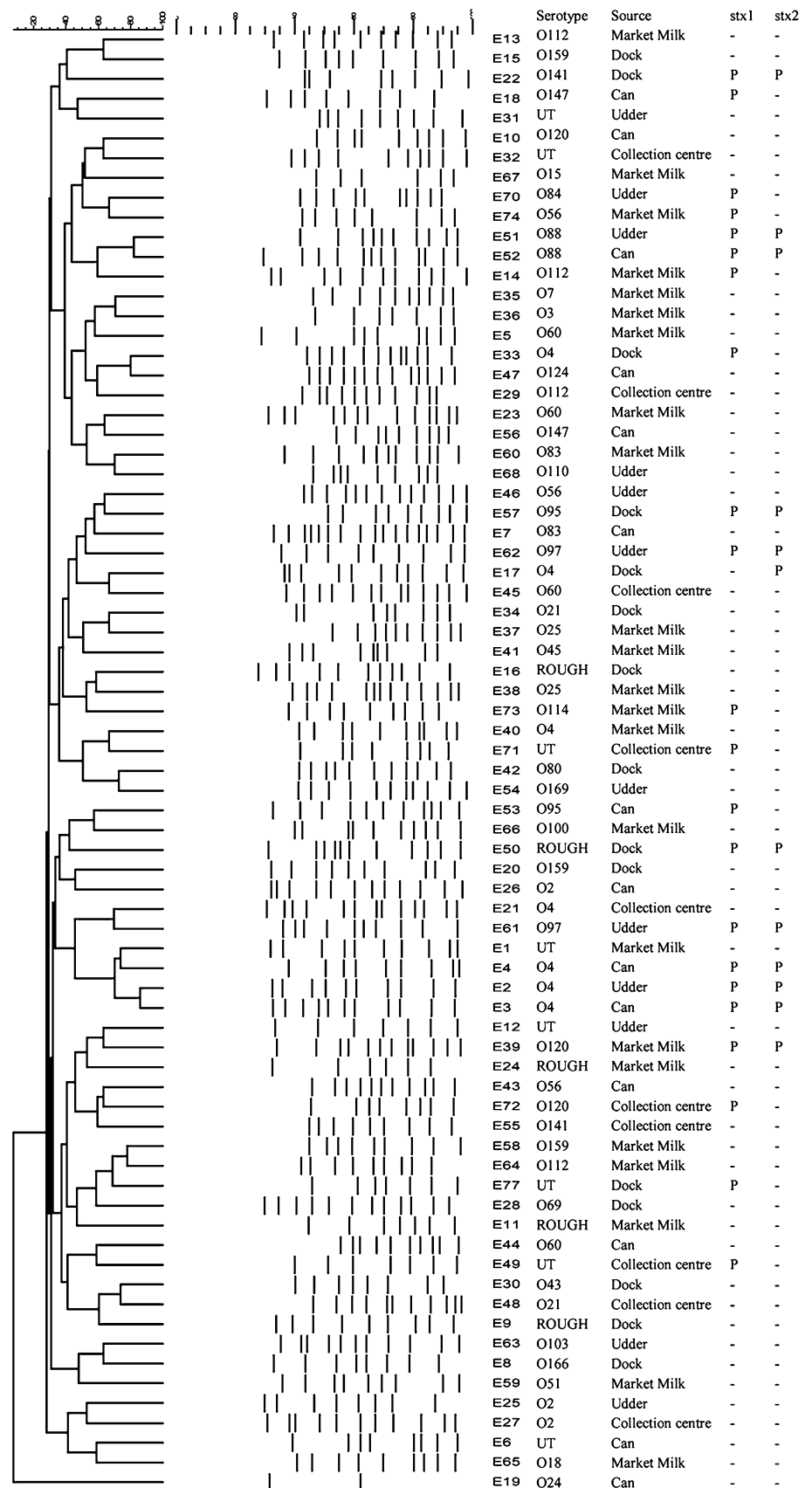
In this study, PCR assay yielded amplified products of ~384 and ~584 bp specific for the *stx1* and *stx2* genes, respectively. Of 77 *E. coli* strains recovered, 25 (32.46 %) had one or more of the genes responsible for virulence of *E. coli* (Table 1). PCR assay revealed that 11/77 (14.29 %) of the isolates carried the *stx1* gene alone, 3/77 (3.89 %) possessed the *stx2* alone and 11/77 (14.29 %) carried both the *stx1* and *stx2* genes.

