

## RESEARCH ARTICLE

Prevalence and concentration of *stx+* *E. coli* and *E. coli* O157 in bovine manure from Florida farmsChristopher A. Baker<sup>1</sup>, Jaysankar De<sup>1</sup>, Bruna Bertoldi<sup>1</sup>, Laurel Dunn<sup>2a</sup>, Travis Chapin<sup>2</sup>, Michele Jay-Russell<sup>3</sup>, Michelle D. Danyluk<sup>1,2</sup>, Keith R. Schneider<sup>1\*</sup>

**1** Department of Food Science and Human Nutrition, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida, United States of America, **2** Citrus Research and Education Center, University of Florida, Lake Alfred, Florida, United States of America, **3** Western Center for Food Safety, University of California, Davis, California, United States of America

✉ Current address: University of Georgia, Department of Food Science and Technology, Athens, Georgia, United States of America

\* [keiths29@ufl.edu](mailto:keiths29@ufl.edu)



## OPEN ACCESS

**Citation:** Baker CA, De J, Bertoldi B, Dunn L, Chapin T, Jay-Russell M, et al. (2019) Prevalence and concentration of *stx+* *E. coli* and *E. coli* O157 in bovine manure from Florida farms. PLoS ONE 14 (5): e0217445. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0217445>

**Editor:** P. Pardha-Saradhi, University of Delhi, INDIA

**Received:** March 18, 2019

**Accepted:** May 10, 2019

**Published:** May 24, 2019

**Copyright:** © 2019 Baker et al. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution License](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

**Data Availability Statement:** All relevant data are within the manuscript and its Supporting Information files.

**Funding:** This work was supported by the Western Center for Food Safety contract U19-FD004995 from the U.S. Food and Drug Administration. The funder had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

**Competing interests:** The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

## Abstract

Fresh produce outbreaks due to Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* (STEC) continue to occur in the United States (US). Manure-amended soils can pose a public health risk when used for growing raw agricultural commodities. Knowing the prevalence and concentration of STEC in untreated biological soil amendments of animal origin (BSAAO) is important to help guide the most appropriate pre-harvest interval(s) following application to limit risks from these soil amendments. Bovine manure samples were collected from 12 farms in Florida, including samples from piles, lagoons, barns, and screened solids. Two methods were used to detect *stx1/2* and *rfbE* genes in samples. A prevalence rate of 9% for *stx1* and/or *stx2* and 19% for *rfbE* was observed from the 518 bovine manure samples evaluated. A most probable number (MPN) assay was performed on *stx+* samples when applicable. The geometric mean for *stx+* samples ( $n = 20$ ) was  $3.37 \text{ MPN g}^{-1}$  ( $0.53 \text{ log MPN g}^{-1}$ ) with a maximum value of  $6,800 \text{ MPN g}^{-1}$  ( $3.83 \text{ log MPN g}^{-1}$ ). This research was part of a larger nationwide geographical study on the prevalence and concentration of STEC in bovine manure to help guide regulations on feasible pre-harvest intervals for the application of untreated BSAAO.

## Introduction

Outbreaks due to Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* (STEC) are costly to the economy and can affect both the public sector as well as growers/shippers in the produce industry. It has been estimated that over 265,000 illnesses occur annually in the United States (US) due to STEC, with over 3,600 hospitalizations and 30 deaths [1]. In 2018, it was reported that confirmed and suspected foodborne incidences of STEC accounted for 203 (5%) outbreaks, 2,465 (3%) illnesses, 693 (13%) hospitalizations, and 13 (9%) deaths from 2009 to 2015 in the US (2).

These figures include all food types, though produce-related outbreaks represent a substantial portion of the STEC foodborne outbreaks in the US [2, 3]. From 2010 to 2015, STEC caused 48 known produce-related outbreaks and 942 known cases in the US, with a median of 15 cases per produce-related outbreak during this period [4]. A STEC outbreak linked to spinach in 2006 resulted in 199 illnesses, 102 hospitalizations, and three deaths [5]. In 2018, a STEC outbreak linked to romaine lettuce exceeded the case count of 2006, resulting in 210 illnesses, 96 hospitalizations, and five deaths [6].

There are many potential routes of produce contamination that may lead to foodborne illness, one of which is contamination through the application of untreated manure to soils. Application of bovine manure to soil can benefit both livestock/dairy and produce farmers. Manure is a commonly added organic soil amendment used to prevent soil erosion, replenish nutrients within the soil, and maintain soil quality each growing season following the repeated use of agricultural lands [7]. However, soils amended with untreated BSAAO present a microbial food safety risk [8, 9], especially if these amendments are not handled, transported, stored, and applied properly [10].

In the US Food Safety Modernization Act (FSMA), the Produce Safety Rule (PSR) has been set forth to regulate the growing of fresh produce [11]. Subpart F of the PSR focuses on the use of biological soil amendments of animal origin (BSAAO), which is defined as “a biological soil amendment which consists, in whole or in part, of materials of animal origin, such as manure or non-fecal animal byproducts including animal mortalities, or table waste, alone or in combination” [12]. In 2013, it was proposed that farmers would be required to wait nine months after application of untreated BSAAO to harvest produce [10]. This resulted in negative feedback from farmers [10], and consequently the minimum harvest interval for untreated BSAAO is reserved until a feasible and data-driven harvest interval can be set [12]. Previous research on STEC prevalence in bovine manure is available, but few studies assessing STEC concentrations in manure are available [13]. In this study, *stx* (*stx1* and *stx2*) and *rfbE* (specific for *E. coli* O157) were targeted to obtain prevalence data in manure samples. Most probable number (MPN)  $g^{-1}$  values were determined for *stx+* samples. Samples which were presumptive positive for *stx* were further screened for *eae* to determine the prevalence for atypical enteropathogenic *E. coli* (aEPEC).

The *stx* genes are major virulence factors of STEC and thus are the primary genes targeted for molecular STEC detection assays [14]. The *eae* gene, which codes for the intestinal adherence factor intimin, is also commonly used to screen for STEC [15]. The *rfbE* gene specific for O157 lipopolysaccharide has also been established as a molecular marker to detect *E. coli* O157 [15, 16]. *E. coli* O157 is the major STEC serogroup known to cause illness and has been associated with numerous produce-related foodborne outbreaks and is commonly associated with severe complications in illness [17–20].

The prevalence of STEC in bovine manure has been assessed in previous studies, with a wide range of prevalence rates documented in beef and dairy production systems [17, 21–22]. Despite previous research, an assessment of multiple farms in several geographical regions for *stx* and *rfbE* presence in bovine manure was warranted. The objectives of this research project were to determine the prevalence and concentration of STEC, and the prevalence of *E. coli* O157 in bovine manure on Florida livestock and dairy farms.

## Materials and methods

### Sample collection and non-selective enrichment

Manure samples were collected from a total of 74 bovine manure storage locations at 12 farms (10 dairy farms, one beef feedlot, and one livestock market). Each farm was sampled twice

from August 2017 to May 2018. Farm visits were made based on the willingness and availability of the farmers participating in the study. Three to four storage locations were sampled per farm; storage locations include piles (aggregated, stacked manure), lagoon (liquid manure storage basin), barn (unmoved, unstacked manure), and/or screened solid (dewatered manure) samples. Seven samples were collected from each storage location. Surface or subsurface samples were obtained for all pile and screened solid samples, and for barn samples when applicable. The following information was collected from each farm: farm type (beef, dairy, livestock market), sample temperature, sample depth, storage location, storage age, time of manure pile sitting undisturbed, pile size, degree of protection from birds, equipment cleaning frequency, and any potential external influences on the pile when applicable. Relative humidity, wind speed, and precipitation (past 24 h) were obtained from the Florida Automated Weather Network (FAWN) (<http://fawn.ifas.ufl.edu>).

