Iranian Journal of Medical Microbiology | ISSN:2345-4342

Clostridium Perfringens Toxin Types Associated with Meat: Review in Iran

Peyman Masoumi¹, Hamideh Mahmoodzadeh Hosseini¹, Mehrdad Moosazadeh Moghaddam², Ali Keshavarz Lelekami³, Shirin Mohammadyari⁴, Seyed Ali Mirhosseini^{1*}

- 1. Applied Microbiology Research Center, Systems Biology and Poisonings Institute, Baqiyatallah University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran
- 2. Applied Biotechnology Research Center, Baqiyatallah University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran
- 3. Department of Food Hygiene and Quality Control, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Branch, Tehran, Iran
- 4. Department of Food Hygiene, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Shahid Chamran University of Ahvaz, Iran

oi <u>10.30699/ijmm.15.4.384</u>

ABSTRACT

Food poisoning due to *Clostridium perfringens* (*C. perfringens*) is a major food health problem, particularly in terms of meat consumption. Due to human's susceptibility to this pathogen, detection methods and prevention measures should be implemented to reduce its incidence. Several pathogenic strains of *C. perfringens* have been identified so far. One of the potential concerns about this bacterium is its toxin-producing characteristic that causes food poisoning. It has seven toxin types (A-G) according to the existence of four unique toxin genes. This study aimed to assess the prevalence of food poisoning caused by *C. perfringens* in meat and meat-derived products in Iran. We collected and categorized all the available data on this issue in Iran. Moreover, we summarized some methods used to detect toxins and genes and finally placed a prevention section for clarifying how to prevent such events. The best method for preventing such an organism's growth is by keeping foods in their normal state (hot and cold criteria) and chilling prepared foods in shallow containers as soon as possible.

Keywords: Clostridium perfringens, Foodborne diseases, Poisoning, Toxin, Meat

	Receive	d : 2021/04/11;	Accepted: 2021/06/05;	Published Online: 2021/08/16
Corresponding In	formation:	Seyed Ali Mirhosseini of Medical Sciences, T	, Applied Microbiology Research Cente ehran, Iran. Email: <u>ali.mirh@gmail.co</u> l	r, Systems Biology and Poisonings Institute, Baqiatallah University <u>n</u>
CC O S	Copyright © 2021, permits copy and r	This is an original open-acc edistribution of the materia	ess article distributed under the terms of the 0 I just in noncommercial usages with proper cit	creative Commons Attribution-noncommercial 4.0 International License which ation.

Use your device to scan and read the article online



Send citation to: 🚳 Mendeley 💈 Zotero 🔳 RefWorks

Introduction

Food poisoning is one of the most common health problems all over the world. It has been reported more in underdeveloped and third world countries due to their low levels of hygiene. Some bacteria cause food poisoning by producing toxins in food (1). Among all bacteria, *Clostridium perfringens* is one of the most important agents causing food poisoning due to its toxin production ability, short incubation time, and survivability in harsh environments. The clinical signs and symptoms can vary, but the most common signs are abdominal cramps, diarrhea, and to a less extent vomiting (2). Since *C. perfringens* cannot synthesize 13 required amino acids (out of the total 20), protein-rich food constitutes a favorable medium for this bacterium (3). Raw meat and chicken are the most common infection sources; however, this bacterial infection can also be transmitted from legumes (4). Thus, we focused on meat poisoning to produce more important and precise results. Indeed, *C. perfringens* is among the anaerobic, gram-positive, spore-forming bacteria that are environmentally widespread (5, 6).

Genes of C. perfringens encode more than 17 unique toxins, which can be categorized into five types of toxin (A-E) according to the existence of four different toxin genes: α (alpha), β (beta), ϵ (epsilon), and ι (iota) toxins. Alpha-toxin is encoded by the gene of cpa and all types of C. perfringens produce this toxin. Enterotoxin, encoded by cpe gene, is the main virulence factor implicated in food poisoning in humans (7,8). It was not a long time ago when it was suggested that this typing design should include types F and G, which encompass the Clostridium perfringens enterotoxin (CPE) and NetB toxin of C. perfringens, respectively. However, further studies are required before formally accepting this design. Even though the gene encoding α toxin is located on chromosomes, one can find *cpe* gene in both plasmid and chromosome. In compareson, the genes of the remaining toxins are found on various plasmids of different size. The vehicles of food poisoning by C. perfringens are typically meat and its products (9-13).