In this study, the *stx1* gene was the predominant *stx* type (28.57 %), in contrast to previous studies in cattle and humans [30, 31] and dairy cattle [22, 32]. It has been demonstrated that the *stx2* gene is associated with high virulence in humans [22, 33]. Characterization of STEC isolated from Swiss raw milk cheese revealed thirteen of the 24 strains typeable with O antisera belonging to the serogroups O2, O22, and O91 and the *stx2* (86 %) was more prevalent than the *stx1* gene (46 %) [34]. On the contrary, Carneiro et al. [35] could not detect *stx1* and *stx2* genes from strains isolated from *E. coli* isolated from

Table 1 Virulence profiles for STEC isolates recovered from milk samples

STEC strains origin	Isolates	Genes		
		<i>stx1</i> No. (%)	<i>stx2</i> No. (%)	<i>stx1</i> + <i>stx2</i> No. (%)
Udder	13	1 (7.69)	1 (7.69)	4 (30.76)
Can	14	2 (14.28)	–	3 (21.42)
Milk collection centre	11	2 (18.18)	1 (9.09)	–
Receiving dock	16	3 (18.75)	1 (6.25)	3 (18.75)
Market milk	23	3 (13.04)	–	1 (4.34)
Total	77	11 (14.28)	3 (3.89)	11 (14.28)

Fig. 1 Dendrogram of the 74 *E. coli* strains based on PFGE patterns after digestion with enzyme *Xba*I



pasteurized milk. The *stx1* and *stx2* genes were detected in 3 and 6.1 %, respectively of *E. coli* strains isolated from raw milk samples in Saudi Arabia [23]. Montenegro et al. [36] reported that most of the STEC isolates of bovine origin encoded for *stx1* gene. In another study, of the 16 strains detected from raw milk cheese samples, 11 were typed into 7 *E. coli* O groups (O2, O15, O22, O91, O109, O113, O174), whereas 5 strains were nontypeable and the *stx1* and *stx2* variants were detected in 1 and 15 strains, respectively [13]. Osman et al. [29] investigated non-O157 isolates for the *stx* genes, however, none was *stx* positive. STEC O83 has been reported to be associated with human illness [37] raising the possibility that O83 might be transmitted to humans via milk products. Since not all STEC strains are equally pathogenic to humans, evaluation of virulence-associated factors is necessary to assess the potential of individual isolate to cause human illness.

Large foodborne outbreaks have been linked to STEC and some of which have been linked to dairy products [22]. Many factors, such as geographical location and sampling, isolation, and testing methods, make comparisons of different studies difficult [34]. There is a paucity of data on contamination by STEC in raw milk and there is growing concern over the emergence of highly virulent non-O157 STEC serogroups that are globally distributed, several of which are associated with outbreaks and/or severe human illness, such as HUS and HC [37, 38].

Pulsed-field gel electrophoresis of *XbaI*-digested DNA fragments isolated from the 74 *E. coli* isolates generated 69 unrelated *XbaI*-PFGE subtypes at 80 % similarity (Fig. 1). Pulsed field electrophoresis with *XbaI* endonuclease is currently considered as being a highly discriminatory method for molecular typing of STEC. The isolates belonging to the same serogroups, differed in PFGE profiles and *stx* genotypes. Isolates of the same serogroups tended to cluster together, however, polymorphism among the isolates of the same serogroup was also observed, according to different PFGE patterns. All other isolates had their own specific PFGE profiles, with similarity indices ranging from 40 to 90 %. In a study [22] PFGE of *XbaI*-digested DNA fragments isolated from the 118 STEC isolates generated 74 unrelated *XbaI*-PFGE subtypes. PFGE demonstrated a wide diversity of STEC strains isolated at different levels of collection. This diversity may be linked to the different factors such the handling, utensils used, new bovines and environmental contamination.

The non-O157 STEC serogroups described in this study are associated worldwide with diseases in human beings and represent a risk for the public health [27]. For this, any microbiological control in dairy farms should be targeted not only to the search of O157:H7 serotype. Consumption of contaminated food has been considered as the main route of STEC infections in humans [39]. STEC strains

have been isolated from a large variety of different foods including raw-milk cheeses [7, 40, 41].

The morbidity and mortality associated with several large outbreaks of gastrointestinal diseases caused by Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* (STEC) indicate the threat of these organisms to public health [42]. These are commonly recovered from food animals and were found responsible for severe gastrointestinal and systemic diseases such as haemorrhagic colitis (HC) and haemolytic uremic syndrome (HUS) leading to diarrhoea, especially among the infants in the developing countries [42, 43]. Although, in India, reports are available on isolation, identification and characterization of STEC in human and animals [17–20, 25, 44, 45], there appears no information on association of STEC in raw milk. Detection of STEC in raw milk in the present study is probably the first report in India.

In conclusion, the findings provide the information about the involvement of STEC in raw milk in India. In India, a much larger segment of the population, particularly the rural population, consumes raw unpasteurized milk directly and indirectly. The fact that the serogroups reported from raw milk samples were common to that reported from animal populations suggested that the source of contamination of milk might be from animals. Once entered into the dairy food processing plants, the foodborne pathogens can lead to persistence through formation of biofilms, subsequently contaminating the processed milk products and exposure of consumers to pathogenic bacteria [1]. Furthermore, recontamination of dairy products may occur with pathogens such as *E. coli* which survive and thrive in post-pasteurization processing. Under these circumstances, unpasteurized dairy products as well as dairy products that become re-contaminated after pasteurization with foodborne pathogens pose a risk to the consumer.

The isolation and diversity of STEC serogroups found in this study have confirmed that raw milk can be an important reservoir of STEC. The serogroups carrying genes related to human diseases suggest a risk to the population. This should be taken into account in the control and preventive measures to minimize the risk of STEC foodborne infection in humans.

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