A total of 518 bovine manure samples were evaluated. Thirty grams of sample were added to 270 mL of tryptic soy broth (TSB; Becton, Dickinson and Company, Sparks, MD) in 24 oz. Whirl-Pak sterile filter (0.33 mm) bags (Teel Plastics, Inc., Baraboo, WI) to keep liquid separate from solids. Each sample bag was rubbed by hand for 1 min to obtain a mixed manure-TSB slurry. Bags with the manure-TSB slurry were incubated in a GYROMAX 747 orbital shaking incubator (Amerex Instruments, Inc., Lafayette, CA) for 2 h at 25°C, 100 rpm followed by 8 h at 42°C, 100 rpm.

### Selective enrichment for STEC (mEHEC method)

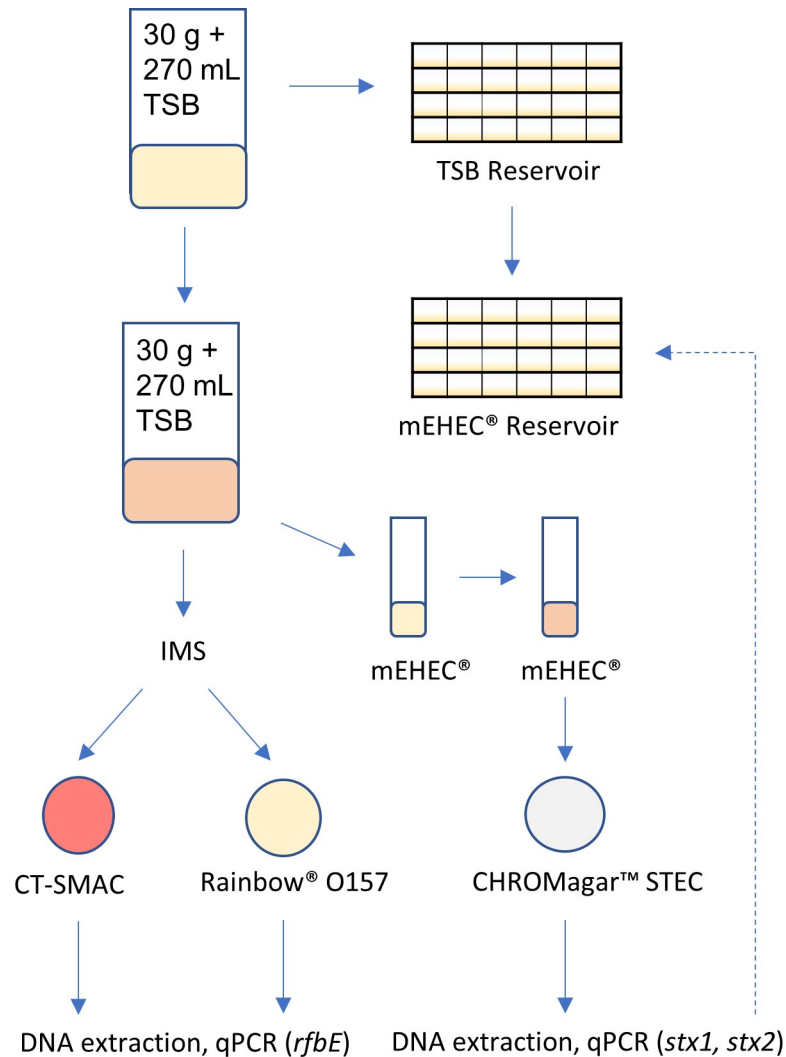
Once sample bags (30 g + 270 mL of TSB) were incubated, 1 mL of manure-TSB slurry was added to 9 mL of mEHEC (Biocontrol, Bellevue, WA) broth and incubated for 12 h at 42°C [23, 24]. Enrichments in mEHEC broth were streaked for isolation on CHROMagar STEC (CHROMagar Microbiology, Paris, France) and incubated for 24 h at 37°C (Fig 1). Up to 12 presumptive positive colonies on CHROMagar STEC were re-streaked until pure colonies were obtained.

### DNA extraction

A loopful of presumptive positive colonies were added to a sterile 1.5 mL centrifuge tube containing 100  $\mu$ L of DNA grade water (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Fair Lawn, NJ), and vortexed for 10 s. Tubes were heated at 100°C for 20 min, and centrifuged for 10 min at 12,000  $\times$  g. Following centrifugation, supernatant with DNA was obtained and stored at -20°C until further analysis.

### Detection of *stx1* and *stx2* by quantitative PCR

DNA from presumptive positive colonies was screened for *stx1* and *stx2*. Quantitative PCR (qPCR) was performed on a Bio-Rad iCycler Optical Model (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) in a 20  $\mu$ L reaction with 2  $\mu$ L of DNA, 10  $\mu$ L iTaq universal probes supermix (Bio-Rad), 0.3  $\mu$ M of each primer and 0.25  $\mu$ M of each probe, and 7.6  $\mu$ L of sterile DNA grade water. The qPCR reaction was performed under the following conditions: 95°C for 20 s, 40 cycles of 95°C for 3 s, 60°C for 30 s, followed by a 4°C hold. The *stx1* and *stx2* primer and probe sequences (Table 1) used in this analysis were obtained from Cooley et al. [25] and synthesized by IDT (Integrated DNA Technologies, Inc., Skokie, IL). If a sample was positive for *stx1* and/or *stx2*, the respective mEHEC reservoirs were evaluated for *stx1* and *stx2* by qPCR to determine the MPN  $g^{-1}$  for the *stx1* and/or *stx2* positive manure sample.



**Fig 1. Flow diagram of mEHEC and IMS-O157 methods.** The corresponding mEHEC reservoirs for *stx*+ samples were screened for *stx* to obtain an MPN  $g^{-1}$  value.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0217445.g001>

### Sample preparation for potential positive samples and MPN $g^{-1}$ analysis

Prior to the initial incubation of the sample bags (30 g + 270 mL of TSB), 5.5 mL of the slurry was transferred to each of the first four rows (four replicates) of the first column of a reservoir (4 X 6 wells). The first column thus only received the slurry, while columns 2–6 were filled with 4.5 mL of TSB for serial dilution. Once samples were added to the first column of the respective reservoirs, 10-fold serial dilutions were performed in columns 2–6 by transferring 0.5 mL from the previous column to the adjacent columns with a multi-channel pipette. After reservoirs were incubated simultaneously with the sample bags, 0.5 mL of incubated TSB broth from each well was transferred to respective wells in separate reservoirs containing 4.5 mL of mEHEC broth in each well. The mEHEC reservoirs were incubated simultaneously with the mEHEC tubes for 12 h at 42°C and held at 6°C until *stx* presence was determined following mEHEC tube analysis. This scheme provided a 4 X 6 dilution MPN reservoir to enumerate any positive samples.