Approximately 2-5% of all the isolates of C. perfringens, most of which belong to type A, generate cpe (14). One of the most frequently reported food poisoning pathogens in Europe, the United States, and Turkey is cpe-positive C. perfringens type A (13,15,16). Therefore, for a better comprehension of the epidemiology of C. perfringens infections, the identification of the toxin types of C. perfringens is vital, which can also help in a better development of preventive measures in practice. It is likely that contamination of meat products or meat dishes with insufficient cooking and high C. perfringens counts is the main reason for outbreaks. Meat products can be contaminated through various routes. The most common way is the internal route in animals after slaughtering, which manifests itself as a post mortem invasion. Besides, external sources like dirty hands, soil, water, animal skin, and processing equipment can be important sources of infection (16, 17). The test of neutralization of toxin is commonly employed in guinea pigs or mice for the typing of C. perfringens (18,19). Nonetheless, this detection technique is costly and time-consuming; therefore, as an alternative, the molecular techniques, such as polymerase chain reaction (PCR), have often been used most recently (20, 21).

This paper reviews the incidence of *C. perfringens* meat poisoning in Iran, considering the toxin types and their encoding genes. Moreover, detection methods, food safety concerns and prevention strategies are discussed.

Risk Factors for Food Poisoning

Meat and meat products are among the most popular foods worldwide, and food poisonings are sometimes accompanied by meat poisoning. C. perfringens is an obligate anaerobic bacterium, and hence it prefers to grow at a deficient level or under oxygenfree conditions. It is found in deep musculature due to this trait. Since humans are susceptible to this bacterium's food poisoning, risk factors that compromise food safety should be discussed and established. Symptoms can vary from diarrhea to even death, but fatalities are rare, occurring in <0.03% of cases (22). Death is usually caused by dehydration in age extremities, i.e., very young or very older people, and in immunocompromised people (3). Based on the prevalence, the risk of contaminated and illnesscausing food can be categorized as high or low. Highrisk sources include beef and poultry, and they account for most of the outbreaks. Low-risk sources include seafood and sausage (23). Although preventive measures have already been taken against this pathogenic agent, C. perfringens is still a significant cause of Iran's food-borne infections.

Enterotoxaemia

C. perfringens enterotoxin (CPE) is the most vital virulence factor causing human gastrointestinal (GI) diseases among the isolates type A. However, a very small percentage (<5%) of all the C. perfringens generate this toxin (24). The role that C. perfringens enterotoxin plays in food poisoning has been entrenched. C. perfringens food poisoning symptoms comprise severe cramps of the abdomen and watery diarrhea. The onset of these signs commonly starts 6 to 24 hours after eating contaminated foods with C. perfringens at large numbers. Usually, the disease does not last long and diminishes in less than 24 hours. Symptoms of less severance may persist for 1 or 2 weeks. However, C. perfringens enterotoxin production is related to the process of sporulation, which happens in the small intestine after consuming a large number of temperature-abused foods (25). Numerous surveys of C. perfringens incidence have been reported in foods (26), but not many of them included fish (27,28), that means most of the outbreaks are due to meat products. Few non-outbreak isolates contain the cpe enterotoxin gene of C. perfringens (29,30). Between 1983 and 2002, this organism was ranked second and third in terms of confirmed cases and foodborne outbreaks of bacterial cause in the United States, respectively (31). In addition, Lund et al. (2002) reported a single-component enterotoxin (38). The necrotic enteritis that it caused is similar to that caused by the toxin of C. perfringens, but it is rarely reported.

