Bacterial diversity and potential risk factors associated with

Salmonella contamination of seafood products sold in retail

markets in Bangkok, Thailand

45 Edward R.

Edward R. Atwill¹, Saharuetai Jeamsripong²

6 7

3

- Department of Population Health and Reproduction, School of Veterinary Medicine, University
 of California, Davis, CA, USA
- 9 ² Research Unit in Microbial Food Safety and Antimicrobial Resistance, Department of
- 10 Veterinary Public Health, Faculty of Veterinary Science, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok,
- 11 Thailand

12

17 18

19

20 21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30 31

- 13 Corresponding Author:
- 14 Saharuetai Jeamsripong
- 15 Faculty of Veterinary Science, Chulalongkorn University, 39 Henri Dunant Road, Pathumwan,
- 16 Bangkok 10330, Thailand Email address: <u>saharuetai.j@gmail.com</u>

Abstract

Consumption of seafood contaminated with bacteria causes ## of cases of food poising, including ## of fatal infections every year. Thailand is a leading producer and consumer of seafood but little is known about In particular, public health officers need to know the relationship between, as assessed with readily available culture-dependent and bacterial phenotyping methods. To address this, The objectives of this study were to determine the levels of indicator bacteria, Salmonella and Vibrio in various seafood commodities were determined and to identify risk factors associated with Salmonella contamination of these samples. A total of 335 samples were collected from October 2018 to July 2019 throughout Bangkok, Thailand; overall sample composition was Pacific white shrimp (n = 85), oysters (n = 82), blood cockles (n = 84), and Asian seabass (n = 84). The prevalence and concentrations (sd) of fecal coliforms were was 100% for fecal coliforms and 0×10⁴ (4×10⁴) MPN/g for E. coli. In contrast, the overall prevalence forwas 59% for V. parahaemolyticus was 59%, 49% for V. cholerae, 19% for V.

alginolyticus, 18% for V. vulnificus, and 36% for Salmonella. Highest concentrations of fecal
 coliforms and E. coli were found in oysters; shrimp had the h Highest concentrations of

34 Salmonella with Matopeni (31%) being the predominant serotype-were in shrimp. The presence

35 of Salmonella contamination in these seafood commodities was significantly associated with

type of seafood sample, sampling location, retail conditions of seafood, and the presence of *E*.

37 coli, V. alginolyticus and V. vulnificus in the samples. The optimal cutoff value for the An E. coli

38 concentration of E. coli 1.33×10⁴ MPN/gto predicted contamination of Salmonella was 1.33×10⁴

39 MPN/g, with a sensitivity of 84% and specificity of 61%. Displaying seafood products on ice,

Commented [LMG1]: State the field of study and knowledge gap,

Commented [LMG2]: redundant

Commented [LMG3]: MPNs data not needed here.
Particularly as you do not provide contrasting data for
Vibrios

Commented [LMG4]: Present in parallel phrase structure

Commented [LMG5]: Wordy

Commented [LMG6]: Where else?

Formatted: Font: Italic

presence of E. coli and Vibrio, and seafood derived from Eastern Thailand were associated with an increased risk of Salmonella contamination. Continuous monitoring of pathogenic bacteric through food chain under the "One Health" concept is needed to enhance seafood safety.

Commented [LMG7]: Adds little and comes out of

Introduction

The global fisheries and aquaculture both inland and marine reached 171 million tonnes in 2016 (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 2018) and consumption of fish, and fishery products, per capita double from 10 kg in 1960 to greater than 20 kg in 2016 (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 2018). In Southeast Asia, the consumption of fish and fishery products varies from 6 to 64 kg per capita per year (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 2015). In Thailand, the consumption of fish and fishery products is about 31 kg per capita per year, which accounts for 12% of total protein consumption per person (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 2015). Thailand is one of the top ten exporters of fish and fishery products, which accounted for 4% of global exports in 2016 (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 2018).

Due to the rapid growth of global consumption of fish and fishery products, seafood safety is concerning. Foodborne diseases each year afflict a third of the world population each year (World Health Organization, 2004). but. Limited data of about the number of illnesses from seafood-borne outbreaks has observed is limited infor many parts of the world. Most examinations of seafood outbreaks have been examined done in the United States, where approximately 9.4 million illnesses, almost 56,000 hospitalizations, and 1,351 deaths, are associated with foodborne contamination per year (Scallan et al., 2011). Almost half (45%) of foodborne outbreaks reported in the U.S. are from pathogenic bacteria, and fish are frequently implicated with bacterial contamination (Gould et al., 2013). In Europe, 5,175 foodborne outbreaks were reported in 2019, with Salmonella spp. the leading causative cause agent formost of these outbreaks. There were 87,923 and 7,775 confirmed cases of salmonellosis and infections from Shiga-toxin-producing Escherichia coli, respectively (European Food Safety Authority; European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control, 2021). Limited data of the number of illnesses from seafood borne outbreaks has observed in many parts of the world.

Pollution, animal density, and global trading contribute to pathogen-bacterial contamination of seafood products (*Papadopoulou et al., 2007*). The most common bacterial pathogens associated with seafood-borne diseases are *Vibrio, Salmonella, Shigella*, and *Clostridium botulinum (Iwamoto et al., 2010*). Seafood-borne outbreaks caused by *V. parahaemolyticus, V. cholera* serogroup O139, *V. vulnificus, Salmonella* serotype Weltevreden, and *E. coli* have been reported (Bonnin-Jusserand et al., 2019; Heinitz et al., 2020; Martinez-Urtaza et al., 2016; Raymond & Ramachandran, 2019).

In Thailand, *V. parahaemolyticus* and *Salmonella* spp. are the leading causes of foodborne diarrhea. Even though Thailand is one of the major exporters of seafood products but, monitoring and surveillance of distribution of bacterial pathogens in seafood products of these exports is still-limited. Therefore, the objectives of this study were to 1) evaluate the levels of fecal coliforms and *E. coli* contaminated in Pacific white shrimp, oyster, blood cockle, and Asian seabass samples sold in fresh markets in Bangkok, Thailand; 2) examine the prevalence of *V. parahaemolyticus*, *V. cholerae*, *V. vulnificus*, *V. alginolyticus*, and *Salmonella*; 3) identify serotypes of *Salmonella* among various seafood samples; and 4) determine risk factors for

Commented [LMG8]: Use the "the" as little as possible

Commented [LMG9]: Presents published facts in the present tense

Commented [LMG10]: It doesn't have to be a pathogen to cause food poisoning. You eat enough of any Gram negative and you will react to LPS.

Commented [LMG11]: Why fecal coliforms? I presume this is to assess the source but this indicator must be justified.

Commented [LMG12]: Is safety the same for local and export markets?

Salmonella contamination and a potential cutoff value of the levels of E. coli affecting the
 presence of Salmonella in the samples.