**Table 1. Primers and probes for the detection of *stx1*, *stx2*, *rfbE* and *eae* genes.**

Primer	Sequence	Reference
<i>stx1</i> -f	CAT-CGC-GAG-TTG-CCA-GAA-T	[26]
<i>stx1</i> -r	TCC-CAC-GGA-CTC-TTC-CAT-CT	[26]
<i>stx1</i> -p	/56-FAM/ATC TGA TGA/ZEN/TTT CCT TCT ATG TGT CCG/3IABkFQ/	[26]
<i>stx2</i> -f	GGA-CCA-CAT-CGG-TGT-CTG-TTA-TT	[26]
<i>stx2</i> -r	CCC-TCG-TAT-ATC-CAC-AGC-AAA-AT	[26]
<i>stx2</i> -p	/56-JOEN/CCA CAC CCC/ZEN/ACC GGC AGT 3IABkFQ/	[26]
<i>rfbE</i> -f	CTG-TCC-ACA-CGA-TGC-CAA-TG	[59]
<i>rfbE</i> -r	CGA-TAG-GCT-GGG-GAA-ACT-AGG	[59]
<i>rfbE</i> -p	/56-FAM/TTA-ATT-CCA-CGC-CAA-CCA-AGA-TCC-TCA/3IABkFQ/	[59]
<i>eae</i> -f	AAA-GCG-GGA-GTC-AAT-GTA-ACG	[15]
<i>eae</i> -r	GGC-GAT-TAC-GCG-AAA-GAT-AC	([15])
<i>eae</i> -p*	/5HEX/CTC-TGC-AGA-TTA-ACC-TCT-GCC-G/3BHQ_1/	[15]

\*Probe fluorophore and quencher modified from Noll et al. [15].

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0217445.t001>

### Determination of the MPN g<sup>-1</sup> of *stx1* and/or *stx2*+ samples

Once a *stx1* and/or *stx2*+ sample was confirmed by qPCR, the corresponding mEHEC reservoirs from *stx1*/*stx2*+ samples were further evaluated to determine the MPN g<sup>-1</sup> value. An aliquot was drawn from each of the 24 wells with a multi-channel pipette and streaked onto CHROMagar STEC, and plates were incubated as previously described. Colonies were isolated, and DNA was extracted and evaluated for *stx1*/*stx2* via qPCR as previously described. Once *stx* presence was determined for each well, MPN calculations were performed using an MPN calculator [26] to determine the MPN g<sup>-1</sup> value. For MPNs with all 24 wells negative, the single positive from the 30 g sample was used to calculate the MPN g<sup>-1</sup>, which resulted in a limit of detection (LOD) of 0.089 MPN g<sup>-1</sup> (-1.05 log MPN g<sup>-1</sup>).

### Immunomagnetic separation (IMS) and isolation of *E. coli* O157 (IMS-O157 method)

Following the incubation of TSB bags as previously described, 1 mL of enrichment was added to a 1.5 mL tube containing 20 µL of DynabeadsMAX anti *E. coli* O157 (Invitrogen, Frederick, MD) and vortexed for 10 s. Tubes were placed in an MPC-S rack, inverted several times, and incubated at room temperature for 10 min with gentle agitation. Following incubation, a magnetic plate was inserted into the MPC-S rack, inverted several times, and incubated for 3 min. Sample supernatant was aspirated, and the magnetic plate was removed from the MPC-S rack. One mL of 1x wash buffer (Invitrogen, Frederick, MD) was added to each tube, inverted several times, and incubated for 3 min with the magnetic plate. The wash step was repeated twice, and after the third wash the beads were re-suspended in 100 µL of wash buffer. Re-suspended cells were streaked on BBLMacConkey II Agar with Sorbitol (Becton, Dickinson and Company, Sparks, MD) supplemented with cefixime (0.05 µg/mL) (US Pharmacopeia, Rockville, MD) and potassium tellurite (2.5 µg/mL) (Chem-Impex International, Inc., Wood Dale, IL) (CT-SMAC) and Rainbow Agar O157 (BIOLOG, Inc., Hayward, CA). Plates were incubated for 24 h at 37°C, and presumptive positive *E. coli* O157 colonies on CT-SMAC and Rainbow Agar O157 [27] were re-streaked on respective plates and incubated for 24 h at 37°C.

## Quantitative PCR on *E. coli* O157 and additional analyses

DNA extraction was performed as previously described from isolated presumptive positive colonies and stored at  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  until further analysis. Quantitative PCR was performed following the methods described in Jacob et al. [28] on a Bio-Rad iCycler Optical Model (Bio-Rad). The 20  $\mu\text{L}$  PCR reaction consisted of 2  $\mu\text{L}$  of DNA, 10  $\mu\text{L}$  iTaq universal probes supermix (Bio-Rad), 0.5  $\mu\text{M}$  of primers and probes, and 5  $\mu\text{L}$  of sterile DNA grade water and was performed under the following conditions:  $95^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 10 min, 45 cycles of  $95^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 15 s,  $56^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 20 s,  $72^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 40 s, followed by a  $4^{\circ}\text{C}$  hold. The primers and probe targeting the *rfbE* gene were obtained from Jacob et al. [28] and are available in Table 1. Sample DNA that was positive for *E. coli* O157 was screened for *stx1* and *stx2* via qPCR to determine if positive *E. coli* O157 isolates also contained *stx1* and/or *stx2*. Sample DNA from the mEHEC and IMS-O157 methods was screened for *eae* presence via qPCR, and primers and probes were obtained from Noll et al. [15] and are listed in Table 1.

## Statistical analysis

Prevalence was determined as the number of positive samples for each gene divided by the total number of samples evaluated. A two-sided Wilcoxon test was performed to compare the effect of sample temperature and sample depth on the presence of *stx* and *rfbE*. Nonparametric correlation tests (Spearman) were used to compare log transformed MPN  $\text{g}^{-1}$  values with sample temperature and depth. Fisher's exact tests adjusted with Hommel's modification of the Bonferroni procedure were performed for *stx*, *stx1*, *stx2*, and *rfbE* presence based on storage location, pile age, and for surface versus subsurface samples. A significance level ( $\alpha$ ) of 0.05 was used for all analyses. All statistical analyses were performed using R version 3.4.3 (<http://www.R-project.org>).

## Results

### Prevalence of *stx1/stx2* and *rfbE* in manure samples

Of the 518 samples evaluated, 20 (4%) *stx1* and/or *stx2* positive samples were identified in the mEHEC method alone. There were 97 (19%) *rfbE*<sup>+</sup> samples identified with the IMS-O157 method. Sample DNA that was *rfbE*<sup>+</sup> was further analyzed for the presence of *stx1* and *stx2*, and 26 additional *stx*<sup>+</sup> samples were identified. Including the mEHEC and IMS-O157 methods, *stx1* and/or *stx2* was detected in 46 samples (9% prevalence) (12 *stx1*<sup>+</sup>/*stx2*<sup>+</sup>; eight *stx1*<sup>+</sup>/*stx2*<sup>-</sup>; and 26 *stx1*<sup>-</sup>/*stx2*<sup>+</sup>). This resulted in a prevalence of 4% (20/518) for *stx1* and 7% (38/518) for *stx2*. The prevalence for *stx1/2* in samples increased by a factor of 2.3 when combining both methods, and all data analyses included *stx*<sup>+</sup> samples from both methods.

Of the 74 storage locations tested, 26 (35%) were *stx1* and/or *stx2* positive, and 43 (58%) were *rfbE*<sup>+</sup>. Of the 12 farms and 24 farm visits, 11 farms (92%) and 15 farm visits (63%) resulted in a *stx*<sup>+</sup> sample, and *stx* was found during both visits for four farms (33%). Only one of the 12 farms (8%) was *stx*<sup>-</sup> on both visits. Twelve farms (100%) and 23 of 24 farm visits (96%) resulted in at least one *rfbE*<sup>+</sup> sample.

