Review Article



Iran J Public Health, Vol. 52, No. 12, Dec 2023, pp.2516-2527

Prevalence and Antibiotic Resistance of Clostridioides (*Clostridium difficile*) In Meat and Meat Products: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis

Zahra Esfandiari¹, Parisa Shoaei², Bahareh Vakili³, Ziba Farajzadegan⁴, Mohammad Javad Tarrahi⁵, Zahra Emami⁶, *Yadolah Fakhri⁷, J. Scott Weese⁸, Trias Mahmudiono⁹

1. Nutrition and Food Security Research Center, Department of Food Science and Technology, School of Nutrition and Food Science, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan, Iran

2. Nosocomial Infection Research Center, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan, Iran

3. Infectious Diseases and Tropical Medicine Research Center, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan, Iran

4. Community and Preventive Medicine Department, School of Medicine, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan, Iran

5. Epidemiology Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, School of Health, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan, Iran

6. Department of Food Science and Technology, College of Agriculture, Isfahan University of Technology, Isfahan, Iran

7. Food Health Research Center, Hormozgan University of Medical Sciences, Bandar Abbas, Iran

8. Department of Pathobiology, Ontario Veterinary College, University of Guelph, Guelph, Ontario, Canada

9. Department of Nutrition, Faculty of Public Health, Universitas Airlangga, Surabaya, Indonesia

*Corresponding Author: Email: Ya.fakhri@gmail.com

(Received 21 Apr 2023; accepted 19 Jun 2023)

Abstract

Background: Meat and meat products are introduced as one of the frequent sources of *Clostridioides difficile*. We aimed to determine the prevalence and antibiotic resistance of *C. difficile* isolates in meat and meat products using a systematic review and meta-analysis.

Methods: A literature search was performed in the primary international and bibliographic databases such as MEDLINE (PubMed), Cochrane Library, Embase, Scopus, and Web of Science to achieve all articles related to the prevalence and antibiotic resistance rates from 2007 to 2022.

Results: The 278 retrieved articles were reduced to 54 worldwide eligible studies after screening and matching inclusion/ exclusion criteria. *C. difficile* was examined in different types of samples and its resistance to 10 antibiotics. The pooled prevalence of *C. difficile* was 3.4% in all samples. *C. difficile* pooled prevalence was detected in fish, poultry, and red meat groups with 6.9%, 5.2%, and 3.2%, respectively. Regarding antibiotic resistance, the highest pooled prevalence was for ciprofloxacin (86.6%), followed by clindamycin (42.6%) and erythromycin (34%). The lowest pooled prevalence was observed in metronidazole (7.6%), vancomycin (6.6%), and chloramphenicol (6%).

Conclusion: Low resistance was found to commonly used drugs for *C. difficile* infection (CDI) treatment. Since each antibiotic can be predisposing cause for CDI development, this finding possibly will be warning from a One Health viewpoint about the misuse of antibiotics in the chain of farm to fork including agriculture, animal husbandry and the food industry and also their injudicious use in medicine.

Keywords: Clostridioides difficile; Meat; Antibiotic resistance; Systematic review; Meta-analysis



Copyright © 2023 Esfandiari et al. Published by Tehran University of Medical Sciences.

This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0 International license.

(https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/). Non-commercial uses of the work are permitted, provided the original work is properly cited

Introduction

Clostridium difficile was first identified in a study of gut microbiota of babies about 88 years ago (1). This bacterium is a clinically significant Gram-positive, toxin-producing, spore-forming, anaerobic bacillus with a relatively large size (about 3-5 μ m in length) (2). *C. difficile* is slow-growing compared to other bacteria. Its name comes from its characteristics and stability, making its isolation difficult in the laboratory. In a recent reclassification, it was named *Clostridioides difficile* (2).

The most critical virulent factors of this bacterium are two strong toxins, namely toxin A and B, with glucosyltransferase properties. Both toxins cause mucosal damage and neutrophil infiltration into the large bowel lumen. Through a monoglycosylated reaction, these toxins destroy intercellular junctions in the human body and cause diarrhea and C. difficile infection (CDI) (3). Another toxin, known as binary toxin, is secreted by C. difficile, with a stronger ability to cause CDI. This toxin generally leads to actin depolymerization in the structural part of the cell and allows the bacterium to adhere and colonize. The binary toxin (ADP ribosyl transferase) consists of two proteins encoded by *cdtA* (catalytic subunit) and *cdtB* (binding subunit) genes (4). So far, toxin A, and B have been isolated from newly found strains of C. difficile; besides, these genes are associated with a more severe infection. Overall, the binary toxin plays a vital role in the morphological changes of intestinal epithelial cells, leading to increased bacterial adhesion to the intestine (5).

The literature has proposed the infection and transmission of *C. difficile* among animals, humans, and the environment through secondary and cross-secondary contamination (5). In addition, various studies have found this bacterium in food (4, 6). Consequently, concerns have been raised regarding the epidemiology of CDI in the community due to possible transmission to humans from sources other than hospitals (5). Intensified CDI in the community can be due to the appearance of therapeutic strains with the same molecular structure in different sources, such as food products of

animal origin (6). Accordingly, some studies have hypothesized that *C. difficile* is zoonotic or foodborne (5).

The resistance of microorganisms to antibiotics is a primary global concern and a health threat to the WHO (7). Epidemiological studies indicate the high prevalence of *C. difficile* resistance to common antibiotics. Almost all antibiotics can cause CDI (5, 8). Common antibiotics, such as lincomycin and clindamycin, can cause diarrhea in approximately 10% of patients and pseudomembranous colitis in 1% (9).