86 Materials & Methods

Sample collection

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

99 100

101

102

103

104 105

106

107

108

109

110

111

Samples of fresh fish and shellfish)*n* = 335(were collected from open-air retail fresh markets between October 2018 and July 2019 from four districts in Bangkok, Thailand, resulting in a sample composition of Pacific white shrimp (*Litopenaeus vannamei*))*n* = 85(, oyster (*Saccostrea cuccullata*) (*n* = 82(, blood cockle (*Tegillarca granosa*))*n* = 84(, and Asian seabass (*Lates calcarifer*))*n* = 84() Table 1(. Due to varying availability of these four different seafood commodities at each market, there were slightly different total sample sizes for some seafood commodities ranging from n=82 to n=85 (Table 1). Production of Pacific white shrimp, oysters, and blood cockles are <u>raised in from aquaculture (saltwater ponds)</u>; the majority of Asian seabass were are raised in eages in estuaries, but a minority weresome are raised in saltwater ponds.

Individual seafood samples were purchased in the early morning (5 to 7 a.m.). At least 200 g of the samples were placed into a double sterile plastic bag. The samples were kept on ice (< 10 °C) during transportation and kept in the cooler. All samples were submitted to the laboratory within 3 h. Microbiological determination was performed within 6 h after receiving samples in the Department of Veterinary Public Health, Faculty of Veterinary Science, Chulalongkorn University.

The samples were analyzed in triplicate for coliforms, *E. coli, Salmonella*, *V. parahaemolyticus*, *V. vulnificus*, *V. alginolyticus* and *V. cholerae*. Average and standard deviation (sd) of minimum and maximum ambient air temperature (°C), wind speed (km/h), precipitation (mm), and relative humidity (%) in Bangkok, Thailand, were retrieved from the Thai Meteorological Department (www.tmd.go.th). The average (\pm sd) daily minimum and maximum ambient air temperature was 26.8 (\pm 1.8) °C and 34.1 (\pm 2.6) °C; average (\pm sd) wind speed was 13.0 (\pm 2.0) km/h, average 24-hour precipitation 1.4 (\pm 4.0) mm, and average relative humidity was 75.1 (\pm 7.4) %.

Predictor variables

- 112 Risk factors for Salmonella contamination tested included type of seafood (Pacific white shrimp,
- 113 oyster, blood cockle, or Asian seabass), sampling district (Din Daeng, Huay Kwang,
- 114 Samphanthawong, or Dusit), regional source of seafood (central, eastern, southern Thailand, or
- 115 unidentified source), retail storage of fish and shellfish samples (pooling and combining different
- 116 seafood products for retail display versus keeping each seafood type separate when on display),
- and retail display condition (on ice or without ice). The concentrations of fecal coliform
- 118 (MPN/g) and E. coli (MPN/g), and the prevalence of V. parahaemolyticus, V. vulnificus, V.
- alginolyticus and V. cholerae were evaluated as putative risk factors for Salmonella
- 120 contamination.
- 121 <u>Bacterial concentration and phenotyping</u>
- 122 <u>The Seafood samples were analyzed in triplicate for coliforms, E. coli, Salmonella, V.</u>
- 123 parahaemolyticus, V. vulnificus, V. alginolyticus and V. cholerae.

Formatted: Font: Bold

Determination of fecal coliform and E. coli concentrations

124

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

154

160

125 The oncentrations of feeal Feeal coliform and E. coli were enumerated according to the U.S. 126 Food and Drug Administration)U.S. FDA(Bacteriological Analytical Manual)BAM(with 127 slight modification (Feng et al., 2002). Briefly, a 25 g of individual sample (shrimp and Asian 128 seabass) was weighed, aseptically cut into small pieces, and placed into 225 mL of Buffered 129 Peptone Water)BPW) (Difco, MD, USA(. Then, the samples Pieces were then homogenized for 130 1 to 2 min. The resulting suspension was A 10-fold-serially dilutedion, was performed using three-tube most probable number)MPN(at different dilutions from 10⁻¹ to 10⁻⁴. One mL of each 131 132 solution was diluted in Lactose Broth (LB) (Difco), and then incubated at 35 °C for 24 h. A 133 loopful of the mixture solution was transferred to Brilliant Green Lactose Bile)BGLB) (Difco(134 and EC broth (Difco), respectively. After overnight incubation, positive tubes were recorded and

Fecal coliform and E. coli were enumerated For enumeration of indicator bacteria in oysters and blood cockles following (ref). Briefly, a-100 g of oyster meat sample was weighed and-added into 100 mL of Phosphate Buffered Saline)PBS) (Difco(, which was then blended aseptically for 1 to 2 min. The oyster-resulting suspension was serially diluted in LB to different eoncentrations of 10⁻¹, 10⁻², 10⁻³, and 10⁻⁴. These diluted dilutions suspensions were transferred to BGLB and EC broth. Biochemical tests, including indole test and Triple Sugar Iron)TSI; Difco(, were performed on suspect colonies for all samples. The lower and upper limits of the detection of fecal coliforms and E. coli were 1.0 and 1.14×10^5 MPN/g, respectively.

calculated as concentration of fecal coliforms)MPN/g(. One loopful of EC broth was streaked on

Eosin Methylene Blue)EMB; Difco(agar plates and reported as E. coli concentration)MPN/g(.

Isolation and confirmation of Salmonella

145 146 The detection of Salmonella detection followed ISO 6579-1:2017 (International Organization 147 for Standardization, 2017). Briefly, a total of 25 g of each seafood sample was weighed, cut, and 148 placed in added to 225 mL of BPW. The sample was pieces were then homogenized for 2 min and 149 incubated at 37 °C for 18 h. After incubation, 0.1 mL of the suspension was inoculated into

150 Modified Semi-solid Rappaport-Vassiliadis)MSRV) (Difco(agar plates and incubated at 42 °C

151 overnight. A loopful of incubated sample from the MSRV plates was restreaked onto Xylose

152 Lysine Deoxycholate)XLD) (Difco(agar. Presumptive colonies of Salmonella were pink to red

153 colonies with black center. Biochemical tests (citrate utilization, TSI reaction, indole test) were

used to confirm presumptive Salmonella colonies according to a standard protocol from the U.S.

155 FDA BAM (Andrews et al., 2007).

156 Three typical colonies of Salmonella were selected for serotyping. Slide agglutination test was

157 performed to determine serotype of Salmonella followed by Kauffmann-White Scheme, Pasteur

158 Institute (Grimont and Weill, 2007). Commercial antiserums (S&A Reagents Lab Ltd., Lat

159 Phrao, Bangkok, Thailand) used to determine the serotype of Salmonella.

Isolation and confirmation of Vibrio spp.

161 The iI solation of Vibrio spp. was followed the U.S. FDA BAM (Kaysner et al., 2004). Briefly,

50 g of each sample was added to 450 mL of PBS, and homogenized for 1 to 2 min. One mL of 162

163 resulting solution suspension was added to 10 mL of Alkaline Peptone Water)APW) (Difco(and Commented [LMG13]: Match significant figures

Commented [LMG14]: My interpretation of methods.