### Prevalence of *eae* in bovine manure samples

There were seven *eae*<sup>+</sup> samples detected among the 20 *stx1/2*<sup>+</sup> samples originally identified in the mEHEC method, and 26 additional *eae*<sup>+</sup> samples detected among the 27 *stx*<sup>+</sup> samples identified following the IMS-O157 method. This resulted in a total of 10 *stx1*<sup>+</sup>/*stx2*<sup>+</sup>/*eae*<sup>+</sup> samples; four *stx1*<sup>+</sup>/*stx2*<sup>-</sup>/*eae*<sup>+</sup> samples; 19 *stx1*<sup>-</sup>/*stx2*<sup>+</sup>/*eae*<sup>+</sup> samples; two *stx1*<sup>+</sup>/*stx2*<sup>+</sup>/*eae*<sup>-</sup> samples; six *stx1*<sup>+</sup>/*stx2*<sup>-</sup>/*eae*<sup>-</sup> samples; and nine *stx1*<sup>-</sup>/*stx2*<sup>+</sup>/*eae*<sup>-</sup> samples. Samples negative for *stx*

Table 2. MPN g<sup>-1</sup> values for *stx+* bovine manure samples with 95% confidence intervals.

Manure Type	Storage Location	<i>stx1</i>	<i>stx2</i>	<i>rfbE</i>	<i>eae</i>	MPN g <sup>-1</sup> *	LL**	UL**
Feedlot	Lagoon	+	-	-	-	220 (2.34)	71	710
Livestock Market	Pile	+	+	-	-	6800 (3.83)	N/A	N/A
Livestock Market	Pile	+	+	+	+	110 (2.04)	31	390
Livestock Market	Pile	+	-	-	-	1.2 (0.08)	0.3	4.8
Livestock Market	Pile	-	+	-	-	0.91 (-0.04)	0.2	4.2
Dairy	Lagoon	-	+	-	-	1.6 (0.20)	0.45	5.6
Dairy	Lagoon	-	+	-	-	0.089 (-1.05)	0.009	0.89
Dairy	Pile	+	-	+	+	0.089 (-1.05)	0.009	0.89
Dairy	Pile	+	+	-	-	23 (1.36)	7.4	72
Dairy	Screened solids	-	+	-	-	47 (1.67)	16	140
Dairy	Screened solids	-	+	-	-	9.6 (0.98)	2.8	33
Dairy	Screened solids	-	+	-	-	5.5 (0.74)	1.8	17
Dairy	Screened solids	-	+	-	-	3.3 (0.52)	1.1	9.7
Dairy	Screened solids	-	+	+	+	0.45 (-0.35)	0.057	3.5
Dairy	Barn	-	+	-	-	9.4 (0.97)	2.7	32
Dairy	Barn	+	-	-	-	3.2 (0.51)	1.1	9.5
Dairy	Barn	+	-	-	-	0.9 (-0.05)	0.19	4.2
Dairy	Barn	-	+	-	-	0.9 (-0.05)	0.19	4.2
Dairy	Barn	+	-	-	-	0.089 (-1.05)	0.009	0.89
Dairy	Barn	+	-	+	-	0.089 (-1.05)	0.009	0.89
geometric mean						3.37 (0.53)		

\*MPN g<sup>-1</sup> (log MPN g<sup>-1</sup>)

\*\*LL-lower limit; \*\*UL-upper limit, 95% confidence interval for MPN g<sup>-1</sup> values

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0217445.t002>

were evaluated for *eae*, which resulted in a total of 28 *stx1*-/*stx2*-/*eae*+ samples, 14 (50%) of which were from a single farm visit, and 13 (46%) were from a single farm found during the two visits. Of the 97 *rfbE*+ samples, there were 27 *stx*+/*eae*+, two *stx*+/*eae*-, 12 *stx*-/*eae*+, and 56 *stx*-/*eae*- samples.

### Most probable number *stx*+ values in bovine manure samples

Of the 20 *stx*+ samples evaluated by the MPN assay, the geometric mean was 3.37 MPN g<sup>-1</sup> (0.53 log MPN g<sup>-1</sup>) with a maximum value of 6,800 MPN g<sup>-1</sup> (3.83 log MPN g<sup>-1</sup>) (Table 2). Fifteen of the 20 MPN values (75%) were below 23 MPN g<sup>-1</sup> (<1.36 log MPN g<sup>-1</sup>). Of the 20 MPN values, four were *rfbE*+ (Table 2).

### Presence of *stx*, *rfbE* based on sample temperatures and depth

Pile, screened solids, and barn samples were aggregated to determine the influence of temperature on *stx* and *rfbE* presence in solid-base samples (pile, screened solids, barn). There was a significant difference in *rfbE* presence based on subsurface sample temperatures (*P* = 0.0075), with *rfbE*+ and *rfbE*- samples occurring at an average of 26.5°C and 31.1°C, respectively. There was no significant difference in *stx* presence based on subsurface sample temperatures (*P* = 0.77). There was a significant difference in *rfbE* presence based on lagoon sample temperatures (*P* = 0.047), with *rfbE*+ and *rfbE*- samples averaging 24.9°C and 25.9°C, respectively. There was no significant difference in *stx* presence based on subsurface sample temperatures (*P* = 0.91).

**Table 3. Percentage of *stx*, *stx1*, *stx2* and *rfbE*+ samples based on manure storage location.**

Target gene	Positives by Manure Storage Location (%)			
	Pile (n = 196)	Lagoon (n = 126)	Barn (n = 112)	Screened Solids (n = 84)
<i>stx</i>	6a*	11b	13b	8ab
<i>stx1</i>	4a	4a	5a	1a
<i>stx2</i>	4a	10a	9a	8a
<i>rfbE</i>	21a	27a	9b	8b

\*Samples with the same letter are not statistically significant across rows ( $P > 0.05$ ).

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0217445.t003>

There was a significant difference in *stx* presence based on solid-base sample depth ( $P = 0.027$ ), with *stx+* and *stx-* samples occurring at an average depth of 6.5 and 17.7 cm, respectively. There was no significant difference in *rfbE* presence based on solid-base sample depth ( $P = 0.37$ ). In lagoon samples, there was no significant difference in *stx* ( $P = 0.38$ ), or *rfbE* ( $P = 0.65$ ) presence based on lagoon sample depth.

### Manure storage locations and *stx* and *rfbE*+ samples

Manure storage locations were grouped into four categories—pile (n = 196), lagoon (n = 126), barn (n = 112) and screened solids (n = 84). There was a significant difference in *stx* and *rfbE* presence based on storage location. Pile samples (6%) had significantly lower *stx* presence versus lagoon (13%) and barn (11%) samples. Pile (21%) and lagoon (27%) samples were significantly higher in *rfbE* presence in comparison to barn (9%) and screened solid (8%) samples. No significant difference in *stx1* or *stx2* presence based on storage location was observed (Table 3).

