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Microbial food safety in the 21St century: emerging challenges and foodborne pathogenic bacteria

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1	Microbial food safety in the 21 st century: emerging challenges and foodborne pathogenic
2	bacteria
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19	Keywords: food safety, pathogens, microbial risk assessment
20	
21	The challenge of foodborne disease
22	With billions to feed worldwide, the need to produce adequate amounts of safe food,
23	unadulterated by bacterial, viral and protozoan pathogens, as well as harmful residues,
24	pesticides and allergens, remains one of the major challenges in modern times.
25	According to the World Health Organisation, unsafe food containing harmful bacteria,

26 viruses, parasites or chemical substances, causes more than 200 diseases - ranging from

27 diarrhoea to cancers. An estimated 600 million, i.e. almost 1 of 10 people in the world, fall ill 28 after eating contaminated food and 420,000 die every year, resulting in the loss of 33 million 29 healthy life years (DALY's = disability adjusted life years) (WHO, 2015a, b). Diarrhoeal 30 diseases are the most common illnesses resulting from the consumption of contaminated food 31 (WHO, 2015a, b). A data synthesis (Kirk et al., 2015) on the global and regional disease 32 burden of 22 foodborne diseases in 2010 estimated that these caused 580 million foodborne 33 illnesses in 2010. Norovirus alone was responsible for 125 million foodborne illnesses, the 34 largest number for any pathogen. Other pathogens resulting in high numbers of foodborne 35 cases were Campylobacter spp., non-typhoidal Salmonella spp., Enterotoxinogenic E. coli, 36 Enteropathogenic E. coli, STEC and Shigella spp. (Table 1) (Kirk et al., 2015).

37 Looking at the European situation, zoonoses monitoring activities carried out in 2016 in 38 37 European countries found campylobacteriosis the most commonly reported zoonosis, 39 followed by salmonellosis, versiniosis, Shiga Toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* (STEC) 40 infections and listeriosis (Table 1). However, while the increasing EU trend for human 41 campylobacteriosis cases since 2008 stabilised during 2012-2016, within the same period the 42 decreasing EU trend for confirmed human salmonellosis cases ended, due to the recent 43 Salmonella Enteritidis outbreaks, accounting for 59% of all salmonellosis cases in EU (EFSA and ECDC, 2017). On the other hand, the number of confirmed STEC infections in humans 44 45 remained stable whereas the decreasing EU trend of confirmed cases of versiniosis since 2008 stabilised during 2012-2016. Moreover, a further increased number of confirmed human 46 47 listeriosis cases was registered in 2016 (EFSA and ECDC, 2017). Of the 4,786 weak- and 48 strong-evidence foodborne and waterborne outbreaks reported in 2016 by 27 member states, 49 bacteria were the most commonly detected causative agents of zoonoses (33.9%), followed by 50 bacterial toxins (17.7%), viruses (9.8%), other causative agents (2.2%) and parasites (0.4%). 51 Hereby Salmonella was accounting for 65% of the outbreaks caused by bacterial agents. The

main foods involved in the strong-evidence outbreaks were from foods of animal origin and these were from 'eggs' (23.0%), 'poultry meat' (18.5%), 'fish and fisheries' including 'crustaceans, shellfish, molluscs and its products' (22.4%), 'meat and meat products other than poultry' (21.7%), and 'milk and milk products' (14.4%), while one-third of all strongevidence outbreaks involved 'buffet meals', 'mixed food' and 'other foods' including 'unspecified foods'.

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59 **Rising to the challenge**

60 Acknowledging that we have made considerable progress in taking action for increasing 61 food safety in the last 15 years, we still have considerably high numbers of illnesses and hence risks associated with the consumption of food, and the disease burden still is high (Kirk 62 63 et al., 2015). Moreover, because about 20% of the population of the United States and the 64 United Kingdom belong to the so-called "vulnerable people" (Lund and O'Brien, 2011; Lund, 2015) (especially the very young, the elderly and immunocompromised), we are more pressed 65 for finding solutions for increasing food safety. A "from farm-to-fork" approach of food 66 67 safety along the whole food chain has been adopted by many countries already a number of years ago (EU, 2014). Recognizing that the farm-to-fork approach may not be sufficient, in 68 the last years the "one-health-initiative" emerged, stating that we have to start at the farm 69 70 level, with pathogen-controlled feed and with healthy livestock to assure food safety, as well as with a healthy environment (Kahn, 2017). This came with the realisation that the health of 71 72 livestock affects human health, especially in connection with antibiotic resistant bacteria 73 (including foodborne pathogens). Use and misuse of antibiotics in both humans and animals 74 are responsible for the development of resistant bacteria (WHO, 2018) and antibiotic 75 resistance is therefore an important topic within the One-Health initiatives. Especially misuse

or overuse of antibiotics in animal husbandry could finally result in resistant bacteria
occurring in the food chain. Thus, although progress towards safe food production has been
made, new emerging challenges arise at the consumer, microorganisms or food processor
levels (Fig. 1), which require us to re-think food safety and keep a constant vigil for emerging
threats.

