Short Paper

Isolation of *Clostridium difficile* and molecular detection of binary and A/B toxins in faeces of dogs

Ghavidel, M.¹; Salari Sedigh, H.^{2*} and Razmyar, J.²

¹Ph.D. Student in Bacteriology, Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Medicine, Mashhad University of Medical Sciences, Mashhad, Iran; ²Department of Clinical Sciences, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran

*Correspondence: H. Salari Sedigh, Department of Clinical Sciences, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Mashhad, Iran. E-mail: hssedigh@um.ac.ir

(Received 3 May 2015; revised version 28 May 2016; accepted 28 Jun 2016)

Summary

The aim of this study was to isolate *Clostridium difficile* from dogs' faeces, and to study the frequency of its virulence genes. A total of 151 samples of dogs' faeces were collected. The isolation of *C. difficile* was performed by using the bacterial culture methods followed by DNA extraction using boiling method. Multiplex PCR method was performed for identification of *tcdA*, *tcdB*, *cdtA* and *cdtB* genes and single method was carried out for detection of *tcdC*. Twelve samples (7.9%) were positive in bacteriological assay and based on molecular assay, 66.7% of the isolates (8 of 12 *C. difficile* isolated) had shown tcdA⁺, tcdB⁺ profile. This is the first investigation on molecular assay of *C. difficile* in Iran's dog population.

Key words: Clostridium difficile, Dog, Molecular detection

Introduction

Clostridium difficile is a Gram-positive sporeforming anaerobic bacillus which has been identified as a main bacterial pathogen in both human and animals' intestine. It is a common cause of enteritis in a variety of animal species (Doosti and Mokhtari-Farsani, 2014). In addition, some reports have recently raised the importance of wild animals as a reservoir of *C. difficile* for humans and domestic animals.

A number of bacterial organisms commonly associated with diarrhea in dogs and cats include *Salmonella*, *Campylobacter*, *Clostridium perfringens* and *C. difficile* (Marks *et al.*, 2011).

Two large clostridial toxins A and B (TcdA and TcdB) were among the main virulence factors. TcdA and TcdB are strong cytotoxic enzymes damaging the human colonic mucosa (Deneve *et al.*, 2009).

TcdA and TcdB in the pathogenicity locus are controlled by two regulators, TcdR and TcdC. TcdR is an alternative sigma factor which positively regulates transcription of *tcdA* and *tcdB* while TcdC may function as an anti-sigma factor impeding the activity of TcdR, although some researches have reported that TcdC does not influence toxin production (McKee *et al.*, 2013).

The *C. difficile* ADP-ribosyltransferase was a binary toxin consisting of two independently coded protein components: a binding component (CDTb) and an enzymatic component (CDTa) which catalyzes the ADP-ribosylation of monomeric action, inducing alterations in the cytoskeleton (Marks and Kather, 2003).

In dogs, pathogenicity and the importance of *C*. *difficile* is not fully understood as yet. Clinical signs that

have been associated with canine *C. difficile* infection range from asymptomatic carrier to a potentially fatal acute hemorrhagic diarrheal syndrome (Marks *et al.*, 2011).

A simple and quick method is required in order to distinguish toxigenic and non-toxigenic strains of *C*. *difficile* in dogs. The objective of the current study was to investigate the molecular characteristics of various isolates of *C*. *difficile* isolated from diarrheic and non-diarrheic dogs, through the use of toxin gene profiling.

Materials and Methods

A total of 151 faecal samples was collected from 151 dogs, 131 of which were apparently healthy and 20 were diarrheic. The samples from diarrheic dogs were obtained directly from the rectum, in a veterinary teaching clinic at the time of consultation and were only collected from dogs in which the main motivation for the consultation was the occurrence of diarrhea. There were 60 male and 91 female dogs, aged from 3 months to 11 years.

Isolation and identification of *C. difficile* were performed according to standard procedures (Fedorko *et al.*, 1997; Pituch *et al.*, 2002). Two or three passages were done to obtain the pure culture. Reference strains of *C. difficile* were used as positive controls.

A single colony of each strain was suspended in 100 μ L distilled water, boiled for 10 min and then centrifuged at 10,000 × g for 10 min. The supernatants were collected carefully and used as template DNA for PCR (Aldous *et al.*, 2005).