Screened solid (25 surface, 59 subsurface) and pile (56 surface, 140 subsurface) storage locations were used to compare 81 surface (depth = 0 cm) and 199 subsurface (depth > 0 cm) samples. Lagoon (liquid manure storage basin) and barn samples (unmoved, unstacked manure) were not classified as surface or subsurface samples and are not included in this comparison. Of the 81 surface samples, five (6%) were *stx+* and 16 (20%) were *rfbE+*. Of the 199 subsurface samples, 13 (6.5%) were *stx+* and 37 (19%) were *rfbE+*. No significant differences were observed between surface and subsurface samples based on *stx*, *stx1*, *stx2*, or *rfbE* presence. Of the 518 total samples analyzed, 371 had information available on storage age. Samples were divided into age categories of 0–1 (n = 170) 2–5 (n = 53), 10–20 (n = 32) and >20 days old (n = 42). The highest *stx*, *stx1* and *stx2* percentages were seen at the 10–20 day storage age. The highest percentage for *rfbE* was seen at the 6–9 day storage age. While minor variations in significance were seen in *stx* and *stx2* percentages, no significant difference were noted for *stx1* or *rfbE* percentage based on storage age (Table 4).

**Table 4. Percentage of *stx*, *stx1*, *stx2* and *rfbE*+ samples based on storage age.**

Target gene	Positives by Storage Age (Days) (%)				
	0–1 (n = 170)	2–5 (n = 53)	6–9 (n = 74)	10–20 (n = 32)	over 20 (n = 42)
<i>stx</i>	10ab*	2ab	11ab	19a	0b
<i>stx1</i>	2a	0a	7a	9a	0a
<i>stx2</i>	9ab	2bc	10ab	16a	0c
<i>rfbE</i>	15a	15a	25a	13a	5a

\*Samples with the same letter are not statistically significant across rows ( $P > 0.05$ ).

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0217445.t004>



## Discussion

This study was performed to determine the prevalence and concentration of STEC in bovine manure in the Southeastern region of the US. There was at least one *stx+* sample detected at 11 out of the 12 (92%) farms evaluated. All 12 farms were *rfbE+* at least once during the two farm visits. Among positive farms, a prevalence rate of 9% (46/518) for *stx1/stx2* and 19% (97/518) for *E. coli* O157 was observed in bovine manure samples. Previous studies have observed a wide range of prevalence rates of STEC in bovine manure [29–38]. Factors such as high levels of pathogens per gram of feces, [38], persistent shedders [39], seasonality [29], and other factors may influence STEC prevalence and concentrations, although discerning the extent of these factors on an individual basis is difficult. The prevalence of *E. coli* O157 in feces is likely underestimated, especially if STEC concentrations are below the LOD [40] as the detection methods utilized have different levels of sensitivity and specificity [41].

Many manure surveys do not evaluate the concentration of STEC in manure samples, and studies that do quantify STEC are often limited by the low prevalence of positive samples that can be further evaluated. In this study, low MPN  $g^{-1}$  values [geometric mean of 3.37 MPN  $g^{-1}$  (0.53 log MPN  $g^{-1}$ ); (n = 20)] from STEC in bovine manure were observed. Omisakin et al. [40] surveyed an abattoir in the UK and found that 7.5% of cattle feces samples (n = 586) were positive for *E. coli* O157, and 27 of the 44 samples (61%) had an *E. coli* O157 concentration below the LOD (2 log CFU  $g^{-1}$ ), with 4 of 44 at a concentration above 4 log CFU  $g^{-1}$ . Fegan et al. [42] observed geometric means of 130 MPN  $g^{-1}$  and 13 of MPN  $g^{-1}$  of *E. coli* O157 in 12 grain-fed and 10 pasture-fed cattle feces samples in Australia, respectively. Fegan et al. [33] compared *E. coli* O157 levels between lot-fed and grass-fed cattle in Australia and observed that 67% of the total fecal samples contained below 10 MPN  $g^{-1}$ , with a maximum value of  $1.1 \times 10^5$  MPN  $g^{-1}$ . Hutchison et al. [43] found a prevalence rate of 13.2 and 9.1% *E. coli* O157 in fresh (n = 810) and stored (n = 429) bovine manure samples in the UK, respectively, and concentrations of  $2.9 \times 10^6$  and  $8.6 \times 10^3$  CFU  $g^{-1}$  for fresh (n = 107) and stored (n = 39) samples, respectively. Brichta-Harhay et al. [31] observed *E. coli* O157:H7 in feedlot cattle feces at a median of  $1.6 \times 10^3$  CFU  $g^{-1}$ . Matthews et al. [44] postulated that fewer cattle shedding high levels of STEC may be riskier than a large number of cattle shedding lower levels. As additional MPN  $g^{-1}$  data from other studies becomes available, more insights into STEC levels in bovine manure can help predict the risks of untreated BSAAO.

The two detection techniques used in this study were the mEHEC method for recovery of *stx+* samples, and the IMS-O157 method for *E. coli* O157 screening. Twenty-six additional samples were determined positive for *stx1* and/or *stx2* when *E. coli* O157+ samples were later evaluated for *stx*. The discrepancy seen between prevalence data from mEHEC and IMS-O157 methods could be due to several reasons. Immunomagnetic separation was used for the IMS-O157 method to recover cells from the non-selective TSB enrichment, which helped remove debris and other cells from the suspension prior to streaking beads for isolation, which was not implemented for the mEHEC method. For both methods, it was assumed that if STEC was present in the initial sample, it would remain viable and grow in the presence of other natural microflora. Additionally, it was assumed that only STEC grows in the mEHEC broth, though a high number of false presumptive positive isolates grew on CHROMagarSTEC throughout the present study. However, it is possible that STEC lost the lambdaoid-encoded *stx* gene(s) on their chromosome during the isolation process [45, 46].

Karch et al. [45] observed the loss of *stx* during the transfer of *stx+* colonies to both broth and agar media, regardless of the agar type used for transfer. Among the 45 isolates with *Stx+* titers and confirmation of *stx+* DNA prior to subcultivation, 15 were negative for cytotoxicity and *stx* following cultivation [45]. Similarly, Joris et al. [47] evaluated 40 *stx+* fecal samples

for *stx* integrity and observed that 12 of the 40 isolates exhibited a loss of either *stx1* or *stx2* following a single subcultivation step. The loss of *stx* during the isolation process may result in lower prevalence level estimates for STEC and should be considered. Of the 97 *E. coli* O157+ samples in this study, 68 (70%) were negative for *stx1* and *stx2*. Wetzel and LeJeune [46] observed 17 of 81 (21%) *stx*- *E. coli* O157:H7 isolates from bovine manure samples. Isolates that were *rfbE*+/*stx*- could be due to *stx* loss in the environment or during the culturing process.

Samples positive for *stx2* are an important risk factor due to their association with more severe human illness versus with *stx1* [48]. Stx2 toxin has been shown to be 1,000 times more potent than Stx1 against human renal microvascular endothelial cells [49], and are more likely to result in HUS [50]. Samples negative for *stx1* or *stx2* were further evaluated for *eae* presence which revealed several *stx*-/*eae*+ samples. Not all samples had presumptive positive colonies on each agar type, therefore not all samples could be evaluated for *eae* presence. Jay-Russell et al. [51] obtained 278 isolates from dog and coyote feces collected near the Southwestern US/Mexico border as presumptive O26, O103, O145, O157, all of which were negative for *stx1* and *stx2*. Upon further analysis, 18 isolates were identified as atypical enteropathogenic *E. coli* (aEPEC) that were *stx1*-/*stx2*-/*eae*A+ [51]. A high number of aEPEC strains may lead to false positives and are still a risk factor with the potential to obtain *stx* genes [52].