81

82 Emerging challenges

Having considered food safety from the 'one health' and the 'farm-to-fork' approaches, 83 84 one challenge remains at the level of the consumer, particularly the *vulnerable consumer*. 85 The very young may be particularly at risk, because of the immaturity of their immune and physiologic systems (IUFoST, 2015). For the elderly (25% of the European population in 86 87 2017) and whose number is projected to further increase worldwide from the estimated 962 88 million in 2017, to 1.4 billion in 2030 and 2.1 billion in 2050 (United Nations, 2017), 89 weakness of the immune system also increases vulnerability. The vulnerable are also those 90 having poor nutritional status, existing health problems, and drug therapies which suppress 91 the immune system (IUFoST, 2015; Lund and O'Brien, 2011; Newman et al., 2015). Such persons are more likely to acquire foodborne illness and are prone to more severe disease 92 93 outcomes, including higher mortality rates (IUFoST, 2015). The challenge will be to produce 94 foods with low microbial risks, to define and exclude high risk foods and to disseminate clear 95 advice about food safety.

The 'one health' initiative quite rightly connects environmental and animal health with human health. Changes in the agri-food chain, social changes and advances in the detection and reporting systems, coupled with bacterial adaptation and evolution, may lead to certain microorganisms becoming new or *emerging zoonotic pathogens*. Examples of such include

shigatoxigenic/ enterohaemorrhagic *E. coli* (STEC/EHEC) and *Campylobacter* spp. in the meat chain, *Listeria monocytogenes* in vegetable, meat or milk products, *Cronobacter* spp. in infant milk formula, *Arcobacter* spp., *Yersinia enterocolitica* serobiotype O3/4, parasites such as *Cyclospora* on fruit and *Cryptosporidium* and *Giarda* in water, as well as hepatitis E virus in pork and boar meat (Duffy et al., 2008; Batzilla et al., 2011; Park et al., 2016; Ramees et al., 2017). Recognising these current zoonotic pathogens and their potential for foodborne transmission will be essential for identifying emerging foodborne pathogens.

107 Viruses (adeno-, calici- and enterioviruses) are important pathogens which in many 108 countries are the most numerous causes (norovirus) for foodborne infection. For adenoviruses 109 or caliciviruses no standardized methods for cultivation or detection exist. While standardized 110 procedures for cultivation of some enteroviruses exist, these methods are not capable of 111 distinguishing between virus types and are not applicable for all enteroviruses (Hartmann and 112 Halden, 2012). Detection is also challenging because viruses have a high mutation rate and 113 many have a high probability of infection even at 10 virions (Hartmann and Halden 2012). 114 This has obvious implications regarding the difficulty for the *detection and monitoring of* 115 foodborne viruses. Here, methods for virion concentration, as well as sensitive molecular 116 biological or serological methods, or even mass spectrometry, need to be developed for an 117 accurate and specific detection at low contamination levels.

Decreasing the excess use of antibiotics in animal husbandry and in human medicine is especially important to decrease the occurrence and spread of *antibiotic resistant bacteria*. Yet antibiotic use cannot be decreased to zero in the interest of human and animal health. It will be important, therefore, to define points of pathogen entry, trace transmission routes along the food chain, to determine the evolution of transferable antibiotic genes and more importantly to find control measures which prevent or diminish the entry and spread of resistant microorganisms or resistance genes. Here, not only true foodborne pathogens are of