The characteristics of *C. difficile* in meat and its products have been widely studied worldwide, but the results remain inconsistent (6). Such information is crucial for risk assessment and improving the evidence of *C. difficile* as a cause of infection in the community through meat consumption. Accordingly, the current systematic review and metaanalysis study summarizes the epidemiological characteristics of *C. difficile* isolated from meat and meat products, including its prevalence and antibiotic resistance rate.

Methods

Search Strategy

The inclusion criteria of studies were outlined according to PRISMA guidelines (Fig. 1) (10). We performed a literature search in the primary international and bibliographic databases, including MEDLINE (PubMed), Cochrane Library, Embase, Scopus, and Web of Science to achieve all articles reporting the prevalence and antibiotic resistance rates with no time restriction. The keywords were "food" OR "meat" OR "meat products" AND "prevalence" OR "occurrence" OR "incidence" AND "*Clostridium difficile*" OR "*Clostridioides difficile*" OR "toxigenic" OR "antibiotic resistance". These terms were searched in articles' titles, abstracts, or keywords.



Fig. 1: PRISMA flow chart detailing review process

The articles found during the initial search were downloaded, followed by forward citation tracking in Scopus to retrieve additional papers. The articles were merged, and duplicates were deleted. The articles were primarily screened by abstract and title to remove irrelevant studies. We included full-text studies (in-press or published) and review papers and excluded conference proceedings and chapter books. The potentially eligible data of the selected articles were retrieved and classified based on C. difficile prevalence in meat and meat products (fish, poultry, and red meat). The studies included in the current paper were meant to report the antibiotic resistance or prevalence rates of C. difficile in meat and meat products at the slaughterhouse or retail stage.

Inclusion/exclusion criteria

The inclusion criteria included 1) full-text English articles, 2) observational studies (cross-sectional or descriptive), 3) reporting laboratory confirmation, 4) providing data on positive and total sample sizes, 5) presenting the toxigenic isolates of *C. difficile*, and 6) antibiotic resistance of positive isolates.

The exclusion criteria were 1) studies on the prevalence of *C. difficile* in meat and meat products without reporting the prevalence rate or antibiotic type and the frequency rate of resistance or susceptibility, 2) studies on development and improvement of methods for detecting *C. difficile* and antibiotic resistance, 3) restrictions applied in the selection of studies in terms of report for the type of antibiotics in less than 3 articles 4) the studies showing multidrug resistance isolates and 5) nonoriginal studies such as different kinds of reviews. No restriction was applied in the selection of resistance definition breakpoints (EUCAST or CLSI) due to variation in these criteria.

Data extraction

The required data included was shown in Table 1 from 2007 to 2022. The prevalence rate in meat and meat products was based on culture and phenotypic tests (cycloserine cefotaxime fructose/mannitol taurocholate/lysozyme agar, C. difficile moxalactam norfloxacin broth, and Columbia agar) and toxin analysis (Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) or Remel Xpect CD toxin A/B test or ELFA-VIDAS-CDAB Kit or Vero tissue culture or MLVA). Several methods were used to determine the antimicrobial resistance, which can be performed by the standard disc diffusion test or by determining the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) [The e-test, agar dilution, broth microdilution, and evaluator strips]. The frequency of antibiotic resistance was defined as resistance to one drug in antimicrobial classes. The search and screening were performed by three reviewers (Z. E, P. S, and B. V). Any dissimilarities or discrepancies were resolved by consultation with a fourth investigator (Z. F, M.J.T, Z.E, J.S.W, Y.F, and T.M). The researchers made communications if data were unavailable or unclear in an article.

Quality Assessment of articles

The articles' quality was assessed by a checklist prepared by the Joanna Briggs Institute (JBI) (11). It assesses different methodological structures of studies, such as the study population's representativeness, statistical analysis, and study setting (Data not shown).

Statistical analysis

Fixed and random-effects models were done to determine the pooled prevalence of *C. difficile* in various meat and meat products, considering a 95% Confidence Interval (CI). The effect size measure was considered as the prevalence rate. The forest plots showed the distribution of the individual effect sizes and pooled effect sizes. Dif-

ferences in the trial-level prevalence ratios were assessed using Q-statistics following a Chi-square distribution with a (k-1) degree of freedom. The proportion of the total variation explained by heterogeneity, rather than sampling error, was calculated with I² (inverse variance index). The I² values smaller than 25% were regarded as low heterogeneity, 25-50% moderate heterogeneity, and more than 50% high heterogeneity (12). The random-effects model was considered valid after obtaining substantial heterogeneity based on Q-statistics and I² values; otherwise, we employed the fixed-effects model.

Funnel plots evaluated publication bias. Asymmetrical scattering of effect sizes related to articles and standard errors were considered the signs of publication bias (13). Funnel plots were reported when more than three articles were included in the metaanalysis. The analyses were performed by Comprehensive Meta-Analysis (Biostat, Englewood, NJ, USA). P < 0.05 and funnel plot asymmetry suggested significant publication biases in the metaanalysis.

Results

Data on the prevalence rates were gathered from the studies using molecular and cultural methods. When both methodologies were used, the overall prevalence rate was collected and applied for the meta-analysis in each product, including red and white meat, such as fish, poultry, and red meat. Table 1 indicates the full results of the included papers. Different types of meat samples and 10 out of 38 antibiotics were considered for the metaanalysis. Most studies (n=23) were performed in Asia, whereas the others were performed in the USA (n=17), Europe (n=12), and Africa (n=2). The prevalence of C. difficile was assessed in all meat samples from 54 studies (Fig. 2), and the pooled prevalence was 3.4% (0.034; 95% CI: 0.024-0.048). A significant heterogeneity was detected among studies ($I^2 = 91.83\%$; tau² = 1.301; P value < 0.001).