Researchers implement different protocols for sample collection, preparation, isolation, and detection assays to determine STEC prevalence in manure [53]. Previous research has shown that utilizing more than one media type can improve the recovery rate of STEC [31, 54]. The genetic mechanisms that lead to certain phenotypes on selective agar is not yet elucidated, and it is well recognized that the phenotype of STEC colonies varies greatly among different types of selective agar. Cooley et al. [31] found that only 9.3% (56/599) of non-O157 STEC+ samples were identified as positive on all three agar media types evaluated (Rainbow Agar O157, CHROMagar O157, and modified sheep blood agar). The thorough sampling scheme performed by Cooley et al. [31] exemplifies the need for multiple media types to more accurately isolate and identify STEC in environmental samples. In the present study, CHROMagar was utilized for recovery of STEC following enrichment in mEHEC broth, and numerous presumptive positive colonies were not positive for *stx1* or *stx2*.

Several researchers have reported that 81.6 to 90% of the STEC isolates evaluated in their analysis could be identified on CHROMagar STEC in pure culture [55–57], which may be lower for environmental samples due to inhibition by background microbiota. For example, inoculation studies revealed the efficacy of CHROMagar STEC for recovery ranged from 30 to 98% depending on the stool type and isolate [58]. Considering the previous evaluations of CHROMagar STEC, modifications and/or alternatives to all media used for environmental sampling may be necessary to further optimize manure sampling protocols.

The sample temperature and depth were recorded for each sample collected in this study. There was a significant difference in *rfbE* presence based on solid-base sample temperatures as well as lagoon sample temperatures, but no significant difference in *stx* presence based on sub-surface or lagoon sample temperatures. It should be noted that although significant, a minor difference in temperature in lagoon samples based on *rfbE* presence. There was a significance in *stx* presence based on sample depth for solid-base samples. Additional data is needed to determine how storage methods can influence STEC survival. Significant differences in both *stx* and *rfbE* presence were observed based on manure storage method. Farm practices can vary widely among collection sites, which makes it even more difficult to generalize and determine a baseline prevalence in bovine manure due to differences in manure storage, treatment, and time of manure sitting undisturbed. Statistical analysis was not performed on equipment cleaning practices, as only four of 12 farmers provided information on the frequency of

cleaning manure-handling equipment. Of these four farms, two cleaned equipment daily, one cleaned equipment weekly, and one cleaned equipment bi-monthly. None of the farms visited had a means of manure pile protection from birds, rodents or other pests. Equipment cleaning and segregation is an important step to limit cross contamination on the farm between the manure storage/treatment areas and the rest of the farm [59], especially if grown in close proximity to produce farms or if equipment is used near the time of harvest.

Foodborne outbreaks continue to be problematic for growers, processors, and consumers in the produce industry [2]. This research provides data on STEC prevalence and concentration in bovine manure collected from farms in Florida. Conclusions based on prevalence of *stx* and *rfbE* in bovine manure samples should also consider the available selective media that was used in an attempt to recover STEC from these environmental samples as well as the potential for *stx* loss during the isolation process. Additional data from different geographical regions will help determine STEC levels in bovine manure across the US. Ultimately, this data will be used to determine the risk associated with the application of untreated BSAAO in the PSR. In addition to following future regulations on harvest intervals, growers should be aware of the handling practices and manure management strategies and adjust harvest intervals as necessary to limit contamination of produce from untreated BSAAO.

## Supporting information

**S1 File. S1\_Bovine manure data stx\_rfbE.**  
(XLSX)

## Acknowledgments

The authors thank Ploy Kurdmongkoltham, Chris Pabst, and Karla Sanchez (University of Florida), and Peiman Aminabadi (Western Center for Food Safety) for technical assistance, James Colee (University of Florida) for helping with the statistical analyses, and Colleen Larson and Dr. Mary Sowerby (University of Florida) for their assistance with farm identification and sample collection. We also thank Drs. Yuhuan Chen, David Oryang, David Ingram, and Jane Van Doren from FDA's Center for Food Safety and Applied Nutrition for assistance with study design. This manuscript's contents are solely the responsibility of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official views of the FDA. This research was conducted as part of a larger study performed in cooperation with the University of California, Davis, University of Arizona, University of Delaware, and the University of Florida. This project was funded by Western Center for Food Safety contract U19-FD004995 from the United States Food and Drug Administration (FDA).

## Author Contributions

**Formal analysis:** Christopher A. Baker.

**Funding acquisition:** Michele Jay-Russell, Michelle D. Danyluk, Keith R. Schneider.

**Investigation:** Christopher A. Baker, Jaysankar De, Bruna Bertoldi, Laurel Dunn, Travis Chapin.

**Methodology:** Jaysankar De.

**Project administration:** Keith R. Schneider.

**Supervision:** Jaysankar De.

**Writing – original draft:** Christopher A. Baker.

**Writing – review & editing:** Christopher A. Baker, Jaysankar De, Michele Jay-Russell, Michelle D. Danyluk, Keith R. Schneider.

## References

1. Scallan E, Hoekstra RM, Angulo FJ, Tauxe RV, Widdowson MA, Roy SL, et al. Foodborne illness acquired in the United States—Major pathogens. *Emerg Infect Dis*. 2011; 17: 7–15. PMID: [21192848](#)
2. Dewey-Mattia D, Manikonda K, Hall AJ, Wise ME, Crowe SJ. Surveillance for foodborne disease outbreaks—United States, 2009–2015. *MMR CDC Surveill Summ*. 2018; 67: 1–11.
3. Callejón RM, Rodríguez-Naranjo MI, Ubeda C, Hornedo-Ortega R, García-Parilla MC, Troncoso AM. Reported foodborne outbreaks due to fresh produce in the United States and European Union: Trends and causes. *Foodborne Pathog Dis*. 2015; 12: 32–38. <https://doi.org/10.1089/fpd.2014.1821> PMID: [25587926](#)
4. Li M, Baker CA, Danyluk MD, Belanger PB, Boelaert F, Cressey P, et al. Identification of biological hazards in produce consumed in industrialized countries: A review. *J Food Prot*. 2018; 81: 1171–1186. <https://doi.org/10.4315/0362-028X.JFP-17-465> PMID: [29939791](#)
5. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Multistate outbreak of *E. coli* O157:H7 infections linked to fresh spinach (FINAL UPDATE). 6 October 2006. Available from: <https://www.cdc.gov/ecoli/2006/spinach-10-2006.html> Cited 18 March 2019.
6. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Multistate outbreak of *E. coli* O157:H7 infections linked to romaine lettuce (FINAL UPDATE). 28 June 2018. Available from: <https://www.cdc.gov/ecoli/2018/o157h7-04-18/index.html> Cited 18 March 2019.
7. Larney F.J., Angers D.A. The role of organic amendments in soil reclamation: A review. *Can J Soil Sci*. 2012; 92: 19–38.
8. Himathongkham S, Bahari S, Riemann H, Cliver D. Survival of *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 and *Salmonella typhimurium* in cow manure and cow manure slurry. *FEMS Microbiol Lett*. 1999; 178: 251–257. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-6968.1999.tb08684.x> PMID: [10499275](#)
9. Sharma M., Reynnells R. Importance of soil amendments: survival of bacterial pathogens in manure and compost used as organic fertilizers. *Microbiol Spect*. 2015; 4(4): PFS-0010-2015.
10. US Food and Drug Administration (FDA). Raw manure under the FSMA final rule on produce safety. 2016. Available from: <https://www.fda.gov/food/guidanceregulation/fsma/ucm482426.htm> Cited 18 March 2019.
11. US Food and Drug Administration (FDA). Standards for the growing, harvesting, packing, and holding of produce for human consumption. 27 November 2015. Available from: <https://www.federalregister.gov/documents/2015/11/27/2015-28159/standards-for-the-growing-harvesting-packing-and-holding-of-produce-for-human-consumption> Cited 18 March 2019.
12. US Food and Drug Administration (FDA). Standards for the growing, harvesting, packing, and holding of produce for human consumption. 21 CFR part 112. *Fed. Regist*. 1 April 2018. Available from: <https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/scripts/cdrh/cfdocs/cfCFR/CFRSearch.cfm?CFRPart=112&showFR=1> Cited 18 March 2019.
13. Robinson SE, Wright EJ, Williams NJ, Hart CA, French NP. Development and application of a spiral plating method for the enumeration of *Escherichia coli* O157 in bovine faeces. *J Appl Microbiol*. 2004; 97: 581–589. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2672.2004.02339.x> PMID: [15281939](#)
14. Parsons BD, Zeylas N, Berenger BM, Chui L. Detection, characterization, and typing of Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli*. *Front Microbiol*. 2016; 7: 478. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2016.00478> PMID: [27148176](#)
15. Noll LW, Shridhar PB, Shi X, An B, Cernicchiaro N, Renter DG, et al. A four-plex real-time PCR assay, based on *rfbE*, *stx1*, *stx2*, and *eae* genes, for the detection and quantification of Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* O157 in cattle feces. *Foodborne Pathog Dis*. 2015; 12: 787–795. <https://doi.org/10.1089/fpd.2015.1951> PMID: [26317538](#)
16. Desmarchelier PM, Bilge SS, Fegan N, Mills L, Vary JC Jr., Tarr PI. A PCR specific for *Escherichia coli* O157 based on the *rfb* locus encoding O157 lipopolysaccharide. *J Clin Microbiol*. 1998; 36: 1801–1804. PMID: [9620428](#)
17. Gyles CL. Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli*: An overview. *J Anim Sci*. 2007; 85: E45–E62. <https://doi.org/10.2527/jas.2006-508> PMID: [17085726](#)
18. Karmali MA. Emerging public health challenges of Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* related to changes in the pathogen, the population, and the environment. *Clinic Infect Dis*. 2017; 64(3): 371–376.