125 importance, but also opportunistic pathogens such as Klebsiella spp., Enterobacter spp., 126 Citrobacter spp. and Serratia spp. These are well known to occur in various foods (e.g. meats, 127 vegetables, milk) and to cause hospital infections (Nordmann et al., 2012; Fusco et al., 2018). 128 Additionally, even non-pathogenic bacteria may become antibiotic resistant and can be 129 relevant in spread. The challenge here is to monitor the spread and evolution of such bacteria to prove an animal/environment/human connection. One approach may be a syst-OMICS 130 131 approach, as was recently reported to be adopted for salmonellosis to ensure food safety and 132 reduce the economic burden. The study by Emold-Rheault et al. (2017) sets out to sequence 133 the genomes of 4500 Salmonella genomes and to build an analysis pipeline for the study of 134 Salmonella genome evolution, antibiotic resistance and virulence genes. This way, the study 135 aims to draw potential links between strains found in fresh produce, humans, animals and the 136 environment (Emold-Rheault et al., 2017). A similar approach would be worthwhile for 137 adopting for other bacterial pathogens such as Campylobacter, Listeria monocytogenes, 138 pathogenic E. coli strains, or the opportunistic pathogens mentioned above.

139 *Climate change* may well be important for microbial food safety in the 21st century. 140 There is reasonable evidence that the environment and weather play a role in the transmission 141 of e.g. Salmonella and Campylobacter spp. to humans, even though there is uncertainty about 142 the mechanisms behind this (Justus et al., 2017; Lake, 2017; Nichols et al., 2018). Possibly 143 global warming may have such an effect on increased transmission also with other pathogens, 144 or may even become a key factor in selecting for other emerging pathogens. Food will also be 145 produced in altered climatic conditions in modified surrounding ecosystems, and the 146 interactions between these changes and the food production systems are complex and 147 uncertain (Lake and Barker, 2018). For example, increased indoor animal husbandry to 148 counteract heat stress may elevate the potential for animal to animal transmission of zoonotic 149 pathogens. Increased growing seasons may lead to greater use or outdoor pastures and

150 increase the probability of transmission of pathogens from the environment. Flooding or 151 drought may favour the spread of pathogens to produce, or have consequences on water 152 quality and pathogen transmission (Lake and Barker, 2018). Another important aspect 153 concerns the increasing water shortage and the worldwide demand for fresh water. As a result, 154 an increase in the use of waste water for irrigation and sewage sludge could be expected, 155 accompanied by increasing risks of contamination of agricultural land and plants with 156 pathogens.

157 Research into *novel food preservation methods* (or technologies) remains a challenge, 158 particularly when considering the production of foods with low microbial diets for vulnerable 159 people. Against this background we need to discuss whether all food needs to be made 160 suitable and available to the vulnerable, or whether specific safe diets need to be formulated 161 or especially produced? Specific preservation technologies that have been researched and to 162 some extent applied in the last years include high hydrostatic pressure, pulsed electric fields, 163 high voltage arc discharge and cold plasma (Stoica et al., 2013), as well as pulsed light or 164 UV-C treatments. One promising biocontrol tool would also be the use of lytic bacteriophages 165 to specifically control pathogens or antibiotic resistant opportunistic pathogens. Due to their 166 host specificity, lytic bacteriophages would act very target specific (Jordan et al., 2014). This 167 would be of obvious advantage also for use in specific foods suitable for this technology, in 168 which a pathogen of concern needs to be inactivated to improve its safety for the vulnerable 169 people group.

170 Interestingly, the Executive Summary of Food Safety by the EFSA (2009), reporting on a 171 survey of consumer risk perception showed that the consumer is more likely to worry about 172 risks caused by external factors, over which they have no control, e.g. consumers expressed 173 concern regarding contamination of food by bacteria and unhygienic conditions outside home. 174 On the other hand, they seemed less concerned about factors linked to their own behaviour

175 (e.g. food preparation, food hygiene at home). Apart from such optimistic bias and illusion of 176 control, other reasons for unsafe food preparation by the consumer were shown to include 177 habits and lack of knowledge concerning food safety during domestic food preparation, as 178 well as disagreement with some recommendations for safe food handling (Al-Sakkaf, 2012; 179 Young and Waddell, 2016). Regarding the latter for example, a study by Kosa et al. (2015) on 180 consumer-reported handling of poultry products at home showed that there was low 181 adherence to current recommended food safety practices by the consumers regarding that they 182 should not wash raw poultry before cooking, proper refrigerator storage of raw poultry, use of 183 a food thermometer to determine doneness, and proper thawing of raw poultry in cold water. 184 Clearly, therefore, risk assessment agencies or communicators should in future spend more effort in gathering and utilizing such information to develop and update science-based 185 186 education materials.

