

International Journal of Medical Laboratory

Original Article

Molecular Analysis of Toxigenic *Clostridium difficile* Isolates from Hospital Environment by PCR Ribotyping Method

Mohamad Hossein Salari^{1*} Ph.D., Nourkhoda Sadeghifard² Ph.D., Mohamadreza Ghasemi¹ Ph.D., Farzaneh Amin-Harati¹ M.S., Sedigheh Ghorchian¹ M.S.

¹ Department of Pathobiology, School of Public Health, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran ² Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Medicine, Ilam University of Medical Sciences, Ilam, Iran

A B S T R A C T

Article history Received 5 Sep 2014 Accepted 9 Oct 2014 Available online 15 Dec 2014

Keywords

Clostridium difficile Environment PCR ribotyping Toxigenic **Background and Aims:** *Clostridium difficile* is an identified cause of antibioticassociated diarrhea, antibiotic-associated colitis, pseudomembranous colitis and nosocomial diarrhea. The objective of this survey was to determine molecular analysis of toxigenic *Clostridium difficile* isolates from hospital environment in Tehran tertiary medical centers.

Materials and Methods: In this descriptive study, 100 hospital environmental specimens were collected. The specimens were cultured on a selective cycloserine cefoxitin fructose agar, and incubated in anaerobic conditions, at 37°C for 2 days. *Clostridium difficile* isolates were characterized by conventional biochemical tests. Bacterial cytotoxicity was assayed on tissue culture, and also all strains were typed by PCR ribotyping method.

Results: Among toxigenic *Clostridium difficile* isolates, 6 isolates had the same PCR ribotyping patterns, and 11 isolates were typed in four different groups.

Conclusion: Our findings showed that toxigenic *Clostridium difficile* isolates had different PCR ribotyping patterns. Further studies are recommended to evaluate PCR typing of hospital environmental *Clostridium difficile* isolates.

Corresponding Author: Department of Pathobiology, School of Public Health, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran, **Tel:** +982164026140, **E-mail address:** mhsalari@tums.ac.ir

Introduction

Clostridium difficile is a major spore-forming environmental pathogen that is found in soil, and is nosocomially acquired during outbreaks of diarrhea in hospitalized patients who are immunocompromised or for whom antibiotics are prescribed. estimates are that as many as 300,000 patients suffer from Clostridium difficile associated disease each year in the United States [1-3]. Pathogenesis is associated with several toxins produced by toxigenic strains of Clostridium difficile [4-7]. Isolation rate of Clostridium difficile varies from 90% in specimens of patients with pseudomembranous colitis (PMC) to 20-25% in patients with antibiotic-associated diarrhea (AAD). Major risk factors of nosocomial Clostridium difficile -associated diarrhea include advanced age, duration of hospitalization, severity of underlying disease and exposure to antibiotics. This anaerobic bacterium has been identified as the leading cause of nosocomial infectious diarrhea, and can be responsible for large outbreaks [8].

A number of molecular typing methods, such as arbitrarily primed PCR, RFLP, PFGE and PCR ribotyping have been used internationally to study Clostridium difficile strains of different origins [9]. Most of these typing methods are suitable for following outbreaks, determining recurrences, studing characterizing endemic strains and tracing the spread of Clostridium difficile. PCR ribotyping is a method that is widely used to determine the intraspecies genetic variation of Clostridium difficile, in which the 16S and 23S

rRNA intergenic spacer region can be amplified using specific primers under stringent amplification conditions [9-12]. The main goal of this study was to determine molecular profile of isolated toxigenic *Clostridium difficile* from hospital environmental specimens in Tehran tertiary medical centers.

Materials and Methods

In this descriptive study 100 specimens of Tehran University of Medical Sciences hospitals (Imam Khomeini hospital, Shariati hospital and Children medical center) were collected.

This project was approved by Ethics Committee for research in Tehran University of Medical Sciences.

The specimens were cultured on selective cycloserine cefoxitin fructose agar (CCFA medium, Bio Merieux, France). Then the cultures were incubated under anaerobic condition (Gas pack, Merk, germany) for 48 hrs at 37°C. The isolates were identified by characteristic morphology and biochemical tests (API20A; Bio Merieux, France) [13-17]. Bacterial cytotoxicity was assayed on Vero cell culture monolayers. A filter-sterilized, 1:10 dilution of stool, and also Clostridium difficile isolates broth culture were used to inoculate Vero cell monolayers with and without neutralizing Clostridium difficile antitoxin (Tech Lab, Inc, Blacksburg). Tissue cultures were examined at 24 and 48 hrs [18-19].