Formatted: Indent: First line: 0"

incubated at 37 °C overnight. After incubation, one loopful of solution was streaked on Thiosulfate-Citrate-Bile Salts-sucrose)TCBS) (Difco(agar plate containing 2% of NaCl.

The pPresumptive colonies of *Vibrio* were confirmed using CHROMagarTM *Vibrio* (HiMedia Laboratories, Mumbai, India) agar. The TCBS and CHROMagarTM *Vibrio* plates were incubated at 37 °C for 24 h. and was colorless colonies Colonies with green center in on TCBS agar were presumed to be *V. parahaemolyticus*. Colorless colonies were presumed to be *V. vulnificus*. In On CHROMagarTM *Vibrio* agar plate, mauve colonies were presumed to be *V. parahaemolyticus* and green blue to turquoise blue were presumed to be *V. Vulnificus*. Colorless colonies were presumed to be *V. alginolyticus*.

For ilsolation of *V. cholerae* followed (ref). Briefly, 25 g of seafood sample was added to 225 mL of APW, homogenized for 1 to 2 min, and incubated at 35±2 °C for 8 h. A loopful of solution was streaked to TCBS agar plates. After incubation at 37 °C for 24 h, presumptive colonies of *V. cholerae* were confirmed on CHROMagarTM *Vibrio*. Typical colonies of *V. cholerae* on TCBS agar plate are 2 to 3 mm diameter, yellow, and flat colonies with opaque center, whereas the presumptive colonies of *V. cholerae* in CHROMagarTM *Vibrio* agar were green blue to turquoise blue. Biochemical tests including TSI, oxidase test, and growth in sodium chloride, were conducted to confirm Vibrio idenifications.

Statistical analyses

Chi-square test and odds ratios were used to examine the association between different species of bacterial contamination and different types of seafood. For the odds ratio calculations of the association between bacteria contamination among seafood samples, shrimp was set as the referent category based on its popularity in Thai cuisine and largest sample size (n = 85) of the four seafood commodities. In addition, logistic regression was used to determine the association between Salmonella contamination and various risk factors To construct the final logistic regression model, univariate associations were first evaluated for all risk factors for Salmonella and an initial multivariable model constructed from only significant univariate risk factors ($P \le$ 0.2). A backward stepping algorithm was then used to eliminate non-significant (P > 0.05) risk factors based on a likelihood ratio test resulting in a final multivariable logistic regression model with only significant $(P \le 0.05)$ risk factors. Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) analysis was performed to predict contamination of Salmonella using estimation of the concentration of E. coli. Based on ROC analysis, the optimal cutoff value for the concentration of E. coli. was determined. All statistical analyses were performed using Stata version 14.0 (StataCorp, College Station, TX, USA). A P-value < 0.05 was considered as statistically difference under the twosided hypothesis test.

Results

Occurrence of indicator bacteria in seafood samples

In general, All seafood products sampled in Bangkok were $\frac{100\%}{9}$ positive for fecal coliforms with total average concentration (\pm sd) at 9×10^4 (\pm 4×10^4) MPN/g (Table 2). The prevalence of *E. coli* was 85%, with total average concentration (\pm sd) of 2×10^4 (\pm 4×10^4) MPN/g. Oyster samples had

the highest concentrations (\pm sd) of fecal coliforms at 1×10^5 (\pm 7×10^3) and E. coli at 5×10^4 (\pm 204 205 5×10³), while blood cockle and seabass had the lowest concentrations of these indicator bacteria 206

Occurrence of Vibrio and Salmonella in seafood samples

207

211

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

240

208 The overall prevalence for the various bacterial pathogens observed in all 335 seafood samples 209 was 59% for V. parahaemolyticus, 18% for V. vulnificus, 19% for V. alginolyticus, 49% for V. 210 cholerae and 36% for Salmonella. The highest prevalence of V. parahaemolyticus, V. vulnificus, V. alginolyticus, V. cholerae, and Salmonella were observed in blood cockle (78%), Pacific 212 white shrimp (33%), oyster (29%), Asian seabass (76%), and Pacific white shrimp (40%), 213 respectively (Figure 1). The lowest prevalence (< 10%) of V. vulnificus was observed in blood 214 cockle and for V. alginolyticus in Asian seabass. Moreover, shrimp were most likely to have any 215 of the four pathogens, followed by oysters (Figure 1). However, bBlood cockles exhibited very 216 high contamination of V. parahaemolyticus, while Asian seabass tended to harbor V. cholerae 217 (Figure 1). Based on Chi-square tests, the was a significant association between different types of 218 samples and the occurrence of V. parahaemolyticus, V. vulnificus, V. alginolyticus, V. cholerae, 219 and Salmonella contamination (P < 0.0001).

Pacific white shrimp exhibited a high prevalence of V. parahaemolyticus (59%), V. cholerae (53%) and Salmonella (47%), whereas oysters were mainly contaminated with V. parahaemolyticus (45%) and Salmonella (38%). In blood cockles, a high prevalence of V. parahaemolyticus (93%) were observed, although they had low prevalence of V. cholerae, V. vulnificus, and V. alginolyticus. Asian seabass was frequently contaminated with exhibited a high prevalence of V. cholerae (91%) and Salmonella (46%).

Matopeni (31%), Corvallis (5%), Give (5%), and Rissen (5%) were the most common serotypes of Salmonella isolated from seafood products (Table 3). Matopeni was the predominant serotype (52/56) observed from Asian seabass samples (n = 56 isolates), whereas Itami and Leith were common serovars isolated from the shrimp samples (n = 47 isolates). For oysters (n = 43 isolates) and blood cockles (n = 24 isolates), the major serotypes were Give (19%) and Rissen (33%), respectively.

The distribution of Salmonella, V. parahaemolyticus, V. vulnificus, V. cholerae, and V. alginolyticus among seafood products

Odds of V. vulnificus contamination in shrimp was 7.0 (1/0.143) times higher than that for blood 234 235 cockle (P = 0.002) (Table 4). Odds of V. cholerae contamination in shrimp were 7.5 (1/0.134) 236 and 23.6 (1/0.043) times higher than for oyster (P < 0.0001) and blood cockle (P = 0.002), 237 respectively. The presence of V. parahaemolyticus in the blood cockle was higher than in shrimp (OR = 9.1, P < 0.0001). The odds of V. alginolyticus contamination in shrimp was 13.3 (1/0.075) 238 239 and 20.0 (1/0.050) times higher than in blood cockles and seabass, respectively.