Reference	Food Groups	Country	Sample Size	Positive samples in culture	Positive Toxigenic samples		
(23)	Fish	Cambodia	25	4	3		
(24)	Red Meat	Saudi Arabia	100	4	4		
(25)	Red Meat	Italy	216	2	1		
(26)	Poultry	Saudi Arabia	250	11	ND^{1}		
(6)	Poultry	Germany	364	51	43		
(27)	Poultry and Red	Brazil	192	17	0 2		
(28)	Fish	Iran	184	11	11		
(29)	Poultry and Red	Japan	468	10	3		
(30)	Red Meat	Turkey	319	22	22		
(31)	Poultry	Turkey	185	69	59		
(32)	Fish	Italy	702	113	75		
(33)	Poultry	Iran	30	2	ND		
(34)	Fish	Iran	820	26	26		
(35)	Poultry	Egypt	150	ND	ND		
(36)	Red Meat	Korea	415	45	2		
(37)	Poultry and Red	Turkey	101	2	ND		
(38)	Red Meat	Saudi Arabia	600	9	9		
(39)	Red Meat	Brazil	80	ND	ND		
(40)	Red Meat	Turkey	100	5	3		
(41)	Red Meat	Iran	100	30	9		
(42)	Poultry	Iran	65	10	8		
(43)	Poultry and Red	Pennsylvania	300	2	ND		
(21)	Fish	Italy	925	36	19		
(44)	Red Meat	Iran	570	6	5		
(45)	Poultry	Turkey	310	25	13		
(46)	Red Meat	Iran	300	79	17		
(4)	Red Meat	Iran	110	7	7		
(47)	Red Meat	Iran	200	8	8		
(48)	Red Meat	Belgium	240	8	7		
(49)	Red Meat	Iran	660	13	12		
(50)	Red Meat	Cote d ^ 'Ivoire	395	49	Not Examined		
(51)	Poultry and Red	Pennsylvania	303	31	25		
(52)	fish	Texas	67	3	0		
(52)	Poultry and Red	Costa Rica	200	4	4		
(54)	Red Meat	USA	200 956	4 0	4 0		
		Iran	120	19	Not Examined		
(55)	Poultry		240	25	Not Examined		
(56)	Poultry Ded Mast	Iran USA		13			
(57)	Red Meat	USA	102 1755	0	13 Not Examined		
(58)	Poultry and Red						
(59)	Red Meat	Manitoba, Can-	48	3	3		
(60)	Red Meat	Pennsylvania	50	4	3		
(61)	fish	Italy	53	26	15		
(62)	fish	Italy	6	4	2		
(63)	tish	Canada	119	5	4		
(64)	Poultry and Red	Netherlands	500	8	5		
(65)	Red Meat	Canada	393	7	6		
(66)	Red Meat	Switzerland	46	0	ND		
(67)	Red Meat	France	176	2	2		
(68)	Poultry	Canada	203	26	26		
(69)	Red Meat	Canada	230	28	28		
(70)	Poultry and Red	Austria	84	0	0		
(71)	Poultry and Red	USA	88	37	37		
(72)	Poultry and Red	Sweden	82	2	2		
(73)	Red Meat	Canada	60	12	11		

Table 1: Main characteristics of C. difficile in meat and meat products in the included studies

¹ Not Detected

² The 80 observed colonies in plate from 17 positive samples were reported for the presence of toxin-encoding genes. Therefore, no exact data existed in this study about the total toxigenic isolate in 17 positive samples.

A funnel plot was created for the outcome to ana-

lyze the publication bias, following Duval and

Tweedie's trim and fill approach with Begg and Mazumdar rank correlation. Publication bias using funnel plots was not observed in the current study. In the sensitivity analysis, the pooled prevalence of *C. difficile* in meat showed no substantial change if one study or a few studies were omitted, showing that the obtained results are robust. A subgroup analysis was conducted according to the type of meat (fish, poultry, and meat) and their products (Table 2 and Fig. 2). The highest pooled prevalence of *C. difficile* was found in fish (6.9%), followed by poultry (5.2%) and red meat (3.2%), and while the lowest prevalence was observed in the article assessing both poultry and red meat (1.6%) groups.