DNA extraction and PCR-ribotyping

Chromosomal DNA was extracted from colonies of Clostridium difficile using the ultraclean soil DNA kit (Mo Bio). The DNA obtained was resuspended in Tris-EDTA buffer and electrophoresed on 1% agarose gel. PCR amplification of the intergenic spacer region (ISR) was carried out using two universal primers complementary to conserved regions in the 16S and 23S rRNA genes. The forward and reverse primer sequences are located at nucleotide positions 1477 to 1493 on the 16S rRNA gene of Clostridium difficile strain 630 (region 4, 5'-GGC TGG ATC ACC TCC TT-3' and region 5, 5' -TAG TGC CAA GGC ATC CGC CCT-3' complementary to positions 21 to 41 on the 23S rRNA gene), respectively [20]. DNA templates were amplified in a total reaction volume of 50 µl containing 2.5 U of AmpliTaq Gold thermostable polymerase (Roche company, USA), 50 pmol of each primer, 200 mM of each deoxynucleotide, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 10 mM

and Tris-HCl (pH 8.3), 50mM KCl. Amplification was carried out in a GeneAmp 2400 thermal cycler (Applied Biosystems) with denaturation at 94°C for 10 min, followed by 30 cycles according to the following program: 94°C for 1 min, 54°C for 1 min, 72°C for 2 min, and a final extension of 10 min at 72°C to complete partial polymerizations. The resulting amplification products analyzed on a 2% agarose gel, stained with ethidium bromide, and viewed on a UV transilluminator [21].

Results

Out of the total hospital environmental specimens, 17 toxigenic *Clostridium difficile* were isolated. The PCR ribotypes consisted of patterns comprising 2-10 bands, with the size of the bands varying from 250-630 bp. Among of toxigenic *Clostridium difficile* isolates, 6 isolates had the same PCR-ribotyping patterns, and 11 isolates were typed in four different groups (Table 1).

environmental specimens on the basis of PCR ribotyping patterns				
Toxigenic <i>Clostridium</i> <i>difficile</i> isolates	PCR ribotyping patterns			
	Number	Percentage	Similare	Different
Positive	17	17	6	11
Negative	83	83	-	

Table 1. Specification of toxigenic *Clostridium difficile* isolates from 100 hospital environmental specimens on the basis of PCR ribotyping patterns

Discussion

Over the past 20 years, toxigenic *Clostridium difficile* appeared to be the main cause of

nosocomial diarrhea and hospital outbreaks. *Clostridium difficile* accounts for 15 to 25% of cases of antibiotic-associated diarrhea and 95% of cases of pseudomembranous colitis [22, 23]. A number of molecular methods have been developed to investigate nosocomial outbreaks of Clostridium difficile. Among these typing methods, PCR amplification of rRNA intergenic spacer regions (PCR ribotyping) is a discriminatory, easy to perform, cost effective and reproducible typing method [24,25]. This increase in studies coincided with the emergence of a new hypervirulent PCR ribotype 027, which produces larger amounts of toxins A and B, due to an 18-base pair fragment and a deletion at 117 of tcdC toxin regulator gene. Soon after these reports, other publications confirmed the presence of this new emerging strain in the USA, England, Scotland, Ireland, Belgium, France. Austria, Switzerland, Denmark, Poland, Netherlands and Canada [26-28]. According to previous studies, the distribution of dominant ribotypes in the Budapest region were; 14(29%), 2(19.4%) and 18(12.9%), in England ribotype 106 [29-31]. During a very recent European survey among thirtyeight hospitals in fourteen different countries, 322 toxigenic strains of Clostridium difficile were tested using PCR ribotyping. Sixty-six different PCR ribotypes were characterized. Among them, 12 PCR ribotypes (001, 002, 012, 014, 017, 020, 027, 048, 077, 078, 126, 168) accounted for 65.5% of the strains. Type 002 was found in 6% (19 of 322 isolates) and type 012 in 4% (13 of 322 isolates) [32]. Our study showed that 6 out of 17 hospital environmental isolates had the same PCR ribotyping patterns, and 11 isolates were typed

in four different groups. Contaminated environmental surfaces and health care personnel hand carriage are as important sources for Clostridium difficile transmission in hospitals [33]. Several studies have documented the presence of Clostridium difficile spores in areas occupied by infected patients, but these have been over short time periods, and evidence of bacterial acquisition from exposure to contaminated environmental sources is scarce. Several factors including antibiotic prescribing practice, patient type and cleaning efficiency may have influenced either incidence of Clostridium difficile-associated dirrhea or environmental contamination [34-38].