Risk factors associated with Salmonella contamination

241 Salmonella contamination of seafood sold throughout Bangkok was significantly associated with 242 type of seafood, sampling district, retail display condition, regional source of seafood, and the 243 presence of E. coli, V. alginolyticus, and V. vulnificus (Table 5). Salmonella contamination in

Commented [LMG15]: Repeats line 215

Pacific white shrimp was not different form Asian seabass; in contrast, both oysters and blood cockles had significantly lower odds of Salmonella contamination compared to shrimp. Seafood from markets in Huay Kwang (OR = 1.7) and Dusit (OR = 1.4) had a higher odds of Salmonella contamination compared to seafood from Din Daeng and Samphanthawong. Seafood displayed on ice (OR = 1.7, P < 0.0001) had a higher odds of Salmonella contamination compared to retail seafood products not displayed on ice. Seafood products sourced from Eastern Thailand had significantly higher odds of Salmonella contamination compared to seafood sourced from other regions (OR = 3.5, P < 0.0001). Lastly, the odds of Salmonella contamination were positively associated with the presence of E. Coli and V. Coli alginolyticus, but negatively associated with V. Coli Coli

ROC and area under the ROC curve

The area under the ROC curve (AUC) at 63.7764% with standard error = 0.30 (C.I. = 57.858% - 69.770%) (Figure 2). The ROC AUC was statistically significance (P < 0.0001) compared to the null value of AUC = 0.5. The presence of *Salmonella* in seafood products was optimally predicted at by a concentration of $1.33 \times 10^4 E$. *coli* MPN/g, with a sensitivity of 84.43% and specificity of 61.03% for this value.

Discussion

According to the Bureau of Quality and Safety of Food (BQSF), Department of Medical Science, Ministry of Public Health, for Thailand, the concentration of *E. coli* should not exceed 10 MPN/g of fresh or frozen seafood and less than 3 MPN/g of seafood consumed raw; in addition, all products must not contain detectable *Salmonella*, *V. cholerae*, *V. parahaemolyticus* in a 25 g of sample (*Bureau of Quality and Safety of Food, 2020*). In this study, the total average concentration of *E. coli* was averaged 2×10⁴ MPN/g for all the seafood samples, which is considerably higher than the standard BQSF guidelines in Thailand. In fact, only 18% (*n* = 60/335) of all seafood samples had concentrations of *E. coli* < 10 MPN/g and only 7% (*n* = 6/82) of oyster samples (often eaten raw) had < 3 MPN/g. Furthermore, the prevalence of *Salmonella* (36%), *V. cholerae* (49%), *V. parahaemolyticus* (59%) indicated widespread bacterial contamination of these seafood products, which also violates food safety the Thailand-standards requirements. Therefore, implementation of basic sanitation and evaluation of microbiological contamination of seafood products sold in Bangkok are needed to strengthen seafood safety for this region.

Salmonella is an important pathogen that is responsible for seafood-borne illness worldwide (Barrett et al., 2017; European Food Safety Authority, 2014). However, Salmonella is not a normal flora in finfish and shellfish products. The major sources of Salmonella contamination in seafood may originate from multitude of sources, including include the natural aquatic environment, during and aquaculture systems, or seafood processing facilities, insufficient hygiene practices during transport and storage, and improper food handling (Amagliani et al., 2012; Fernandes et al., 2018). In this study, the prevalence of Salmonella

Commented [LMG16]: Move to Discussion

Commented [LMG17]: Use integers for percentages, unless the measurements were precise (almost never the case for MPNs.)

ranged from 14% to 47%. This finding prevalence was similar to a study of cultured shrimp in the Mekong Delta, Vietnam, which documented athe prevalence of (25%) Salmonella contamination of shrimp cultured in Vietnam (Phan et al., 2005), but substantially less than the 90 to 100% prevalence of Salmonella contamination in fish (93%) and shrimp (100%) collected from the Surabaya local a market in Indonesia (Pramono et al., 2019).

Type of seafood, sampling retail location, use of ice during retail display, regional source of seafood, and presence of *E. coli* and *Vibrio* were all significantly associated with the presence of *Salmonella* (Table 5). The presence of *E. coli* in a seafood sample was associated with a 4-fold increase in the odds of *Salmonella* contamination (OR = 4.0, P < 0.0001); similarly, the presence of *V. alginolyticus* in a seafood sample was associated with a 1.4-fold increase in the odds of *Salmonella* contamination (OR = 1.4, P < 0.04).

Seafood displayed on ice during retail had almost twice the odds of *Salmonella* contamination (OR = 1.7, P < 0.0001) than seafood not displayed on ice. This eurious finding may seem counterintuitive, but prior work has shown that ice used to chill seafood can be contaminated with pathogenic microorganisms and become a risk of human infection (*Falcão et al., 2009*). Ice can be a vehicle for various pathogenic organisms, including diarrheagenic *E. coli, Aeromonas, S. enteritidis* and fecal coliforms (*Falcão et al., 2002*; *Falcão et al., 2004*; *Kirov, 1993*). In this study, most of the ice used to store seafood was at risk of rapidly melting due to high ambient temperatures in open air conditions. The mMelting ice can spread bacteria from one seafood item to nearby retail items, readily contaminating other seafood left standing in contaminated melt water.

In addition, the physical placement of seafood for display in retail markets can spread bacterial contamination between seafood items if seafood handlers do not practice proper sanitation during handling (i.e., bare hands touching multiple seafood items; not replacing latex or plastic gloves at high enough frequency during retail display placement of seafood items). Therefore, maintaining sanitary conditions during the production, storage, and use of ice to prevent microbial contamination should be closely observed. The iImplementation of programs for food safety and also for prevention and control of diarrheal diseases have reduced mortality and morbidity rates of diarrheal diseases and strengthened food safety in Thailand (Food Control Division, Food and Drug Administration, Thailand. 2004).

Lastly, sSeafood that was sourced from Eastern Thailand had a 3.5-higher odds of Salmonella contamination compared tothan seafood from other regions (OR = 3.5, P < 0.0001). The coastal area of Eastern Thailand has concentrated areas of industrialization, agricultural development, and tourism-related urbanization, with major concerns of increased water pollution and resource depletion (Nitivattananon and Srinonil, 2019). Wastewater quality is a major concern for this area, especially in Chonburi and Rayong Provinces due to several industrial estates. Moreover, Chonburi, Chachoengsao, and Rayong Provinces have been designated for developing the Eastern Economic Corridor (EEC), so reduction of waste and wastewater is of increasing concern.