udy name	Statistics for each study						Event rate and 95% C		
	Event rate	Lower limit		Z-Value	p-Value				
driguez (2021)	0.120	0.039	0.313	-3.237	0.001	1	1	I - 🛲	- 1
ia (2021)	0.002	0.000	0.031	-4.391	0.000			÷	
ise (2021)	0.118	0.089	0.156	-12.379	0.000				
uchiya (2021)	0.004	0.000	0.055	-3.964	0.000			<u> </u>	
yez (2021)	0.040	0.015	0.102	-6.228	0.000				
ciardi (2021)	0.005	0.001	0.032	-5.358	0.000				
yebpour (2020)	0.060	0.033	0.105	-8.861	0.000			T	
ui (2020)	0.006	0.002	0.020	-8.707	0.000				
igol (2020)	0.319	0.256	0.389	-4.810	0.000			Т.	
ratoglu (2020)	0.069	0.046		-11.779	0.000				_
noletti (2019)	0.107	0.086		-17.380	0.000				
mani (2019)	0.016	0.001	0.211	-2.883	0.004				
yebpour (2018)	0.032	0.022		-17.155	0.004				
del-Glil (2018)	0.0032	0.022	0.048	-4.029	0.000			<u> </u>	
		0.000	0.051	-7.520				I	
e (2018)	0.005				0.000			T	
söz (2018)	0.005	0.000	0.073	-3.748				I I	
res (2018)	0.006	0.000	0.091	-3.582	0.000			I.	
kri (2018)	0.015	0.008		-12.459	0.000				
zmyar (2017)	0.123	0.063	0.227	-5.201	0.000				
asoy (2017)	0.030	0.010	0.089	-5.930	0.000				
eradmand (2017)	0.080	0.041	0.152	-6.626	0.000				
biano (2015)	0.021	0.013		-16.671	0.000				
oyottu (2015)	0.002	0.000	0.026	-4.521	0.000				
ran (2015)	0.042	0.025		-11.042	0.000				
himi (2015)	0.009	0.004		-10.524	0.000				
fandiari (2015)	0.057	0.036		-11.262	0.000				
rman (2014)	0.007	0.000	0.107	-3.456	0.001			#	
rshney (2014)	0.083	0.056		-11.536	0.000				
fandiari (2014a)	0.040	0.020	0.078	-8.807	0.000				
fandiari (2014b)	0.064	0.031	0.127	-6.884	0.000			— -	
driguez (2014)	0.029	0.014	0.060	-9.137	0.000				
himi (2014)	0.018	0.010		-13.692	0.000				
uassi (2014)	0.001	0.000	0.020	-4.716	0.000			•	
esada-Gómez (2013)	0.020	0.008	0.052	-7.705	0.000			i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i	
sanzade (2013a)	0.004	0.000	0.063	-3.870	0.000			÷-	
sanzade (2013b)	0.002	0.000	0.032	-4.362	0.000			+	
Ichayanand (2013)	0.001	0.000	0.008	-5.342	0.000			•	
squale (2012)	0.283	0.178	0.418	-3.048	0.002			-	-+-
ry (2012)	0.127	0.075	0.207	-6.479	0.000				
bago (2012)	0.000	0.000	0.005	-5.772	0.000			•	
ser (2012)	0.063	0.020	0.177	-4.542	0.000				
user (2012)	0.060	0.019	0.170	-4.621	0.000				
squale (2011)	0.333	0.084	0.732	-0.800	0.423				-
tcalf (2011)	0.034	0.013	0.086	-6.603	0.000				_
Boer (2011)	0.010	0.004		-10.223	0.000				
ese (2010)	0.128	0.089	0.181	-9.132	0.000				
tcalf (2010)	0.015	0.007		-10.128	0.000				
ffer (2010)	0.011	0.001	0.149	-3.188	0.001			—	
uttier (2010)	0.011	0.003	0.044	-6.280	0.000			T	
lra (2009)	0.006	0.000	0.044	-3.617	0.000			T.	
n Abercron (2009)	0.025	0.006	0.094	-5.116	0.000			T_	
ese (2009)	0.025	0.005	0.094	-9.799	0.000				
nger (2009)	0.122	0.322	0.526	-1.486	0.137				
		0.322	0.302	-4.478	0.000				
driguez-Palacios (2007	10.103								
	0.034	0.024		-18.503	0.000				

Fig. 2: Forest plot of meta-analysis of C. difficile prevalence in meat and meat products

Type of meat	n %Pooled Preva-		95% Confidence Inter- val	\mathcal{Q}	I^2	Tau ²	P-value	
		lence	Uui					
Fish	9	0.069	0.035-0.133	102.679	92.209	0.952	< 0.001	
Poultry	10	0.052	0.025-0.108	103.879	91.336	.301	< 0.001	
Red meat	22	0.032	0.021-0.05	121.157	82.667	0.771	< 0.001	
Poultry and Red Meat	13	0.016	0.005-0.046	228.165	94.741	3.420	< 0.001	

Table 2: Meta-analysis of *C. difficile* prevalence based on subgroups

Table 3 shows the meta-analysis results of antimicrobial resistance in *C. difficile*. Based on the pooled prevalence of antimicrobial resistance, the most resistance was to ciprofloxacin (86.8%), whereas the less resistant was to chloramphenicol (6%). Resistance to vancomycin and metronidazole was assessed in 559 positive isolates of *C. difficile*. Clindamycin, moxifloxacin, erythromycin, tetracycline, and ampicillin resistance were examined in 554, 363, 293, 214, and 210 isolates of *C. difficile*. A limited number of positive isolates of *C. difficile* were assessed for their resistance to rifampicin and ciprofloxacin (n= 171 and 113, respectively).

Antibiotic	Number of stud- ies	% Pooled Prevalence (95% Confidence In- terval)	Q	I ²	Tau ²	P-value	
Ciprofloxacin	6	86.8 (0.547-0.973)	20.448	75.595	3.175	0.029ª	
Clindamycin	26	42.6 (0.278-0.587)	131.521	80.992	1.795	0.369ª	
Erythromycin	10	34 (0.176-0.553)	41.203	78.157	1.190	0.137ª	
Ampicilline	9	33.9 (0.147-0.605)	50.075	84.024	2.142	0.231ª	
Moxifloxacin	18	26.3 (0.138-0.441)	69.49	75.536	1.721	0.011ª	
Tetracycline	13	25.9 (0.119-0.475)	40.351	70.261	1.982	0.03ª	
Rifampicin	4	8.1 (0.046-0.14)	2.61	0	0	0b	
Metronidazole	26	7.6 (0.039-0.144)	64.029	60.995	1.721	Oa	
Vancomycin	27	6.6 (0.034-0.125)	55.997	53.569	1.680	Oa	
Chloramphenicol	5	6 (0.025-0.137)	0.449	0	0	0.987^{b}	

Table 3: Meta-analysis of antimicrobial resistance in C. difficile

^a *P*-value for random-effects model

^b *P*-value for fixed-effect model

Discussion

C. difficile is a significant cause of disease in humans, especially in hospitalized people. Human and animal exposure to antibiotics is a significant risk factor for causing CDI (14). On the other hand, three main factors have raised concerns regarding its potential as a cause of the food-borne disease: A rising detection of community-associated CDI, identifying *C. difficile* in animals and food, and similarities in *C. difficile* collected from food, humans, and animals (5). This is the first meta-analysis study with a worldwide perspective that evaluates the prevalence and antibiotic resistance rates of *C. difficile* in meat and meat products.