Conclusion

The results of this study showed that hospital environmental toxigenic *Clostridium difficile* isolates had different PCR-ribotyping patterns. Further studies to evaluate PCR-typing are suggested.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

Acknowledgement

The authors thank the management of participating hospitals for their support and the hospitals' staff for dedicated data collection that made this work possible.

This research has been snpported by Tehran University of medical sciences (Number: 132/9146).

References

- [1]. Terhes G, Brazier JS, Urban E, Sóki J and Nagy E. Distribution of *Clostridium difficile* PCR ribotypes in regions of Hungary. J Med Microbiol 2006; 55: 279-282.
- [2]. McFarland LV. Alternative treatments for *Clostridium difficile* disease: what really works? J Med Microbiol 2005; 54:101-111.
- [3]. Poxton IR. *Clostridium difficile*. J Med Microbiol 2005; 54:97-100.
- [4]. Wilkins TD, Lyerly DM. *Clostridium difficile* testing: after 20 years, still challenging. J Clin Microbiol 2003; 41:531-534.
- [5]. Geric BM, Rupnik DN, Gerding MG, Johnson S. Distribution of *Clostridium difficile* variant toxinotypes and strains with binary toxin genes among clinical isolates in an American hospital. J Med Microbiol 2004; 53:887-894.
- [6]. Pituch H, Rupnik P, Obuch-Woszczatyński P, Grubesic A, Meisel-Mikołajczyk F, Luczak M. Detection of binary-toxin genes (cdtA and cdtB) among *Clostridium difficile* strains isolated from patients with C. difficile-associated diarrhoea (CDAD) in Poland. J Med Microbiol 2005; 54:143-147.
- [7]. Maja Rupnik, Jon S. Brazier, Brian I. Duerden, Miklavz Grabnar, Simon L. J. Comparison of toxinotyping and PCR ribotyping of *Clostridium difficile*. Microbiology 2001; 147: 439-447.
- [8]. Bignardi GB. Risk factors for Clostridial infection. J Hosp Infect. 1998; 40: 1-15.
- [9]. Brazier J S. Typing of Clostridium difficile. Clin Microbiol Infect 2001; 7: 428–431.
- [10]. Rotimi VO, Jama WY, Mokaddas EM, Brazier J. S, Johny M and Duerden B. Prevalent PCR ribotypes of clinical and environmental strains of *Clostridium difficile* isolated from intensive-therapy unit patients in Kuwait. J Med Microbiol 2003; 52: 705–9.
- [11]. Stubbs SLJ, Brazier JS, O'Neil GL, Duerden BI. PCR targeted to the 16S–23S rRNA gene intergenic spacer region of *Clostridium difficile* and construction of a library consisting of 116 different PCR ribotypes. J Clin Microbiol 1999; 37: 461– 463.
- [12]. Urban E, Brazier JS, Soki J, Nagy E, Duerden BI. PCR ribotyping of clinically important *Clostridium difficile* strains from Hungary. J Med Microbiol 2001; 50: 1082– 1086.
- [13]. Brazier JS. Role of the laboratory in investigations of *Clostridium difficile*

diarrhea. Clin Infect Dis.1993; 16(4): 228-233.