In this study, the diversity of Salmonella serovars varied between the different seafood products. Pacific white shrimp had the greatest diversity, 21 different serovars with prevalence per serovar ranging from 1-3%. Eleven serovars from isolated from oysters, with prevalence per serovar ranging from 1-5% similar to Pacific white shrimp. In contrast, only 5 serovars were isolated from blood cockles, with a similar range of prevalence per serovar of 2-5%. Least diverse were isolates from Asian seabass where only two serovars were recovered, with 92.9% (52+ of 56) of these Salmonella isolates being Matopeni and the remainder being Paratyphi B. Serotype Matopeni has been reported in aquatic pet shops (Gaulin et al., 2005) and in food supplements from Germany (European Commission, 2018). The infection of S. Matopeni has been reported in Malaysian children (Lee et al., 2003). Outbreak strains of Salmonella Paratyphi B-have been associated with in raw tuna sushi imported from Indonesia in 2015, and this outbreak caused 65 foodborne cases from 11 states in the U.S. (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2018). S. Typhimurium, S. Enteritidis, S. Typhi, and S. Paratyphi B were also detected in fresh fish in Iran (Rahimi et al., 2013). S. Paratyphi B can be classified as d-tartrate fermenting (dT+) and d-tartrate non-fermenting (dT-) strains. The dT+ strain is less virulent and commonly reported with gastroenteritis, while the dT- strain is associated with paratyphoid fever. The dT+ strain is associated with a significant emerging disease worldwide and of public health concern (Denny et al., 2007, Hassan et al., 2018). Hence, classification of S. Paratyphi B biotype should be further investigated.

323

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

The common serovars in Pacific white shrimp were Itami (11%, n = 5/47) and Leith (9%, n = 4/47). Itami was first documented as a new serovar from a traveler to Thailand suffering from gastroenteritis (Sakazaki et al., 1981). Itami has also been reported from infected humans in Taiwan (Kuo et al., 2014). In contrast to the serovars isolated during this study, serovars S. Weltevreden, S. Tennessee, and S. Dessau were isolated from shrimp from the Mekong Delta, Vietnam (Phan et al., 2005). The most common S. enterica serovar isolated from oysters was Give (19%, n = 8/43 isolates), which is different from oysters in the U.S. where Newport was the most common serotype (Brands et al., 2005). A previous study in Western Thailand found that the most common serovar in cultured oysters (C. lugubris and C. belcheri) from Phang Nga Province was Paratyphi B (Jeamsripong et al., 2018). This suggests that the distribution of Salmonella serovars within Thailand depends on geographical location and type of seafood. Serovar Give is an enteric serotype usually isolated from swine and ruminants, but rarely found in humans (Higgins et al., 1997). It is possible that the contamination of Give may be the result of livestock or agricultural production near the oyster growing site. S. enterica Give has been frequently reported in European national laboratories (Jansen et al., 2005). The higher virulence of the Give serovar compared to other non-typhoidal Salmonella may explain the higher hospital rate associated with human Give infections (Girardin et al., 2006).

Even though typhoid and paratyphoid salmonellosis are endemic diseases in Thailand, a decline in trend of typhoid fever <u>rates declined</u> and a <u>stable rate of paratyphoid have been observed stabilized</u> from 2003 to 2014 <u>in this nation</u> (*Techasaensiri et al., 2018*). In Thailand, *S. enterica* Weltevreden <u>was-is</u> commonly reported in human, frozen seafood, frozen ducks, and

polluted water (*Bangtrakulnonth et al., 2004*). *S.* Weltevreden, *S.* Stanley, *S.* Anatum, and *S.* Rissen have been are frequently reported in human from northern and central Thailand (*Prasertsee et al., 2019*; *Sirichote et al., 2010*). Therefore, surveillance and monitoring of oysters due to this ~20% prevalence of *Salmonella* contamination, and fully cooking oysters prior to consumption are both needed to reduce the risk of food-borne *Salmonella* infection from Thaicultured oysters.

In this study, the most common Salmonella serovar found in blood cockles was Rissen (33%, n = 8/24 isolates), similar to a study in India ($Kumar\ et\ al.,\ 2009$), but it should be noted that none of the five different serovars isolated from cockles had a prevalence above 5%. Seafood such as cockles can acquire Salmonella from contaminated water or other environmental matrices during aquaculture, processing, shipping, and retail display. Good hygiene and basic sanitation together with proper seafood handling and storage should be performed throughout the food chain (farm to fork) to reduce the risk of seafood-related Salmonella.

Prevalence of V. parahaemolyticus (59%), V. cholerae (49%), V. alginolyticus (19%), and V. vulnificus (18%) were observed in this study. According to BQSF_ τ -for Thailand, seafood for human consumption should have no detectable V. parahaemolyticus and V. cholerae in 25 g of sample; however, 50-60% of samples contained these bacterial adulterants. This high prevalence is consistent with previous work demonstrating that between 2003 and 2015 the prevalence of V. parahaemolyticus was 64% in oysters, followed by clams (53%), fish (51%), and shrimp (48%) (Odeyemi, 2016). V. parahaemolyticus, V. cholerae, and V. vulnificus are considered important seafood-borne pathogens that cause gastroenteritis in humans due to consumption of raw and partly cooked seafood, while V. alginolyticus can cause ear infection and intestinal disease in humans. In this study, the main source of V. parahaemolyticus was blood cockles (OR = 9.1, P < 0.05), while V. cholerae was commonly found in Asian seabass (OR = 4.0, P > 0.05). V. parahaemolyticus and V. vulnificus have been reported in bivalves in many countries such as Thailand, China, and Korea (Changchai & Saunjit, 2014; Jiang et al., 2019; V0. Ryu et al., 2019). In this study, shrimp and oysters were predominantly contaminated with V1. vulnificus and V2. alginolyticus, respectively.

According to the annual epidemiological surveillance report from the Department of Disease Control, Ministry of Public Health in Thailand, the infection of Clostridium perfringens, Staphylococcus aureus, V. parahaemolyticus, and Salmonella spp. Are the leading pathogens of causes of foodborne illnesses in Thailand (Bureau of Epidemiology, 2019). In Thailand, human salmonellosis caused 167 illnesses per 100,000 persons in 2019, and contaminated produce and water have been indicated as important sources of Salmonella infection (Bureau of Epidemiology, 2019). The trend of V. cholerae infection-has decreased from 2.51 to 0.02 cases per 100,000 persons during 2010-2019, and contaminated water and seafood, poor sanitation, and dense housing have been blamed as sources of contamination (Bureau of Epidemiology, 2019).

In this study, the determination of bacterial <u>prevalence and abundance species</u> was made using -culture <u>-dependent methods</u> for <u>For Salmonella</u> spp. and <u>Vibrio</u> spp. detection <u>this</u>

approach has high accuracy and sensitivity compared with certain molecular techniques (Almeida et al., 2013; Eriksson & Aspan 2007; Hara-Kudo et al., 2001; Mainar-Jaime et al., 2013; Yeung & Thorsen, 2016). However, molecular assays commonly used to improve specificity and are often less time consuming compared to culture based methods. Especially, these methods can fail to detect viable but nonculturable state (VBNC) strains. VBNC bacteria can preserve metabolic activity and generate virulent proteins, which can be detected by molecular techniques (Alleron et al., 2013; Morishige et al., 2015). Hence, molecular techniques are recommended when feasible to determine bacterial contamination. However, equipment, supplies and training required to implement these molecular techniques are not readily available to food safety officers, even in the developed world.....