The most common contamination occurred in fish and seafood (6.9%) (Table 2). This result is consistent with the only meta-analysis study, reporting that seafood poses the highest risk for the presence of this bacterium (14). Undesirable human activities in aquatic environments have caused problems for the health of humans and fish. Because of sewage discharge and water pollution in coastal areas and rivers, the marine environments are exponentially contaminated with various microorganisms, especially of fecal origins, such as *C*. *difficile* (15).

Poultry and its products also had *C. difficile* prevalence of 5.2% in the current meta-analysis study (Table 2). Besides the high nutritional value of poultry and birds, they are of worldwide interest due to their affordable prices and availability. However, enteric disorders caused by clostridial diseases have had devastating effects on the poultry industry, resulting in high poultry mortality. Therefore, *C. difficile* spores should be controlled in critical points, including poultry breeding on farms, preparation in the slaughterhouse's production lines, distributors, transportation systems, storage places, supermarket suppliers, and consumers (6).

In this study, the overall pooled prevalence of *C*. *difficile* was 3.2% in meat samples (Table 2).

In the included studies, red meat and derived products were from domestic animal meat, including camel, cow, goat, pork, buffalo, veal, and other products such as ready-to-eat foods, doner, meatballs, salami, and sausages, making the interpretation difficult. In current study, the prevalence was not very high in meat and its products. Nonetheless, most ready-to-eat foods containing meat and meat products are consumed immediately after purchase, without pre-heating or cooking. Such foodstuffs make public health concerns, especially for children, vulnerable elderly, immunocompromised individuals, and pregnant women. Additionally, the higher resistance of spores than vegetative forms of C. difficile makes it difficult to destroy the bacterium (16).

Regarding red and poultry meat, the pooled prevalence of C. difficile was 1.6% in 13 studies (Table 2). Animal-based foods are a significant source of zoonotic pathogenic bacteria, and foods derived from these animals can be a significant transmission source of bacteria to humans. In this regard, meat is a primary source of human exposure to zoonotic bacteria. About 60% of animal-related diseases in humans and approximately 75% of new human infections are transmitted to humans through vertebrates (17). Although no reports have confirmed that C. difficile is food-borne or zoonotic, it is necessary to observe food health and safety protocols and establish food safety management systems such as Good Manufacturing Principles (GMP), Good Hygiene Principles (GHP) and Hazard Analysis and Critical Control Point (HACCP) system (4, 16).

Antibiotic therapy is the most serious factor for CDI as it upsets the balance of the natural flora of the gastrointestinal tract (18). The most important antibiotics that has this function include clindamycin, cephalosporins, fluoroquinolones, ampicillin/ amoxicillin, macrolides, cotrimoxazole and tetracyclines. The emergence of antibiotic has made the treatment of CDI more problematic. Antibiotic resistance is a universal menace to the health of animals and humans, and a global effort is needed to combat its spread (18). Because antimicrobials are used to treat CDI, data should be obtained on the resistance profiles of circulating *C. difficile* strains in sources other than hospitals, such as food (19).

Based on the current analysis, ciprofloxacin (86.6%), clindamycin (42.6%), and erythromycin (34%) showed the highest pooled prevalence for antibiotic resistance of C. difficile collected from meat and meat products (Table 3). The aforementioned antibiotics are categorized in fluoroquinolone, lincosamide, and macrolide classes, respectively, which carry the highest risk for C. difficile resistance (20). In some reports, the emergence of ribotype 027 is related to its fluoroquinolone-resistant sub-lineages. This situation elucidates the evolutionary potential of C. difficile in response to the environment. It seems that there is a potential role of genetic recombination among animal and human-originated isolate of C. difficile in the emergence of new drug-resistance lineages (5).

The use of antibiotics is limited in antibiotic stewardship interventions to reduce multidrug resistance (19). Physicians and vets need to be trained about the risk of CDI associated with these antibiotics' prescriptions. On the other hand, antimicrobial agents such as vancomycin and oral fidaxomicin are recommended as the drugs of the first choice in clinical trials of CDI treatment. Metronidazole is no longer recommended as first-line therapy for adults. The meta-analysis of 26 and 27 studies showed that antibiotic resistance for vancomycin and metronidazole was 7.6% and 6.6%, respectively (18). As resistance to antibiotics commonly used to treat CDI in humans can make it challenging to treat, the widespread application of these antibiotics in humans and even the low resistance of C. difficile should be noticed. As fidaxomicin was reported in one study, it was impossible to discuss it in the meta-analysis (21). A systematic review and meta-analysis of antibiotic resistance in C. difficile isolates from patients, healthy humans, and animals was 2.1% (95% CI: 0-5.1%) for vancomycin and 1.9% (95% CI: 0.5-3.6%) for metronidazole (22). The current study showed higher pooled resistance for vancomycin [6.6% (95% CI: 0.034-0.125)] and metronidazole [7.6% (95% CI: 0.039-0.144)]. The difference may be related to patient-originated and animal originated

isolates of C. difficile. As all antibiotics are the influencing risk factor for CDI through gut microbiota alteration (20), we cannot overlook the resistance to ampicillin (33.9%), moxifloxacin (26.3%), tetracycline (25.9%), rifampicin (8.1%), and chloramphenicol (6%) among C. difficile isolates in meat and meat products (19). Some of these antibiotics are highly applied as antimicrobials in agriculture, resulting in antimicrobial selective pressure in this sphere. For antibiotic susceptibility testing, it has proposed agar dilution as the standard gold methods. It was indicated that e-test method could underestimate the MIC for antibiotics (19). This situation can misclassify some isolates as susceptible. Additionally, very different breakpoints for antibiotics are recommended by EUCAST and CLSI. Therefore, heterogeneity between the studies for culture method and antibiotic susceptibility testing implies that the summary occurrence should be interpreted with caution. This situation is as a limitation of the current study.