19. Preußel K, Höhle M, Stark K, Werber D. Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* O157 is more likely to lead to hospitalization and death than Non- O157 serogroups—except O104. *PLoS One* 2013; 8(11): e78180. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0078180> PMID: 24244292
20. Rangel JE, Sparling PH, Crowe C, Griffin PM, Swerdlow DL. Epidemiology of *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 outbreaks, United States, 1982–2002. *Emerg Infect Dis*. 2005; 11: 603–609. <https://doi.org/10.3201/eid1104.040739> PMID: 15829201
21. Besser TE, Schmidt CE, Shah DH, Shringi S. “Preharvest” food safety for *Escherichia coli* O157 and other pathogenic Shiga toxin-producing strains. *Microbiol Spect*. 2014; 2(5): EHEC-0021-2013.
22. Mir RA, Weppelmann TA, Kang M, Bliss TM, DiLorenzo N, Lamb GC, et al. Association between animal age and the prevalence of Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* in a cohort of beef cattle. *Vet Microbiol*. 2015; 175: 325–331. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vetmic.2014.12.016> PMID: 25561429
23. Aminabadi P, Ramos T, Gartley S, Wei X, Zwieniecka A, Kniel K, et al. Interlaboratory validation of a streamlined method for the enumeration of *Salmonella* and Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* in cattle and poultry manure samples, (Abstract P2-183) Annual Internatl Assoc Food Protect Meeting 2018, Salt Lake City, UT, July 8–11.
24. Gutiérrez-Rodríguez E, Gundersen A, Sbodio A, Koike S, Suslow TV. Evaluation of post-contamination survival and persistence of applied attenuated *E. coli* O157:H7 and naturally-contaminating *E. coli* O157:H7 on spinach under field conditions and following postharvest handling. *Food Microbiol*. 2019; 77: 173–184. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fm.2018.08.013> PMID: 30297048
25. Cooley MB, Jay-Russell M, Atwill ER, Carychao D, Nguyen K, Quiñones B, et al. Development of a robust method for isolation of Shiga toxin-positive *Escherichia coli* (STEC) from fecal, plant, soil and water samples from a leafy greens production region in California. *PLoS One* 2013; 8: e65716. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0065716> PMID: 23762414
26. Atwill ER, Chase JA, Oryang D, Bond RF, Koike ST, Cahn MD, et al. Transfer of *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 from simulated wildlife scat onto romaine lettuce during foliar irrigation. *J Food Prot* 2015; 78(2): 240–247. <https://doi.org/10.4315/0362-028X.JFP-14-277> PMID: 25710137
27. US Food and Drug Administration (FDA). Bacteriological analytical manual Chapter 4A diarrheagenic *Escherichia coli*. 2017. Available from: <https://www.fda.gov/Food/FoodScienceResearch/LaboratoryMethods/ucm070080.htm> Cited 18 March 2019.
28. Jacob ME, Shi X, An B, Nagaraja TG, Bai J. Evaluation of a multiplex real-time polymerase chain reaction for the quantification of *Escherichia coli* O157 in cattle feces. *Foodborne Pathog Dis*. 2012; 9: 79–85. <https://doi.org/10.1089/fpd.2011.0947> PMID: 22047056
29. Barkocy-Gallagher GA, Arthur TM, Rivera-Betancourt M, Nou X, Shackelford SD, Wheeler TL, et al. Seasonal prevalence of Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli*, including O157:H7 and non-O157 serotypes, and *Salmonella* in commercial beef processing plants. *J Food Prot*. 2003; 66: 1978–1986. PMID: 14627272
30. Benjamin LA, Jay-Russell MT, Atwill ER, Cooley MB, Carychao D, Larsen RE, et al. Risk factors for *Escherichia coli* O157 on beef cattle ranches located near a major produce production region. *Epidemiol Infect*. 2015; 143(1): 81–93. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0950268814000521> PMID: 24650854
31. Brichta-Harhay DM, Arthur TM, Bosilevac JM, Guerini MN, Kalchayanand N, Koohmaraie M. Enumeration of *Salmonella* and *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 in ground beef, cattle carcass, hide and faecal samples using direct plating methods. *J Appl Microbiol*. 2007; 103: 1657–1668. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2672.2007.03405.x> PMID: 17953577
32. Elder RO, Keen JE, Siragusa GR, Barkocy-Gallagher GA, Koohmaraie M, Laegreid WW. Correlation of enterohemorrhagic *Escherichia coli* O157 prevalence in feces, hides, and carcasses of beef cattle during processing. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2000; 97: 2999–3003. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.060024897> PMID: 10725380
33. Fegan N, Vanderlinde P, Higgs G, Desmarchelier P. The prevalence and concentration of *Escherichia coli* O157 in faeces of cattle from different production systems at slaughter. *J Appl Microbiol*. 2004; 97: 362–370. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2672.2004.02300.x> PMID: 15239703
34. Fox JT, Renter DG, Sanderson MW, Nutsch AL, Shi X, Nagaraja TG. Associations between the presence and magnitude of *Escherichia coli* O157 in feces at harvest and contamination of preintervention beef carcasses. *J Food Prot*. 2008; 71: 1761–1767. PMID: 18810859
35. Omisakin F, MacRae M, Ogden ID, Strachan NJC. Concentration and prevalence of *Escherichia coli* O157 in cattle feces at slaughter. *Appl Environ Microbiol*. 2003; 69: 2444–2447. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.69.5.2444-2447.2003> PMID: 12732509
36. Sargeant JM, Gillespie JR, Oberst RD, Phebus RK, Hyatt DR, Bohra LK, et al. Results of a longitudinal study of the prevalence of *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 on cow-calf farms. *Am J Vet Res*. 2000; 61: 1375–1379. PMID: 11108182