Materials and Methods

To detect six toxin genes: *cpa* (alphatoxin), *cpb* (beta toxin), *etx* (epsilon toxin), *cpiA* (iota toxin), *cpe* (enterotoxin), and *netB* (NetB) with PCR, the DNA is extracted from isolates by the boiling method (**32**, **33**). The lethality assay for mouse and skin test for guinea pig, which are conventionally used for the typing of *C*. *perfringens*, are time-consuming and costly and raise ethical concerns du to use of laboratory animals. Nowadays, researchers usually adopt molecular methods, including microarray and PCR, especially real-time PCR (**34-37**). More to the point, various protocols

of PCR have been evolved for the identification of the *cpa*, *cpb*, *etx*, *iA*, *cpe*, *cpb2*, and *netB* genes that encode the generation of toxins, including α , β , ε , ι , enterotoxin, β 2, and NetB **(19-34)**. Multiplex PCR, one of these protocols, enables the rapid, unlabored and simultaneous detection of multiple genes at lower costs. By virtue of these advantages, multiplex PCR is among the typically employed molecular approaches for *C. perfringens* typing, and some primers are used for the detection of these toxins (Table 1).

Table 1. Nucleotide sequences of commonly used multiplex PCR primers for detecting the toxin gene of C. perfringens (8,14,41).

Toxin/gene	Primer	Sequence (5'-3')	Fragment length
	CPALPHATOX-F	GCTAATGTTACTGCCGTTGA	224 hn
α/cpa	CPALPHATOX-R	CCTCTGATACATCGTGTAAG	524 bp
	CPBETATOX-F	GCGAATATGCTGAATCATCTA	106 hr
β/cpb	CPBETATOX-R	GCAGGAACATTAGTATATCTTC	196 бр
	CPETOXIN-F	GCGGTGATATCCATCTATTC	CEE ha
ε/etx	CPETOXIN-R	CCACTTACTTGTCCTACTAAC	40 CC0
	CPIOTA-F	ACTACTCTCAGACAAGACAG	446 bp
ı∕ <i>iA</i>	CPIOTA-R	CTTTCCTTCTATTACTATACG	
	CPENTEROTOK-F	GGAGATGGTTGGATATTAGG	233 bp
CPE/cpe	CPENTEROTOK-R	GGACCAGCAGTTGTAGATA	
	CPBETA2TOK-F	AGATTTTAAATATGATCCTAACC	567 bp
β2/ <i>cpb2</i>	CPBETA2TOK-R	CAATACCCTTCACCAAATACTC	
	JRP6656	CTTCTAGTGATACCGCTTCAC	729 hr
NetB/netB	JRP6655	CGTTATATTCACTTGTTGACGAAAG	739 pb

There are commercially available assay kits to detect the toxins; however, they determine only one component of each complex and positive isolates can be considered only potentially enterotoxigenic. An overview of the toxins detection methods is shown in <u>Table</u> <u>2</u>. Besides, PCR primers specific for the enterotoxin

genes and the cereulide gene (*ces*) have been developed recently (**39**). Furthermore, multiplex PCR assay provides a rapid and straightforward method for genotyping *C. perfringens* isolates (**40**). An overview of the toxins and their prevalence is shown in <u>Tables 3-5</u>.

Method	Advantage	Limitation	Reference
ELISA	* High sensitivity * High specificity * Rapid detection * Easily adaptable	* Some may take several days * Fecal material inhibits sensitivity * serological cross-reaction	42,43
Nucleic acid amplification	* High sensitivity * High specificity	* Cannot replace traditional reference standards as a single method	44
Immunochromatographic assay	* High sensitivity* Rapid detection (20 minutes)	Not described	45
¹⁸ F labelling	* Sufficient stability in plasma	 * Being subject to liver uptake * Rapid metabolic degradation 	46
Electrochemiluminescence	* High selectivity * High sensitivity	* Inaccurate at high temperatures	47