A 5-plex PCR was performed for the detection of

tcdA, tcdB, cdtA, cdtB and 16S rDNA based on Persson *et al.* (2008). The tcdC analysis was performed based on Antikainen *et al.* (2009), primer list was shown in Table 1. PCR products were fractionated by electrophoresis in 1.5% agarose gels. Data analysis was performed by using SPSS software (SPSS 19.0). Correlation between positive bacteria samples and diarrhea, gender and age was assessed by Chi-square. A p-value <0.05 was considered significant.

Results

Twelve *C. difficile* (7.9%) were isolated from dog faeces in Columbia agar. Twelve *C. difficile* which have been selected for multiplex PCR. The isolation rate was as follows: diarrheic dogs (4/20: 20%) and healthy dogs (8/131: 6.1%). Out of 91 female dogs 10 (11.8%), and of 60 male dogs 2 (3.2%), were positive in culture. Ten isolates belonged to dogs aged below 3 years old (8.3%)

and 2 isolates in dogs above 3 years old (6.6%).

All 12 isolates were confirmed to have 1062 bp band (16S rDNA) of *C. difficle* (7.9%) (Table 2). *Clostridium difficile* toxins A and B were identified in faces of 8 (66.7%) samples of 12 isolates and four isolates (33.3%) were non-toxigenic ($tcdA^{-}$, $tcdB^{-}$).

One isolate possessed binary toxin (cdtA, ctdB) in addition to tcdA and tcdB belonging to non-diarrheic dog. TcdC band includes: (139, 121, 100 or 85 bp) 2 isolates with 85 bp band and 2 tcdC gene negative isolates which were also 16s rDNA positive and non-toxigenic. Eight isolates have 139 bp bands, 4 of which were related to diarrheic dogs.

There was not any significant correlation between positive *C. difficle* and dogs' diarrhea (P=0.055) nor between positive *C. difficle* and gender (P=0.085). In this study, dogs were thus divided into three age categories: Under 1 year, 1-3 years and More than 3 years in which correlations between age and positive *C. difficle* isolated were not significant (P=0.856).

Table 1: Multiplex PCR primer and single PCR primer in this study

Analysis	Gene target	Primer name	Sequence (5'-3')	Primer concentration (µM)	Amplicon size (bp)	Reference
5-plex PCR	tcdA	tcdA-F3345 tcdA-R3969	GCATGATAAGGCAACTTCAGTGGTAa AGTTCCTCCTGCTCCATCAAATG	0.6 0.6	629	Persson et al. (2008)
	tcdB	tcdB-F5670 tcdB-R6079A	CCAAARTGGAGTGTTACAAACAGGTG GCATTTCTCCATTCTCAGCAAAGTA	0.4 0.2	410	Persson et al. (2008)
	cdtA	cdtA-F739A cdtA-F739B cdtA-R958	GGGAAGCACTATATTAAAGCAGAAGC GGGAAACATTATATTAAAGCAGAAGC CTGGGTTAGGATTATTTACTGGACCA	0.05 0.05 0.1	221	Persson et al. (2008)
	ctdB	ctdB-F617 cdtB-R878	TTGACCCAAAGTTGATGTCTGATTG CGGATCTCTTGCTTCAGTCTTTATAG	0.1 0.1	262	Persson et al. (2008)
	16S rDNA	PS13 PS14	GGAGGCAGCAGTGGGGAATA TGACGGGCGGTGTGTACAAG	0.05 0.05	1062	Persson et al. (2008)
tcdC analysis	tcdC	tcdC-121-F tcdC-121-R	AAGCTATTGAAGCTGAAAATC GCTAATTGGTCATAAGTAATACC	0.15 0.15	139 (intact)	Antikainen et al. (2009)

Table 2: Identification of C	<i>C. difficile</i> isolated for	rm canine faecal sam	ples complemented	with other data