In this study, the determination of bacteria species was made using bacterial phenotyping methods. This approach is justifiable because....... Additionally, identification of specific serogroups of Vibrio spp., virulence factors, and bacterial toxins should be further examined.

Regarding the use of E. coli concentrations appeared well suited to predicting the presence of Salmonella contamination in of seafood sold in Bangkok, the The area under the curve (AUC) from an ROC analysis was 64%. Selection of the optimal cutoff value for E. coli levels was Based on the Youden index, that uses the maximal difference between sensitivity and 1-specificity (Ruopp et al., 2008). Based on this index, the optimal a cutoff value for E. coli was 1.33×10^4 MPN/g, which can be implemented for both monitoring seafood for Salmonella contamination and to establish threshold control measures at processing or during retail storage. However, tThis cutoff for E. coli concentration in seafood is much higher than the microbiological criteria set forth in the Commission Regulation (EC) No 2073/2005 (European Commission, 2005), and the BQSF, Thailand (Bureau of Quality and Safety of Food, 2020). This may be because high concentrations of E. coli in this sample collection generated a high cutoff value to discriminate the presence or absence of Salmonella in the samples. Lastly, given that the detection of Salmonella and Vibrio spp. is of similar expense and similar-technical difficulty as quantifying E. coli concentrations in seafood matrices, it may be more expeditious and more accurate to focus seafood safety monitoring protocols on Salmonella and Vibrio spp. detection rather than rely on indicator bacteria like E. coli that invariably suffer from false-positive and false false-negative signals for the presence of common seafood-borne pathogens.

Conclusions

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423 424

425

426 427

428

429

430

431

432

433 434

435

436

437

438

439 440

441

442

Finfish and shellfish products sold in Bangkok were found to be are contaminated with a diversity diverse of Salmonella serovars and species of Vibrio, with substantial differences between seafood commodities (Asian sea bass, oysters, blood cockle, Pacific white shrimp). Although the concentration of E. coli predicted Salmonella contamination for these seafood samples, the high cutoff value (1.33×10⁴ MPN/g) for maximal test accuracy will likely prevent this method from being adopted as a food hygiene surveillance tool. Current Thai BQSF regulations require no more than 10 E. coli MPN/g for fresh or frozen seafood. Bacterial contamination varied by seafood commodity, with substantial differences between Asian sea

Commented [LMG18]: Provide a justification for using MPNs not aPCR

Formatted: Indent: First line: 0"

Commented [LMG19]: Justify not using genotyping or proteomic methods.

- bass, oysters, blood cockle, and Pacific white shrimp. which This may reflect different
- 444 aquaculturing, harvesting, processing, and retail display practices.

446 Acknowledgements

- The authors thank Chailai Chareamchainukul, Mullika Kuldee, Varangkana Thaotumpitak, and
 Saweeyah Toodbat for their technical assistance.
- 450 References

445

449

454

455

456

457 458

459 460

461

462

463

464

465

466

470

471

472

473

- Alleron L, Khemiri A, Koubar M, Lacombe C, Coquet L, Cosette P, Jouenne T, Frere J.
 2013. VBNC *Legionella pneumophila* cells are still able to produce virulence proteins.
 Water Research 47:6606-6617 DOI 10.1016/j.watres.2013.08.032.
 - Almeida C, Cerqueira L, Azevedo NF, Vieira MJ. 2013. Detection of Salmonella enterica serovar Enteritidis using real time PCR, immunocapture assay, PNA FISH and standard culture methods in different types of food samples. International Journal of Food Microbiology 161:16-22 DOI 10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2012.11.014.
 - Amagliani G, Brandi G, Schiavano GF. 2012. Incidence and role of *Salmonella* in seafood safety. *Food Research International* 45:780-788 DOI 10.1016/j.foodres.2011.06.022.
 - Andrews WH, Wang H, Jacobson A, Ge B, Zhang G, Hammack T. 2007. Bacteriological Analytical Manual (BAM). Chapter 5: Salmonella. Retrieved February 14, 2021. Available at https://www.fda.gov/food/laboratory-methods-food/bam-chapter-5-salmonella.
 - Bangtrakulnonth A, Pornreongwong S, Pulsrikarn C, Sawanpanyalert P, Hendriksen RS, Lo Fo Wong DM, Aarestrup FM. 2004. Salmonella serovars from humans and other sources in Thailand, 1993-2002. Emerging Infectious Diseases Journal 10:131-136 DOI 10.3201/eid1001.02-0781
- Barrett KA, Nakao, JH, Taylor, EV, Eggers C, Gould LH. 2017. Fish-Associated Foodborne
 Disease Outbreaks: United States, 1998-2015. Foodborne Pathogens and Disease 14:537-543 DOI 10.1089/fpd.2017.2286.
 - Bonnin-Jusserand M, Copin S, Le Bris C, Brauge T, Gay M, Brisabois A, Grard T, Midelet-Bourdin G. 2019. Vibrio species involved in seafood-borne outbreaks (Vibrio cholerae, V. parahaemolyticus and V. vulnificus): Review of microbiological versus recent molecular detection methods in seafood products. Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition 59:597-610 DOI 10.1080/10408398.2017.1384715.
- Brands DA, Inman AE, Gerba CP, Maré CJ, Billington SJ, Saif LA, Levine JF, Joens LA.
 2005. Prevalence of Salmonella spp. in oysters in the United States. Applied and
 Environmental Microbiology 71:893-897 DOI 10.1128/AEM.71.2.893-897.2005.
- Bureau of Epidemiology. 2019. Annual epidemiological surveillance report 2019. department
 of disease control, ministry of public health. Retrieved August 2, 2021. Available at
 https://apps.doe.moph.go.th/boeeng/annual.php. Bureau of Quality and Safety of Food.
 2020. Assessment of Microbiological Quality. Retrieved February 14, 2021. Available at
 http://basf.dmsc.moph.go.th.

- 483 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. 2018. Multistate outbreak of Salmonella
 484 Paratyphi B variant L(+) tartrate(+) and Salmonella Weltevreden infections linked to
 485 frozen raw tuna: USA, March-July 2015 Epidemiology and Infection 146:1461-1467. DOI
 486 10.1017/S0950268818001462.
- 487 **Changchai N, Saunjit S. 2014.** Occurrence of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* and *Vibrio vulnificus* in 488 retail raw oysters from the eastern coast of Thailand. *The Southeast Asian Journal of Tropical Medicine and Public Health* **45**:662-669.
- 490 Denny J, Threlfall J, Takkinen J, Löfdahl S, Westrell T, Varela C, Adak B, Boxall N,
 491 Ethelberg S, Torpdahl M, Straetemans Masja, van Pelt W. 2007. Multinational
 492 Salmonella Paratyphi B variant Java (Salmonella Java) outbreak, August December 2007.
 493 Eurosurveillance 12:pii=3332.