C and in an a big	Taula		Diseases			
C. perjringens type	IOXIN	C. perjringens toxin gene	Human	Animal		
А	α	cpa cpa, cpb cpa, cpe cpa, cpe, cpb2	Gangrene Food poisoning Antibody associated diarrhea, sporadic diarrhea	Diarrhea (dogs, pigs, etc.) Necrotic enteritis (Fowl)		
В	α,β,ε	cpa, cpb, etx cpa, cpb, etx, cpb2	-	Dysentery (lambs) Enterotoxaemia (sheep)		
с	α,β	cpa, cpb cpa, cpb, cpb2 cpa, cpb, cpb2, cpe cpa, cpb, cpe	Enteritis necroticans (pigbel)	Necrotic enteritis (piglets, foals, etc.) Acute enterotoxaemia (adult sheep)		
D	α, ε	cpa, etx cpa, etx, cpb2 cpa, etx, cpb2, cpe cpa, etx, cpe	-	Enterotoxaemia (goats, sheep, etc.)		
E	α, ι	cpa, iA	-	Enterotoxaemia (calves and rabbits)		
F	α, CPE	cpa, cpe	Food poisoning, Antibody associated diarrhea	-		
G	α, NetB	cpa, netB	-	Necrotic enteritis (chickens)		

Table 3. Overview of C. perfringens types, toxins and genes that cause diseases in humans and animals (8, 48)

Table 4. Prevalence of different C. perfringens toxinotypes in food (by type) (%) in Iran

Province	Meat type	Type A	Туре В	Type C	Type D	Year of	Ref
		α	α, β, ε	α, β	α, ε	publication	
Chaharmahal and Bakhtiari	Chicken	42	-	-	-	2017	49
Kerman	Ostrich	100	0	0	0	2014	50
Razavi Khorasan	Beef	81	4	4	4	2015	51
Alborz	Mutton	63.6	25	21.4	53.3	2016	52
Razavi Khorasan	Chicken	29.03	-	70.96	-	2015	53

Table 5. Prevalence of different C. perfringens toxinotypes in food (by gene) (%) in Iran

Ducuinco	Meat type	Gene						Year of	Pof	
Province		сра	cpb	сре	срі	etx	cpb2	netB	publication	Rei
Chaharmahal and Bakhtiari	Beef	75.5	50	62	37.5	25	-	-	2017	54
Razavi Khorasan	Chicken	100	100	-	-	-	-	83.33	2014	55
Kerman	Chicken	-	-	-	-	-	-	17.78	2016	56
Razavi Khorasan	Beef	81	18	-	-	-	-	-	2015	53
Alborz	Mutton	-	-	38.3	-	-	-	-	2016	52
Razavi Khorasan	Chicken	-	-	25	-	-	-	-	2015	51

Discussion

Recently, there have been some significant developments in illuminating the spore germination mechanism of *C. perfringens*, which led to the detection and delineation of appropriate germinants and their receptors of *C. perfringens* FP and NFB strains' spores (57, 58). Despite the variations in the inclination of germinants among the strains, still in some germinants

ants such as AK or I-cysteine, the germination of spores can be induced in a broad extent of *C. perfringens* strains (57, 60). Such insights have been the cause of evolving innovative strategies concerning the spore germination induction followed by destroying the germinated spores with mild treatments afterwards (60-63). Some examples are as follows. (i) When AK germinant was used in meat products before high hydrostatic pressure (HHP) treatment (586 MPa)

at high temperature (73°C for 10 min), the procedure significantly destroyed the spores of C. perfringens in meat-contained feed (62). (ii) Chemical preservatives, e.g., nisin, sorbate, and benzoate, at permissive levels efficiently halted the proliferation of germinated C. perfringens spores in rich environment. Nevertheless, to achieve significant inhibitory effects against the spores of C. perfringens, higher levels of chemicals were needed to be inoculated into chicken meat (60, 64). (iii) Provoking spore germination significantly increased the sporicidal activity of typical disinfectants against C. perfringens FP spores attached to stainless steel chips (57). This inactivation strategy based on germination induction was also efficient in destroying spores from other Clostridium species (65.66). Collectively, provoking spore germination before inactivation treatment renders a unique strategy to improve the sporicidal power for Clostridium spores.