	Closteridium difficile					
Dogs	16s RND tcdA ⁺ , tcdB ⁺ , tcdC ⁺ (139 bp)	16s RND tcdA ⁺ , tcdB ⁺ , tcdC ⁺ (139 bp), ctdAB ⁺	16s RND tcdA ⁺ , tcdB ⁺ , tcdC ⁺ (85 bp)	16s RND tcdA ⁻ , tcdB ⁻ , tcdC ⁻	- Total	
Diarrheic	4/4 (100%) 4/20 (20%)	-	-	-	4/4 (100%) 4/20 (20%)	
Non-diarrheic	3/8 (37.5%) 3/131 (2.2%)	1/8 (12.5%) 1/131 (0.8%)	2/8 (25%) 2/131 (1.5%)	2/8 (25%) 2/131 (1.5%)	8/8 (100%) 8/131 (6.1%)	
Total	7/12 (58.3%) 7/151 (4.6%)	1/12 (8.3%) 1/151 (0.7%)	2/12 (16.7%) 2/151 (1.3%)	2/12 (16.7%) 2/151 (1.3%)	12/151 (7.9%)	
Female	6/10 (60%) 6/91 (6.6%)	-	2/10 (20%) 2/91 (2.2%)	2/10 (20%) 2/91 (2.2%)	10/10 (100%) 10/91 (11%)	
Male	1/2 (50%) 1/60 (1.7%)	1/2 (50%) 1/60 (1.7%)	-	-	2/2 (100%) 2/60 (3.3%)	
Total	7/12 (58.3%) 7/151 (4.6%)	1/12 (8.3%) 1/151 (0.7%)	2/12 (16.7%) 2/151 (1.3%)	2/12 (16.7%) 2/151 (1.3%)	12/12 (100%) 12/151 (7.9%)	
Age ≤ 3 years	7/10 (70%) 7/121 (5.8%)	- -	1/10 (10%) 1/121 (0.8%)	2/10 (20%) 2/121 (1.6%)	10/10 (100%) 10/121 (8.2%)	
Age >3 years	-	1/2 (50%) 1/30 (3.3%)	1/2 (50%) 1/30 (3.3%)	-	2/2 (100%) 2/30 (6.7%)	
Total	7/12 (58.3%) 7/151 (4.6%)	1/12 (8.3%) 1/151 (0.7%)	2/12 (16.7%) 2/151 (1.3%)	2/12 (16.7%) 2/151 (1.3%)	12/12 (100%) 12/151 (7.9%)	

Discussion

Clostridium difficile has been isolated from almost all mammals (Dabard *et al.*, 1979; Frazier *et al.*, 1993; Hasanzade *et al.*, 2013).

In Iran several studies have been performed for detection of *C. difficile* (Jalali *et al.*, 2012; Fooladi *et al.*, 2014; Rahimi *et al.*, 2014) but this study is the first investigation on *C. difficile* isolated from dog population in Iran. Many researches on animals concentrate on the presence of the bacterium in healthy animals. Investigation on the role of household pets as a possible reservoir of *C. difficile* revealed that both healthy and diseased dogs and cats can shed spores of *C. difficile* (Riley *et al.*, 1991).

Colonization of humans by *C. difficile* can produce enteric symptoms termed CDI, ranging from asymptomatic intestinal colonization to diarrhea. The most common transmission routes of *C. difficile* include: direct transmission from human to human, direct contact with the animals and environment, aerosol transmission and consuming contaminated food and water (Ghose, 2013).

There have been several studies worldwide aimed at isolating and molecular typing *C. difficile* in dogs (Marks *et al.*, 2002; Kevin *et al.*, 2007; Clooten *et al.*, 2008; Koene *et al.*, 2011; Ossiprandi *et al.*, 2012; Silva *et al.*, 2013).

In this study, 12 isolates of *C. difficile* were isolated from 151 dogs (7.9%) in which the number of dogs being *C. difficile* positive was lower than other recent reports (O'Neill *et al.*, 1993; Marks *et al.*, 2002; Kevin *et al.*, 2007), however two other studies have reported a lower rate of *C. difficile* in comparison with the current study (Weese *et al.*, 2001; Wetterwik *et al.*, 2013) 2%, 5.7% positive samples, respectively.

In this study, 8 of the 12 isolates (66.6%) were toxigenic (tcdA⁺, tcdB⁺). Our research was similar to that of Ossiprandi *et al.* (2012). The last research signifies that 60% of the isolates were toxigenic (tcdA⁺, tcdB⁺). Clooten *et al.* (2008) found that 69% of the isolates were toxigenic (tcdA⁺, tcdB⁺).