37. Zhao T, Doyle MP, Shere JA, Garber L. Prevalence of enterohemorrhagic *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 in a survey of dairy herds. *Appl Environ Microbiol.* 1995; 61: 1290–1293. PMID: [7747951](#)
38. Arthur TM, Brichta-Harhay DM, Bosilevac JM, Kalchayanand N, Shackelford SD, Wheeler TL. Super shedding of *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 by cattle and the impact on beef carcass contamination. *Meat Sci.* 2010; 86: 32–37. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.meatsci.2010.04.019> PMID: [20627603](#)
39. Naylor SW, Low JC, Besser TE, Mahajan A, Gunn GJ, Pearce MC, et al. Lymphoid follicle-dense mucosa at the terminal rectum is the principle site of colonization of enterohemorrhagic *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 in the bovine host. *Infect Immun.* 2003; 71: 1505–1512. <https://doi.org/10.1128/IAI.71.3.1505-1512.2003> PMID: [12595469](#)
40. LeJeune JT, Hancock DD, Besser TE. Sensitivity of *Escherichia coli* O157 detection in bovine feces assessed by broth enrichment followed by immunomagnetic separation and direct plating methodologies. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2006; 44: 872–875. <https://doi.org/10.1128/JCM.44.3.872-875.2006> PMID: [16517869](#)
41. Fox JT, Renter DG, Sanderson MW, Thomson DU, Lechtenberg KF, Nagaraja TG. Evaluation of culture methods to identify bovine feces with high concentrations of *Escherichia coli* O157. *Appl Environ Microbiol.* 2007; 73: 5253–5260. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.00554-07> PMID: [17574994](#)
42. Fegan N, Higgs G, Vanderlinde P, Desmarchelier P. Enumeration of *Escherichia coli* O157 in cattle faeces using most probable number technique and automated immunomagnetic separation. *Lett Appl Microbiol.* 2003; 38: 56–59.
43. Hutchinson ML, Walters LD, Avery SM, Synge SM, Moore A. Levels of zoonotic agents in British livestock manures. *Lett Appl Microbiol.* 2004; 39: 207–214. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1472-765X.2004.01564.x> PMID: [15242463](#)
44. Matthews LI, McKendrick J, Ternent H, Gunn GJ, Synge B, Woolhouse MEJ. Super-shedding cattle and the transmission dynamics of *Escherichia coli* O157. *Epidemiol Infect.* 2006; 134: 131–142. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0950268805004590> PMID: [16409660](#)
45. Karch H, Meyer T, Rüssmann H, Heesemann J. Frequent loss of Shiga-like toxin genes in clinical isolates of *Escherichia coli* upon subcultivation. *Infect Immun.* 1992; 60: 3464–3467. PMID: [1639518](#)
46. Joris M-A, Verstraete K, De Reu K, Zutter LD. Loss of *vtx* genes after the first subcultivation step of verocytotoxigenic *Escherichia coli* O157 and non-O157 during isolation from naturally contaminated fecal samples. *Toxins (Basel)* 2011; 3: 672–677.
47. Wetzel AN, LeJeune JT. Isolation of *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 strains that do not produce Shiga toxin from bovine, avian and environmental sources. *Lett Appl Microbiol.* 2007; 45: 504–507. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1472-765X.2007.02228.x> PMID: [17908226](#)
48. Boerlin P, McEwen SA, Boerlin-Petzold F, Wilson JB, Johnson RP, Gyles CL. Associations between virulence factors of Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* and disease in humans. *J Clin Microbiol.* 1999; 37: 497–503. PMID: [9986802](#)
49. Louise CB, Obrig TG. Specific interaction of *Escherichia coli* O157:H7–derived Shiga-like toxin II with human renal endothelial cells. *J Infect Dis.* 1995; 172: 1397–1401. <https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/172.5.1397> PMID: [7594687](#)
50. Siegler RL, Obrig TG, Pysker TJ, Tesh VL, Denkers ND, Taylor FB. Response to Shiga toxin 1 and 2 in a baboon model of hemolytic uremic syndrome. *Pediatr Nephrol.* 2003; 18: 92–96. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00467-002-1035-7> PMID: [12579394](#)
51. Jay-Russell MT, Hake AF, Bengson Y, Thiptara A, Nguyen T. Prevalence and characterization of *Escherichia coli* and *Salmonella* strains isolated from stray dog and coyote feces in a major leafy greens production region at the United States-Mexico border. *PLoS One* 2014; 9: e113433. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0113433> PMID: [25412333](#)
52. Bielaszewska M, Prager R, Köck R, Mellmann A, Zhang W, Tschäpe H, et al. Shiga toxin gene loss and transfer in vitro and in vivo during enterohemorrhagic *Escherichia coli* O26 infection in humans. *Appl Environ Microbiol.* 2007; 73: 3144–3150. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.02937-06> PMID: [17400784](#)
53. Franz E, Klerks MM, De Vos OJ, Termorshuizen AJ, van Bruggen AHC. Prevalence of Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* *stx*<sub>1</sub>, *stx*<sub>2</sub>, *eaeA*, and *rfbE* genes and survival of *E. coli* O157:H7 in manure from organic and low-input conventional dairy farms. *Appl Environ Microbiol.* 2007; 73: 2180–2190. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.01950-06> PMID: [17277204](#)
54. Wallace JS, Jones K. The use of selective and differential agars in the isolation of *Escherichia coli* O157 from dairy herds. *J Appl Bacteriol.* 1996; 81: 663–668. PMID: [8972093](#)
55. Hirvonen JJ, Siitonen A, Kaukoranta S-S. Usability and performance of CHROMagar STEC medium in detection of Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* strains. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2012; 50: 3586–3590. <https://doi.org/10.1128/JCM.01754-12> PMID: [22933601](#)

56. Tzschoppe M, Martin A, Beutin L. A rapid procedure for the detection and isolation of enterohaemorrhagic *Escherichia coli* (EHEC) serogroup O26, O103, O111, O118, O121, O145 and O157 strains and the aggregative EHEC O104:H4 strain from ready-to-eat vegetables. *Int J Food Microbiol.* 2012; 152: 19–30. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2011.10.009> PMID: 22071287
57. Wylie JL, Van Caeselele P, Gilmour MW, Sitter D, Guttek C, Giercke S. Evaluation of a new chromogenic agar medium for detection of Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* (STEC) and relative prevalences of O157 and non-O157 STEC in Manitoba, Canada. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2013; 5: 466–471.
58. Zeylas N, Poon A, Patterson-Fortin L, Johnson RP, Lee W, Chui L. Assessment of commercial chromogenic solid media for the detection of non-O157 Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* (STEC). *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis.* 2016; 85: 302–308. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.diagmicrobio.2016.03.013> PMID: 27157987
59. US Food and Drug Administration (FDA). Draft guidance for industry: guide to minimize microbial food safety hazards of leafy greens. July 2009. Available from: <https://www.fda.gov/food/guidanceregulation/ucm174200.htm> Cited 18 March 2019.