- [14]. George WL, Sutter VL, Citron D, Finegold SM. Selective and differential medium for isolation of *Clostridium difficile*. J Clin Microbiol 1979; 9:214-219.
- [15]. Levett PN. Effect of antibiotic concentration in a selective medium on the isolation of *Clostridium difficile* from faecal specimens. J Clin Pathol 1985; 38:233-234.
- [16]. Lennette EH, Spaulding EH, Truant JP. Manual of Clinical Microbiology. 2nd end. Washington: American Society for Microbiology 1974; 302-307.
- [17]. Delmee M, Van Broeck A, Simon MJ, Avesani V. Laboratory diagnosis of *Clostridium difficile* associated diarrhoea: a plea for culture. J Med Microbiol 2005; 54:187-191.
- [18]. Renshaw AA, Stelling JM, Doolittle MH. The lack of value of repeated *Clostridium difficile* cytotoxicity assays. Arch Pathol Lab Med 1996; 120:49-52.
- [19]. Peterson LR, Kelly PJ, Nordbrock HA. Role of culture and toxin detection in laboratory testing for diagnosis of *Clostridium difficile* associated diarrhea. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 1996; 15:330-336.
- [20]. Gurtler V, Stanisich VA. New approaches to typing and identification of bacteria using the 16S-23S rDNA spacer region. Microbiology 1996; 142:3–16.
- [21]. McDonald LC, Killgore GE, Thompson A, Owens RC Jr, Kazakova SV, Sambol SP, et al. An epidemic, toxin gene-variant strain of *Clostridium difficile*. N Engl J Med 2005; 353:2433–2441.
- [22]. Barbut F and Petit J.C. Epidemiology of *Clostridium difficile*-associated infections. Clin Microbiol Infect 2000;7:405–410.
- [23]. Kuehne SA, Cartman ST, Minton NP. Both, toxin A and toxin B are important in *Clostridium difficile* infection. Gut Microbes 2011; 2(4): 252–255.
- [24]. Gurtler V. Typing of *Clostridium difficile* strains by PCR-amplification of variable length 16S–23S rDNA spacer regions. J Gen Microbiol 1993; 139:3089–3097.
- [25]. O'Neill GL, Ogunsola FT, Brazier JS, Duerden BI. Modification of a PCR ribotyping method for application as a routine typing scheme for *Clostridium difficile*. Anaerobe 1996; 2: 205–209.
- [26]. Kuijper EJ, Van Dissel JT, Wilcox MH. *Clostridium difficile*: changing epidemiology and new treatment options. Curr Opin Infect Dis 2007; 20:376–383.

- [27]. Kuijper EJ, Coignard B, Brazier JS, Suetens C, Drudy D, Wiuff C, et al. Emergence of *Clostridium difficile* associated disease due to PCR ribotype 027 in Europe. Euro Surveill 2007; 12: 1–2.
- [28]. Martin H, Willey B, Low DE, Staempfli H R, McGeer A, Boerlin P, et al. Characterization of *Clostridium difficile* Strains Isolated from Patients in Ontario,Canada,from 2004 to 2006. Journal of Clinical Microbiology 2008; 46(9): 2999-3004.
- [29]. Gurtler V, Stanisich VA. New approaches to typing and identification of bacteria using the 16S-23S rDNA spacer region. Microbiology 1996; 142:3–16.
- [30]. Brazier JS, Patel B, Pearson A. Distribution of *Clostridium difficile* PCR ribotype 027 in British hospitals. Euro Surveill 2007; 12(4):E070426.2.
- [31]. Loo VG, Poirier L, Miller MA, Oughton M, Libman MD, Michaud S, et al. A predominantly clonal multi-institutional outbreak of *Clostridium difficile* associated diarrhea with high morbidity and mortality. N Engl J Med 2005; 353(23):2442-2449.
- [32]. Barbut F, Mastrantonio P, Delmee M. Prospective study of CDAD in Europe with phenotypic and genotypic characterization of the isolates. Submitted and presented at ECCMID. Clin Microbiol Infect 2007; 13(11):1048-57.
- [33]. Samore MH. Epidemiology of nosocomial *Clostridium difficile*. J Hosp Infect. 1999; 43: 183-90.
- [34]. Hensgens MPm, Goorhuis A, Dekkers OM, van Benthem BH, Kuijper EJ. Allcause and disease specific mortality in hospitalized patients with *Clostridium difficile* infection: a multicenter cohort study. Clin Infect Dis 2013; 56:1108-1116.

- [35]. Petrella LA, Sambol SP, Cheknis A, Nagaro K, Kean Y, Sears PS, et al. Decreased cure and increased recurrence rates for *Clostridium difficile* infection caused by the epidemic *Clostridium difficile* BI strain. Clin Infect Dis 2012; 55:351-357.
- [36]. Samore MH, Venkataraman L, DeGirolami PC, Arbeit RD, Karchmer AW. Clinical and molecular epidemiology of sporadic and clustered cases of nosocomial *Clostridium difficile* diarrhea. Am J Med 1996; 100: 32-40.
- [37]. Samore MH, Bettin KM, DeGirolami PC, Clabots CR, Gerding DN, Karchmer AW. Wide diversity of *Clostridium difficile* types at a tertiary referral hospital. J Infect Dis 1994; 170: 615-621.
- [38]. Testore GP, Pantosti A, Cerquetti M, Babudieri S. Evidence for cross-infection in an outbreak of Clostridium difficile associated diarrhoea in a surgical unit. J Med Microbiol 1988; 26:125-128.