In the current study, one isolate possessed binary toxin gene which was $A^+ B^+$ and was derived from nondiarrheic dog. Silva *et al.* (2013) found one strain with this characteristic.

In this study, we observed the fact that 4 isolates showed tcdA⁺, tcdB⁺ and tcdC⁺ patterns, while the subjects have shown clinical signs of diarrhea which might be due to the variability of tcdC alleles among toxigenic isolates. There have been reports indicating *C*. *difficile* isolates being characterized by a non-specific inframe 18 bp deletion and a specific point deletion at position 117, which results in a frame-shift mutation introducing a stop codon at position 196. This phenomenon leads to a truncated, inactive TcdC protein, the severe truncation of this protein, therefore, seems responsible for the increased toxin production in these pathogenic *C. difficile* isolates which would usually negatively regulate toxin production (Deneve *et al.*, 2009).

Acknowledgements

The research leading to these results was funded by a grant (No. 16142) from the Research Council of the Ferdowsi University of Mashhad. We would like to thank Mr. A. Kargar for his assistance in the laboratory work, Prof. A. Barin and Dr. T. Pirzadeh for providing reference strains.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no potential conflicts of interest.

References

- Aldous, WK; Pounder, JI; Cloud, JL and Woods, GL (2005). Comparison of six methods of extracting *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* DNA from processed sputum for testing by quantitative real-time PCR. J. Clin. Microbiol., 43: 2471-2473.
- Antikainen, J; Pasanen, T; Mero, S; Tarkka, E; Kirveskari, J; Kotila, S; Mentula, S; Könönen, E; Virolainen-Julkunen, AR and Vaara, M (2009). Detection of virulence genes of *Clostridium difficile* by multiplex PCR. APMIS., 117: 607-613.
- **Clooten, J; Kruth, S; Arroyo, L and Weese, JS** (2008). Prevalence and risk factors for *Clostridium difficile* colonization in dogs and cats hospitalized in an intensive care unit. Vet. Microbiol., 129: 209-214.
- **Dabard, J; Dubos, F; Martinet, L and Ducluzeau, R** (1979). Experimental reproduction of neonatal diarrhea in young gnotobiotic hares simultaneously associated with *Clostridium difficile* and other *Clostridium* strains. Infect. Immun., 24: 7-11.
- **Deneve, C; Janoir, C; Poilane, I; Fantinato, C and Collignon, A** (2009). New trends in *Clostridium difficile* virulence and pathogenesis. Int. J. Antimicrob. Agents. 33: S24-S28.
- **Doosti, A and Mokhtari-Farsani, A** (2014). Study of the frequency of *Clostridium difficile tcdA*, *tcdB*, *cdtA* and *cdtB* genes in feces of calves in south west of Iran. Ann. Clin. Microbiol. Antimicrob., 13: 1-6.
- Fedorko, DP and Williams, EC (1997). Use of cycloserinecefoxitinfructose agar and L-proline-aminopeptidase (PRO Discs) in the rapid identification of *Clostridium difficile*. J. Clinic. Microbiol., 35: 1258-1259.
- Fooladi, AAI; Rahmati, S; Abadi, JFM; Halabian, R; Sedighian, H; Soltanpour, MJ and Rahimi, M (2014). Isolation of *Clostridium difficile* and detection of A and B toxins encoding genes. Int. J. Entric. Pathog., 2: e15238.
- Frazier, KS; Herron, AJ; Hines, ME; Gaskin, JM and Altman, NH (1993). Diagnosis of enteritis and enterotoxemia due to *Clostridium difficile* in captive ostriches (*Struthio camelus*). J. Vet. Diagn. Invest., 5: 623-625.
- **Ghose, C** (2013). *Clostridium difficile* infection in the twentyfirst century. Emerg. Microbes. Infect., 2: 1-8.
- Hasanzade, A and Rahimi, E (2013). Isolation of *Clostridium difficile* from turkey and ostrich meat sold in meat stores of Isfahan city. I.J.A.B.B.R., 1: 963-967.
- Jalali, M; Khorvash, F; Warriner, K and Weese, JS (2012). *Clostridium difficile* infection in an Iranian hospital. BMC.