495

496 497

498 499

500

501

502

- Eriksson E, Aspan A. 2007. Comparison of culture, ELISA and PCR techniques for *salmonella* detection in faecal samples for cattle, pig and poultry. *BMC Veterinary Research* 3:21 DOI 10.1186/1746-6148-3-21.
- **European Commission. 2005.** Commission regulation (EC) No 2073/2005 microbiological criteria for foodstuffs. Official Journal of the European Union, 1-26.
- **European Commission. 2018.** *Salmonella* enterica ser. Matopeni (presence /25g) in food supplement from Germany.
- European Food Safety Authority. 2014. The European Union summary report on trends and sources of zoonoses, zoonotic agents and food-borne outbreaks in 2012. *EFSA Journal* 12:3547 DOI 10.2903/j.efsa.2014.3547.
- European Food Safety Authority; European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control.
 2021. The European Union One Health 2019 Zoonoses Report. EFSA journal 19:2 e06406.
 DOI 10.2903/j.efsa.2021.6406.
- Falcão JP, Dias AMG, Correa EF, Falcão DP. 2002. Microbiological quality of ice used to refrigerate foods. *Food Microbiology* 19:269-276 DOI 10.1006/fmic.2002.0490.
- Falcão JP, Falcão DP, Gomes TAT. 2004. Ice as a vehicle for diarrheagenic Escherichia coli.
 International Journal of Food Microbiology 91:99-103 DOI 10.1016/S0168 1605(03)00327-1.
- Feng P, Weagant SD, Grant MA, Burkhardt W, Shellfish M, Water B. 2002. Bacteriological
 Analytical Manual (BAM): Chapter 4: Enumeration of Escherichia coli and the Coliform
 Bacteria. Retrieved February 14, 2021. Available at https://www.fda.gov/food/laboratory-methods-food/bam-chapter-4-enumeration-escherichia-coli-and-coliform-bacteria.
- Fernandes DVGS, Castro VS, Cunha Neto Ad, Figueiredo EEdS. 2018. Salmonella spp. in
 the fish production chain: a review. Ciência Rural 48:e20180141 DOI 10.1590/0103-8478cr20180141.
- Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. 2015. The consumption of fish
 and fish products in the Asia-Pacific region based on household surveys. Retrieved
 February 14, 2021. Available at http://www.fao.org/publications/card/en/c/ba100e66-4b37-4a1b-ba2b-364e6a3205bc/.

- Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. 2018. The State of World
 Fisheries and Aquaculture 2018 Meeting the sustainable development goals. Retrieved
 February 14, 2021. Available at http://www.fao.org/documents/card/en/c/19540EN/.
- Food Control Division, Food and Drug Administration, Thailand. 2004. FAO/WHO regional
 conference on food safety for Asia and the Pacific. Country report. Foodborne diseases:
 situation of diarrheal diseases in Thailand. Retrieved August 2, 2021. Available at
 http://www.fao.org/3/ad703e/ad703e00.htm.
- Gaulin C, Vincent C, Ismail J. 2005. Sporadic infections of Salmonella Paratyphi B, var. Java
 associated with fish tanks. Canadian Journal of Public Health 96:471-474 DOI
 10.1007/BF03405194.
 - Girardin F, Mezger N, Hächler H, Bovier PA. 2006. Salmonella serovar Give: an unusual pathogen causing splenic abscess. European Journal of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases 25:272-274.

534

535

542

543

544

545 546

547

548

549

550

551

552

553

- Gould LH, Walsh KA, Vieira AR, Herman K, Williams IT, Hall AJ, Cole D. 2013.
 Surveillance for foodborne disease outbreaks United States, 1998-2008. Morbidity and
 Mortality Weekly Report: Surveillance Summaries 62:1-34.
- Grimont PAD, Weill FX. 2007 Antigenic Formulae of the Salmonella Serovars. 9th Edition,
 World Health Organization Collaborating Center for Reference and Research on
 Salmonella, Institute Pasteur, Paris.
 - Hara-Kudo Y, Nishina T, Nakagawa H, Konuma H, Hasegawa J, Kumagai S. 2001.

 Improved method for detection of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in Seafood. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 67:5819-5823 DOI 10.1128/AEM.67.12.5819-5823.2001.
 - Hassan R, Tecle S, Adcock B, Kellis M, Weiss J, Saupe A, Sorenson A, Klos R, Blankenship J, Blessington T, Whitlock L, Carleton HA, Concepción-Acevedo J, Tolar B, Wise M, Neil KP. 2018. Multistate outbreak of *Salmonella* Paratyphi B variant L(+) tartrate(+) and *Salmonella* Weltevreden infections linked to imported frozen raw tuna: USA, March-July 2015. *Epidemiology and infection* 146:1461-1467 DOI 10.1017/S0950268818001462.
 - Heinitz ML, Ruble R, Wagner DE, Tatini S. 2000. Incidence of *Salmonella* in fish and seafood. *Journal of Food Protection* 63:579-592 DOI 10.4315/0362-028X-63.5.579.
 - Higgins R, Désilets A, Cantin M, Messier S, Khakhria R, Ismaïl J, Mulvey MR, Daignault D, Caron H. 1997. Outbreak of *Salmonella* give in the province of Quebec. *The Canadian Veterinary Journal* 38:780-781.
- International Organization for Standardization. 2017. Microbiology of the food chain Horizontal method for the detection, enumeration and serotyping of Salmonella Part 1:
 Detection of Salmonella spp. (ISO Standard No. 6579-1: 2017).
- Iwamoto M, Ayers T, Mahon BE, Swerdlow DL. 2010. Epidemiology of seafood-associated
 infections in the United States. *Clinical Microbiology Reviews* 23:399-411 DOI
 10.1128/CMR.00059-09.

- Jansen A, Frank C, Prager R, Oppermann H, Stark K. 2005. Nation-wide outbreak of
 Salmonella Give in Germany, 2004. Z Gastroenterol 43:707-713 DOI 10.1055/s-2005 858256.
- Jeamsripong S, Chuanchuen R, Atwill ER. 2018. Assessment of Bacterial Accumulation and
 Environmental Factors in Sentinel Oysters and Estuarine Water Quality from the Phang
 Nga Estuary Area in Thailand. *International Journal of Environmental Research and* Public Health 15:1970 DOI 10.3390/ijerph15091970.
- Jiang Y, Chu Y, Xie G, Li F, Wang L, Huang J, Zhai Y, Yao L. 2019. Antimicrobial
 resistance, virulence and genetic relationship of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in seafood from
 coasts of Bohai Sea and Yellow Sea, China. *International Journal of Food Microbiology* 290:116-124 DOI 10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2018.10.005.
- Kaysner CA, DePaola A, Jones J. 2004. Bacteriological Analytical Manual (BAM): chapter 9:
 Vibrio. Retrieved February 14, 2021. Available at https://www.fda.gov/food/laboratory-methods-food/bam-chapter-9-vibrio.
- Kirov SM.1993. The public health significance of *Aeromonas* spp. in foods. *International Journal of Food Microbiology* 20:179-198 DOI 10.1016/0168-1605(93)90164-c.