As another limitation of this study, the scarcity or lack of representative studies in several countries may cause a misconception about the actual prevalence and antibiotic resistance of *C. difficile*. Additionally, due to the limited number of meta-analysis studies of *C. difficile* in food, it was not possible to discuss some findings.

Conclusion

Different types of meat and derived products may act as reservoirs of *C. difficile* spores, and its capability to survive, persist, and make cross-contamination can be influential in its spread. Considering the epidemiological complications in the transmission cycle of *C. difficile* spores among various carriers, it is crucial to take preventive actions, like reinforced hygiene measures in food processing plants or even at retail, improved hygiene measures by farmers, and controlling actions to decrease cross-contamination. Inadequate investigations have impeded a comprehensive estimation globally; nonetheless, a pooled prevalence could be obtained for different types of meat and their products. The frequencies of these foodstuffs indicated a low risk for consumer health.

Acknowledgements

This study was supported by the Nutrition and Food Security Research Center of Vice Chancellery for Research and Technology in Isfahan University of Medical Sciences with No. 2400197 and ethical code IR.ARI.MUI.REC.1400.041.

Journalism Ethics considerations

Ethical issues (Including plagiarism, informed consent, misconduct, data fabrication and/or falsification, double publication and/or submission, redundancy, etc.) have been completely observed by the authors.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interests.

References

- 1. Lu Cl, Li HX, Zhu XY, et al (2022). Regulatory effect of intracellular polysaccharides from Antrodia cinnamomea on the intestinal microbiota of mice with antibiotic-associated diarrhea. *Qual Assur Saf Crops Foods*, 14(3): 124-134.
- Lawson PA, Citron DM, Tyrrell KL, et al (2016). Reclassification of *Clostridium difficile* as *Clostridioides difficile* (Hall and O'Toole 1935) Prevot 1938. *Anaerobe*, 40: 95-9.
- Weiss K (2009). Toxin binding treatment for *clos-tridium difficile*. a review including reports of studies with tolevamer. *Int J Antimicrob Agents*, 33: 4-7.
- 4. Esfandiari Z, Jalali M, Ezzatpanah H, et al (2014). Occurrence of *Clostridium difficile* in seasoned hamburgers and seven processing plants in Iran. *BMC Microbiol*, 14:283.
- Nourbakhsh F, Tajbakhsh E (2021). Neurotoxicity mechanism of Ochratoxin A. *Qual Assur Saf Crops Foods*, 13(2): 34-45.
- 6. Heise J, Witt P, Maneck C, et al (2021). Prevalence and phylogenetic relationship of *Clostridioides*

difficile strains in fresh poultry meat samples processed in different cutting plants. *Int J Food Microbiol*, 339:109032.

- World Health Organization (2000). World Health Organization report on infectious diseases. Overcoming antimicrobial resistance https://www.who.int/teams/integratedhealth-services/clinical-services-and-systems/surgical-care/infectious-diseases.
- Waqas M, Mohib K, Saleem A, et al (2022). Rifaximin therapy for patients with metronidazoleunresponsive *Clostridium difficile* infection. Infection. *Cureus*, 14(4): e24140.
- Freeman J, Wilcox MH (1999). Antibiotics and Clostridium difficile. *Microbes Infect*, 1(5): 377–84.
- 10. Liberati A, Altman DG, Tetzlaff J, et al (2009). The PRISMA statement for reporting systematic reviews and meta-analyses of studies that evaluate health care interventions: explanation and elaboration. *PLoS Med*, 6(7):e1000100.
- Joanna Briggs Institute (2017). Critical Appraisal tools for use in JBI Systematic Reviews Checklist for Analytical Cross-Sectional Studies. https://jbi.global/critical-appraisal-tools
- Gurevitch J, Koricheva J, Nakagawa S, et al (2018). Meta-analysis and the science of research synthesis. *Nature*, 555(7695):175-182.
- Marvidis D, Salanti G (2014). How to assess publication bias: funnel plot, trim-and-fill method and selectionmodels. *Evid Based Ment Health*; 17(1):30.
- Rodriguez-Palacios, Mo KQ, Shah BU, et al (2020). Global and Historical Distribution of *Clostridioides difficile* in the human diet (1981-2019): Systematic review and meta-analysis of 21886 samples reveal sources of heterogeneity, high risk foods, and unexpected higher prevalence toward the tropic. *Front Med (Lausanne)*, 7:9.
- Kacar A, Omuzbuken B (2017). Assessing the seawater quality of a coastal city using fecal indicators and environmental variables (eastern Aegean Sea). *Mar Pollut Bull*, 123: 400–3.
- McSharry S, Koolman L, Whyte P, et al (2021). Investigation of the effectiveness of disinfectants used in meat-processing facilities to control *Clostridium sporogenes* and Clostridioides difficile spores. *Foods*, 10(6):1436.