Res. Notes. 5: 159.

- Kevin, K; Brazier, JS; Post, KW; Weese, S and Songer, JG (2007). Prevalence of PCR ribotypes among *Clostridium difficile* isolates from pigs, calves, and other species. J. Clin. Microbiol., 45: 1963-1964.
- Koene, MGJ; Mevius, D; Wagenaar, JA; Harmanus, C; Hensgens, MPM; Meetsma, AM; Putirulan, FF; Bergen, MAP and Kuijper, EJ (2011). *Clostridium difficile* in Dutch animals: their presence, characteristics and similarities with human isolates. Clin. Microbiol. Infect., 18: 778-784.
- Marks, SL and Kather, EJ (2003). Antimicrobial susceptibilities of canine *Clostridium difficile* and *Clostridium perfringens* isolates to commonly utilized antimicrobial drugs. Vet. Microbiol., 94: 39-45.
- Marks, S; Kather, EJ; Kass, PH and Melli, AC (2002). Genotypic and phenotypic characterization of *Clostridium perfringens* and *Clostridium difficile* in diarrheic and healthy dogs. J. Vet. Intern. Med., 16: 533-540.
- Marks, S; Rankin, S; Byrne, B and Weese, J (2011). Enteropathogenic bacteria in dogs and cats: diagnosis, epidemiology, treatment, and control. J. Vet. Intern. Med., 25: 1195-1208.
- McKee, R; Mangalea, M; Purcell, E; Borchardt, E and Tamayo, R (2013). The second messenger cyclic Di-GMP regulates *Clostridium difficile* toxin production by controlling expression of sigD. J. Bacteriol., 195: 5174-5185.
- **O'Neill, G; Adams, JE; Bowman, RA and Riley, TV** (1993). A molecular characterization of *Clostridium difficile* isolates from humans, animals and their environments. Epidemiol. Infect., 111: 257-264.
- **Ossiprandi, MC; Buttrini, M; Bottarelli, E and Zerbini, L** (2012). A preliminary molecular typing by PCR assays of

Clostridium perfringens and *Clostridium difficile* isolates from dogs. AiM., 2: 87-92.

- **Persson, S; Torpdahl, M and Olsen, KEP** (2008). New multiplex PCR method for the detection of *Clostridium difficile* toxin A (tcdA) and toxin B (tcdB) and the binary toxin (*cdtA/cdtB*) genes applied to a Danish strain collection. Clin. Microbiol. Infect., 14: 1057-1064.
- Pituch, H; Obuch-Woszczatyński, P; Van Den Braak, N; Van Belkum, A; Kujawa, M; Luczak, M and Meisel-Mikolajczyk, F (2002). Variable flagella expression among clonal toxin A–/B+ *Clostridium difficile* strains with highly homogeneous flagellin genes. Clin. Microbiol. Infect., 8: 187-188.
- Rahimi, E; Jalali, M and Weese, JS (2014). Prevalence of *Clostridium difficile* in raw beef, cow, sheep, goat, camel and buffalo meat in Iran. BMC. Public Health. 14: 119.
- Riley, T; Adams, J; O'Neill, G and Bowman, R (1991). Gastrointestinal carriage of *Clostridium difficile* in cats and dogs attending veterinary clinics. Epidemiol. Infect., 107: 659-665.
- Silva, ROS; Santos, RLR; Pires, PS; Pereira, LC; Duarte, MC; de Assis, RA and Lobato, FC (2013). Detection of toxins A/B and isolation of *Clostridium difficile* and *Clostridium perfringens* from dogs in Minas Gerais, Brazil. Braz. J. Microbiol., 44: 133-137.
- Weese, JS; Staempfli, HR; Prescott, JF; Kruth, SA; Greenwood, SJ and Weese, HE (2001). The roles of *Clostridium difficile* and enterotoxigenic *Clostridium perfringens* in diarrhea in dogs. J. Vet. Intern. Med., 15: 374-378.
- Wetterwik, K; Trowald-Wigh, G; Fernström, L and Krovacek, K (2013). *Clostridium difficile* in faeces from healthy dogs and dogs with diarrhea. Acta Vet. Scand., 55: 23.