578

579

580 581

582

583

584

585

- Kumar R, Surendran PK, Thampuran N. 2009. Distribution and genotypic characterization of *Salmonella* serovars isolated from tropical seafood of Cochin, India. *Journal of Applied Microbiology* 106:515-524 DOI 10.1111/j.1365-2672.2008.04020.x.
- Kuo HC, Lauderdale TL, Lo DY, Chen CL, Chen PC, Liang SY, Kuo JC, Liao YS, Liao CH, Tsao CS, Chiou CS. 2014. An association of genotypes and antimicrobial resistance patterns among *Salmonella* isolates from pigs and humans in Taiwan. *PLoS One* 9:e95772 DOI 10.1371/journal.pone.0095772.
- Lee WS, Puthucheary SD, Parasakthi N, Choo KE. 2003. Antimicrobial susceptibility and distribution of non-typhoidal *Salmonella* serovars isolated in Malaysian children. *Journal of tropical pediatrics* 49:37-41.
- Mainar-Jaime RC, Andrés S, Vico JP, San Román B, Garrido V, Grilló MJ. 2013.
 Sensitivity of the ISO 6579:2002/Amd 1:2007 standard method for detection of Salmonella spp. on mesenteric lymph nodes from slaughter pigs. Journal of clinical microbiology 51:
 89-94 DOI 10.1128/JCM.02099-12.
- Martinez-Urtaza J, Powell A, Jansa J, Rey JL, Montero OP, Campello MG, López MJ,
 Pousa A, Valles MJ, Trinanes J, Hervio-Heath D, Keay W, Bayley A, Hartnell R,
 Baker-Austin C. 2016. Epidemiological investigation of a foodborne outbreak in Spain
 associated with U.S. West Coast genotypes of Vibrio parahaemolyticus. SpringerPlus 5:1 DOI 10.1186/s40064-016-1728-1.
- Morishige Y, Fujimori K, Amano F. 2015. Use of flow cytometry for quantitative analysis of
 metabolism of VBNC (Viable But Non-Culturable) *Salmonella. Biological and Pharmaceutical Bulletin* b15-00005 DOI 10.1248/bpb.b15-00005.

- Phan TT, Khai LT, Ogasawara N, Tam NT, Okatani AT, Akiba M, Hayashidani H. 2005.
 Contamination of Salmonella in retail meats and shrimps in the Mekong Delta, Vietnam.
- *Journal of Food Protection* **68**:1077-1080 <u>DOI 10.4315/0362-028x-68.5.1077.</u>
- Prasertsee T, Chokesajjawatee N, Santiyanont P, Chuammitri P, Deeudom M, Tadee P,
 Patchanee P. 2019. Quantification and rep-PCR characterization of Salmonella spp. in
 retail meats and hospital patients in Northern Thailand. Zoonoses Public Health 66:301-309 DOI 10.1111/zph.12565.
- Nitivattananon V, Srinonil S. 2019. Enhancing coastal areas governance for sustainable
 tourism in the context of urbanization and climate change in eastern Thailand. Advances in
 Climate Change Research 10:47-58 DOI 10.1016/j.accre.2019.03.003.
- Odeyemi OA. 2016. Incidence and prevalence of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in seafood: a
 systematic review and meta-analysis. *SpringerPlus* 5:464 DOI 10.1186/s40064-016-2115 7.
- Papadopoulou C, Economou E, Zakas G, Salamoura C, Dontorou C, Apostolou J. 2007.
 Microbiological and pathogenic contaminants of seafood in Greece. *Journal of Food* Quality 30:28-42 DOI 10.1111/j.1745-4557.2007.00104.x.
- Pramono H, Kurniawan A, Andika N, Putra TF, Hazwin MAR, Utari S, Kurniawan AP,
 Masithah ED, Sahidu AM. 2019. Detection of antibiotic-resistant Salmonella sp. in the
 seafood products of Surabaya local market. IOP Conference Series: Earth and
 Environmental Science 236:012115.
 - Rahimi E, Shakerian A, Falavarjani AG. 2013. Prevalence and antimicrobial resistance of *Salmonella* isolated from fish, shrimp, lobster, and crab in Iran. *Comparative Clinical Pathology* 22:59-62 DOI 10.1007/s00580-011-1368-3.

620

621

624

625

626

627

628

629

- Raymond A, Ramachandran A. 2019. Bacterial Pathogens in Seafood-Indian Scenario. Fishery
 Technology 56:1-22.
 - **Ruopp MD, Perkins NJ, Whitcomb BW, Schisterman EF. 2008.** Youden Index and optimal cut-point estimated from observations affected by a lower limit of detection. *Biometrical Journal* **50**:419-430 DOI 10.1002/bimj.200710415.
 - Ryu AR, Mok JS, Lee DE, Kwon JY, Park K. 2019. Occurrence, virulence, and antimicrobial resistance of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* isolated from bivalve shellfish farms along the southern coast of Korea. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research* 26:21034-21043 DOI 10.1007/s11356-019-05426-1.
- Sakazaki R, Tamura K, Abe H, Ogawa Y, Miyata Y. 1981. A new Salmonella serovar:
 Salmonella itami (9,12:1,z13:1,2). Japanese Journal of Medical Science and Biology
 34:179-180 DOI 10.7883/yoken1952.34.179.
- Scallan E, Hoekstra RM, Angulo FJ, Tauxe RV, Widdowson MA, Roy SL, Jones JL,
 Griffin PM. 2011. Foodborne illness acquired in the United States-major pathogens.
 Emerging Infectious Diseases Journal 17:7-15 DOI 10.3201/eid1701.P11101.
- Sirichote P, Bangtrakulnonth A, Tianmanee K, Unahalekhaka A, Oulai A,
 Chittaphithakchai P, Kheowrod W, Hendriksen RS. 2010. Serotypes and antimicrobial

639	resistance of Salmonella enterica ssp in central Thailand, 2001-2006. The Southeast Asian
640	Journal of Tropical Medicine and Public 41:1405-15.
641	Techasaensiri C, Radhakrishnan A, Als D, Thisyakorn U. 2018. Typhoidal Salmonella
642	Trends in Thailand. American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 99:64-71 DOI
643	<u>10.4269/ajtmh.18-0046</u> .
644	World Health Organization. 2004. Food safety at risk in Asia and the Pacific. Retrieved
645	February 14, 2021. Available at
646	https://apps.who.int/mediacentre/news/releases/2004/pr34/en/index.html.
647	Yeung M, Thorsen T. 2016. Development of a more sensitive and specific chromogenic agar
648	medium for the detection of Vibrio parahaemolyticus and other Vibrio species. Journal of
649	visualized experiments 117: 54493 DOI 10.3791/54493.