- Smits WK, Lyras DB, Lacy DB, et al (2016). Clostridium difficile infection. Nat Rev Dis Primers, 2: 16020.
- Mounsey A, Smith KL, Reddy VC (2020). *Clostridioides difficile* infection: Update on management. *Am Fam Physician*, 101 (3): 168-75.
- Sholeh M, Krutova M, Forouzesh M, et al (2020). Antimicrobial resistance in *Clostridioides (Clostridium) difficile* derived from humans: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Antimicrob Resist Infect Control*, 9: 158.
- Nasiri MJ, Goudarzi M, Hajikhani B, et al (2018). *Clostridioides (Clotstidium) difficile* infection in hospitalized patients with antibiotic-associated diarrhea: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Anaerobe*, 50: 32-7.
- Troiano T, Harmanus C, M.J.G. Sanders I, et al (2015). Toxigenic *Clostridium difficile* PCR ribotypes in edible marine bivalve molluscs in Italy. *Int J Food Microbiol*, 208: 30-4.
- Saha S, Kappor S, Tariq R, et al (2019). Increasing antibiotic resistance in Clostridioides difficile: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Anaerobe*, 58: 35-46.
- 23. Rodriguez C, Mith H, Taminiau B, et al (2021). First isolation of *Clostridioides difficile* from smoked and dried freshwater fish in Cambodia. *Food Control*, 124: 107895.
- Fayez M, El-Ghareeb WR, Elmoslemany A et al (2021). Genotyping and antimicrobial susceptibility of *Clostridium perfringens* and *Clostridioides difficile* in camel minced meat. *Pathogens*, 10(12): 1640.
- 25. Licciardi C, Primavilla S, Roila R, et al (2021). Prevalence, Molecular Characterization and antimicrobial susceptibility of *Clostridioides difficile* isolated from pig carcasses and pork Products in Central Italy. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*, 18(21): 11368.
- Attia AET (2021). Retail chikcen meats as potential sources of *Clostridioides difficile* in Al-Jouf, Saudi Arabia. *J Infect Dev Ctries*, 15(7): 972-978.
- Tsuchiya AC, Gomes ES, Kuaye AY, et al (2022). Detection and pathogenic potential of *Clostrid-ium difficile* in commercial meat and meat products in Brazil. *Food Sci Technol Int*, 28 (1): 85-92.
- Nayebpour F, Rahimi E (2020). Incidence and Profiles of Antibiotic Resistance and Putative Genes of the *Clostridium difficile* recovered from fish. *Egypt J Vet Sci*, 51 (3): 349-56.

- 29. Usui M, Maruko A, Harada M et al (2020). Prevalence and characterization of *Clostridioides difficile* isolates from retail food products (vegetables and meats) in Japan. *Anaerobe*, 61:102132.
- Muratoglu K, Akkaya E, Hampikyan H, et al (2020). Detection, Characterization and Antibiotic Susceptibility of *Clostridioides (Clostridium) difficile* in Meat Products. *Food Sci Anim Resour*, 40(4): 578-587.
- Bingol EB, Hampikyan H, Muratoglu K, et al (2020). Characterization and antibiotic susceptibility profile of *Clostridioides (Clostridium) diffiicle* isolated from chicken carcasses. J Vet Res, 64(3): 407-12.
- 32. Agnoletti F, Arcangeli G, Barbanti F, et al (2019). Survey, characterization and antimicrobial susceptibility of *Clostridium difficile* from marine bivalve shellfish of North Adriatic Sea. *Int J Food Microbiol*, 298: 74-80.
- Zamani AH, Razmyar J, Berger FK, et al (2019). Isolation and toxin gene detection of *Clostrid-ium (Clostridioides) difficile* from traditional and commercial quail farms and packed quail meat for market supply. *Acta Vet Hung*, 67: 499-504.
- Nayebpour F, Rahimi E (2019). Prevalence, antibiotic resistance, and toxigenic gene profile of the *Clostridium difficile* isolated from molluscan shellfish. *J Food Saf*, 39(1): e12586.
- Abdel-Glil M, Thomas P, Schmoock G et al (2018). Presence of Clostridium difficile in poultry and poultry meat in Egypt. Anaerobe, 51: 21-25.
- Lee JY, Cho YS (2018). Prevalence of *Clostridium* difficile isolated from various raw meats in Korea. *Food Sci Biotechnol*, 27(3):883-889.
- Ersöz ŞŞ, Coşansu S (2018). Prevalence of *Clostridium difficile* isolated from beef and chicken meat products in Turkey. *Korean J Food Sci Anim Resour*, 38(4):759-767.
- Bakri M (2018). Prevalence of *Clostridium difficile* in raw cow, sheep, and goat meat in Jazan, Saudi Arabia. *Saudi J Biol Sci*, 25(4):783-5.
- Pires RN, Caurio CFB, Saldanha GZ et al (2018). *Clostridium diffuile* contamination in retail meat products in Brazil. *Braz J Infect Dis*, 22(4): 345-346.
- Atasoy F, Gucukoglu A (2017). Detection of *Clostridium difficile* and toxin genes in samples of modified atmosphere packaged (MAP) minced and cubed beef meat. *Ankara Üniversitesi Veteriner Fakültesi Dergisi*, 64(3):165-70.

- Kheradmand M, Jalilian S, Alvandi A et al (2017). Prevalence of *Clostridium difficile* and its toxigenic genotype in beef samples in west of Iran. *Iran J Microbiol*, 9 (3): 169-73.
- 42. Razmyar J, Jamshidi A, Khanzadi S, et al (2017). Toxigenic *Clostridium difficile* in retail packed chicken meat and broiler flocks in northeastern Iran. *Iran J Vet Res*, 18(4):271-274.
- Mooyottu S, Flock G, Kollanoor-Johny A, et al (2015). Characterization of a multidrug resistant *C. difficile* meat isolate. *Int J Food Microbiol*, 192:111–6.
- 44. Rahimi E, Khaksar F (2015). Detection of toxigenic *Clostridium difficile* strains isolated from meat and meat products in Iran. *Bulgarian J Vet Med*, 18:277-81.
- Guran HS, Ilhak OI (2015). Clostridium difficile in retail chicken meat parts and liver in the Eastern Region of Turkey. J Verbraucherschutz und Lebensmittelsicherheit, 10(4): 359-64.
- Esfandiari Z, Weese J, Ezzatpanah H, et al (2015). Isolation and Characterization of *Clostridium difficile* in Farm Animals from Slaughterhouse to Retail Stage in Isfahan, Iran. *Foodborne Pathog Dis*, 12 (10): 864-6
- Esfandiari Z, Jalali M, Ezzatpanah H, et al (2014). Prevalence and Characterization of Clostridium difficile in Beef and Mutton Meats of Isfahan Region, Iran. *Jundishapur J Microbiol*, 7(8): e16771.
- Rodriguez C, Taminiau B, Avesani V, et al (2014). Multilocus sequence typing analysis and antibiotic resistance of *Clostridium difficile* strains isolated from retail meat and humans in Belgium. *Food Microbiol*, 42: 166–71.
- Rahimi E, Jalali M, Weese JS (2014). Prevalence of *Clostridium difficile* in raw beef, cow, sheep, goat, camel and buffalo meat in Iran. *BMC Public Health*, 14: 119.
- Kouassi KA, Dadie AT, N'Guessan KF, et al (2014). *Clostridium perfringens* and *Clostridium difficile* in cooked beef sold in Côte d'Ivoire and their antimicrobial susceptibility. *Anaerobe*, 28:90-4.
- Varshney JB, Very KJ, Williams JL, et al (2014). Characterization of *Clostridium difficile* isolates from human fecal samples and retail meat from Pennsylvania. *Foodborne Pathog Dis*, 11(10): 822-9.