187 Microbial Risk Assessment

188 Risk assessment is a science-based process consisting of hazard identification, hazard 189 characterization, exposure assessment, and risk characterization (CAC, 2014). Microbial risk 190 assessment (MRA) can largely help to understand the behaviour of pathogens over a food 191 chain, to predict health risks and the expected public health effects of interventions and 192 standards (Havelaar et al. 2010). For risk assessment studies, many quantitative data are 193 needed, like prevalences of foodborne pathogens, characteristics of organisms, food products 194 and processes, virulence of organisms and susceptibility of humans, as well as public health 195 and epidemiological data. In the last decades, more and more of these data became available, 196 not always perfect, but the quantity and the availability of data has increased largely. This 197 information is even in certain cases overwhelming (big data), not only regarding 198 microorganisms characteristics (genomics) behaviour (transcriptomics and and 199 metabolomics), but also the tenacity (survival or dying) or growth with regard to products,

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processes, intrinsic and extrinsic factors of foods, and even human behaviour. The exact 200 201 meaning of data and defining its quality and applicability can then become problematic. 202 Difficulty apart from searching, collecting, defining, interpreting and valuing the data sources 203 is also how to make use of it, since large variability and uncertainty exist (Zwietering, 2015, 204 Koutsoumanis & Aspridou, 2016, Membré & Guillou, 2016). Adaptation and evolution of 205 microorganisms within a changing environment might affect the genotypes or lineages of 206 pathogens which become problematic. Thus genotype-specific risk assessment (Carlin et al., 207 2013) and individual cell-based modelling (Koutsoumanis, 2008; Metselaar et al., 2016) are 208 becoming increasingly important. These approaches might contribute to fine-tune the hazard 209 identification, hazard characterization and exposure assessment elements of microbiological 210 risk assessments and thereby reducing the uncertainty in risk characterizations (see for a more 211 in-depth discussion e.g. Cocolin et al., 2018; Den Besten et al., 2018; Haddad et al., 2018; 212 Membré & Guillou, 2016; Pielaat et al., 2015; Rantsiou et al., 2018). Reports with data, 213 databases (e.g. Combase, http://www.combase.cc), and many tools are developed (e.g. PMM-214 Lab, https://foodrisklabs.bfr.bund.de/pmm-lab/, Baseline, http://www.baselineapp.com/) that 215 can make implementation of risk assessments more available for more people. Ultimately the 216 integration of genotypic data that can be obtained with omics technologies and quantitative phenotypic data (i.e. quantitative descriptors for growth, survival and inactivation for 217 218 genotypes and heterogeneity between individual cells) and simulation tools and experimental 219 challenge tests make it possible to get better grip on magnitudes and sources of risks. This is 220 needed to evaluate various ways to effectively control the microbial risks with technical 221 solutions, behavioural changes, changes in product formulations and in standards and 222 legislation, for a balanced control of hazards in our foods.

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 needs variability and uncertainty, management needs discrete decisions. *International Journal of Food Microbiology 213*, 118-123.
- 350
- 351 352

- 353 Table 1: Estimated global cases and reported European cases of food borne illness
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	Bacterial zoonotic pathogen	Estimated global cases of	Reported European cases of		
		foodborne illnesses in 2010	foodborne illnesses in 2016		
		(Kirk et al., 2015)	(EFSA and ECDC, 2017)		
	Campylobacter spp.	95 613 970	246 307		
	Non-typhoidal Salmonella spp.	78 439 785	94 530		
	Enterotoxinogenic E. coli	86 502 735	n.r.*		
	Enteropathogenic E. coli	23 797 284	n.r.*		
	STEC	1 176 854	6 378		
	Shigella spp.	51 014 050	n.r.*		
	Listeria monocytogenes	14 169	2 536		
	Yersinia	n.r.*	6 861		
355	*n.r.: not reported				
356					
357	7				
	Microorganism level Climate change Emerging pathogenic strains/genotypes Difficulty for detection and monitoring (e.g. viruses) Development of antimicrobial resistance	Food processor level el preservation iniques Consume Vulnerable con Unsafe domes preparation	er level nsumers stic food		
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359					
360	Figure Legend				
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362	Figure 1: Challenges for food safety emerging at the consumer, microorganisms or food				
363	processor levels				
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Chieftin Minis

Highlights

High number of infection are still caused by foodborne microorganisms

Increasing number of vulnerable people needs safer food

emergence and spread of antibiotic resistant bacteria should be controlled

new methods for effective food preservation are needed

magnitudes and sources of risks and ways to effectively control these are needed

A ALANA