- Norman KN, Harveyb RB, Andrewsb K, et al (2014). Survey of *Clostridium difficile* in retail seafood in College Station, Texas. *Food Addit Contam Part A Chem Anal Control Expo Risk Assess*, 31(6): 1127–9.
- Quesada-Gómez C, Mulvey MR, Vargas P, et al (2013). Isolation of a toxigenic and clinical genotype of *Clostridium difficile* in retail meats in Costa Rica. J Food Prot, 76(2):348-51.
- Kalchayanand N, Arthur TM, Bosilevac JM, et al (2013). Isolation and characterization of *Clostridium difficile* associated with beef cattle and commercially produced ground beef. *J Food Prot*, 76(2): 256-64.
- Hasanzadeh A, Rahimi E (2013). Isolation of *Clostridium difficile* from chicken meat sold in meat stores of Isfahan City. *Adv Environ Biol*, 7(9):2372-5.
- Hasanzade A, Rahimi E (2013). Isolation of *Clostridium Difficile* from Turkey and Ostrich Meat Sold in Meat Stores if Isfahan City. *Int J Adv Biol Biom Res*, 1(9):963-7.
- Curry SR, Marsh JW, Schlackman JL et al (2012). Prevalence of *Clostridium difficile* in uncooked ground meat products from Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. *Appl Environ Microbiol*, 78(12): 4183– 6.
- Limbago B, Thompson AD, Greene SA, et al (2012). Development of a consensus method for culture of *Clostridium difficile* from meat and its use in a survey of U.S. retail meats. *Food Microbiol*, 32: 448-51.
- Visser M, Sepehrim S, Olson N, et al (2012). Detection of *Clostridium difficile* in retail ground meat products in Manotoba. *Can J Infect Dis Med Microbiol*, 23(1): 28-30.
- 60. Houser BA, Soehnlen MK, Wolfgang DR, et al (2012). Prevalence of *Clostridium difficile* toxin genes in the feces of veal calves and incidence of ground veal contamination. *Foodborne Pathog Dis*, 9(1):32-6.
- Pasquale V, Romano VJ, Rupnik M, et al (2011). Isolation and characterization of *Clostridium difficile* from shellfish and marine environments. *Folia Microbiol (Praha)*, 56(5): 431–7.
- 62. Pasquale V, Romano V, Rupnik M, et al (2012). Occurrence of toxigenic *Clostridium difficile* in edible bivalve molluscs. *Food Microbiol*, 31(2): 309–12.

- 63. Metcalf D, Avery BP, Janecko N, et al (2011). Clostridium difficile in seafood and fish. *Anaerobe*, 17:85-6.
- 64. De Boer E, Zwartkruis-Nahuis A, Heuvelink AE, et al (2011). Prevalence of *Clostridium difficile* in retailed meat in the Netherlands. *Int J Food Microbiol*, 144: 561-4.
- 65. Metcalf D, Reid-Smith RJ, Avery BP, et al (2010). Prevalence of *Clostridium difficile* in retail pork. *Can Vet J*, 51(8):873–6.
- 66. Hoffer E, Haechler H, Frei R, et al (2010). Low occurrence of *Clostridium difficile* in fecal samples of healthy calves and pigs at slaughter and in minced meat in Switzerland. *J Food Prot*, 73(5): 973-5.
- 67. Bouttier S, Barc MC, Felix B, et al (2010). *Clostridium difficile* in Ground Meat, France. *Emerg Infect Dis*, 16 (4):733-5.
- Weese JS, Reid-Smith RJ, Avery BP, et al (2010). Detection and characterization of *Clostridium difficile* in retail chicken. *Lett Appl Microbiol*, 50(4):362-5.
- Weese JS, Avery BP, Rousseau J, et al (2009). Detection and enumeration of Clostidium difficile spores in retail beef and pork. *Applied Environ Microbiol*, 75 (15): 5009-11.
- Indra A, Lassing H, Baliko N, et al (2009). Clostridium difficile: a new zoonotic agent? Wien Klin Wochenschr, 121(3-4): 91-5.
- Songer JG, Trinh HT, Killgore GE, et al (2009). *Clostridium difficile* in retail meat products, USA, 2007. *Emerg Infect Dis*, 15(5):819-21.
- Von Abercron, SM, Karlsson F, Wigh GT, et al (2009). Low occurrence of *Clostridium difficile* in retail ground meat in Sweden. *J Food Prot*, 72(8): 1732-4.
- 73. Rodriguez-Palacios A, Staempfli HR, Duffield T, et al (2007). *Clostridium difficile* in retail ground meat, Canada. *Emerg Infect Dis*,13(3): 485–7.