Moreover, other strategies are available for the control and inactivation of the *Clostridium* toxins, includeing physical approaches, which consist of thermal and pressure treatments and chemical agents, e.g., nitrate, nitrite, and organic acids (67). The latter consists of lactic acid, acetic acid, and phosphates (67). Vegetative cells of *C. perfringens* can be killed via devastating physical conditions. Still the difficult part of removing *C. perfringens* from food is their spores, which can be eliminated by adding environmental stress factors including ozone (69), ultrasound (70), and gamma radiation (71).

References

- Ali A, Parisi A, Conversano MC, Iannacci A, Emilio FD, Mercurio V, et al. Food-Borne Bacteria Associated with Seafoods: A Brief Review. J food Qual Hazards Control. 2020; 7:4-10. [DOI:10.18502/jfghc.7.1.2446]
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Fatal foodborne Clostridium perfringens illness at a state psychiatric Hospital-Louisiana. Morb Mortal Wkly Rep. 2010;61(32):605.
- Brynestad S, Granum PE. Clostridium Perfringens and foodborne infections. Int J Food Microbiol. 2002; 74:195-202 [DOI:10.1016/S0168-1605(01)00680-8]
- Cevallos-Cevallos JM, Akins ED, Friedrich LM. Growth of Clostridium Perfringens during cooling of refried beans. J food Protect. 2012;75(10):1783-90. [DOI:10.4315/0362-028X.JFP-12-088] [PMID]
- 5. Jabbari AR, Afshari FS, Esmaelizad M. Molecular typing of toxigenic Clostridum perfringens

In addition, two types of vaccines have been established to be employed against this bacterium, which are the gas gangrene vaccine and epsilon toxin vaccine (68).

Conclusion

C. perfringens is considered one of the most common food poisoning agents, especially in the meat industry. There are some published reports every year indicating the outbreaks of the C. perfringens food poisoning that have even caused death in some cases. Therefore, effective methods should be used to detect and prevent the food poisoning caused by such bacterium. PCR-based techniques can be a very reliable tool for detecting the pathogen, and there also exist several helpful strategies such as germina-tioninduced inactivation, training the consumer about the correct handling of food, proper prepara-tion of food, and food storage in order to avoid this pathogenic agent. Besides, surveillance plays a key role in the effectiveness of the prevention strategies before food is delivered to the consumer.

Acknowledgment

The authors thank all those who helped them writing this article.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declared no conflict of interest.

isolated from sheep in Iran. Arch Razi Inst. 2011; 66(2):81-6.

- Razmyar J, Kalidari GA, Tolooe A. Genotyping of Clostridium perfringens isolated from healthy and diseased ostriches (Struthio camelus). Iran J Microbiol. 2014;6(1):31.
- Petit L, Gibert M, Popoff MR. Clostridium perfringens: toxinotype and genotype. Trends Microbiol. 1999; 7:104-110. [DOI:10.1016/S0966-842X(98)01430-9]
- Rood JI, Adamsa V, Lacey J, Dena Lyrasa D, Bruce A, McClane BA, Stephen B, et al. Expansion of the Clostridium Perfringens toxinbased typing scheme. Anaerobe, 2018;53: 5-10.
 [DOI:10.1016/j.anaerobe.2018.04.011] [PMID] [PMCID]
- 9. Hatheway CL. Toxigenic clostridia. Clin Microbiol Rev. 1990; 3:66-98. [DOI:10.1128/CMR.3.1.66] [PMID] [PMCID]
- 10. Ridell J, Bjo"rkroth J, Eisgru"ber H. Prevalence of the enterotoxin gene and clonality of

Clostridium perfringens strains associated with food-poisoning outbreaks. Journal of Food Protection. 1998; 61:240-243. [DOI:10.4315/0362-028X-61.2.240] [PMID]

- 11. Hatakka M, Halonen H. Foodborne and Waterborne Outbreaks in Finland in 1999. National Food Administration Research Notes. 2000;7.
- Eisgruber H, Hauner G. Minced beef heart associated with a Clostridium perfringens food poisoning in a Munich old people's home. J Food Saf Food Qual. 2001;52, 63-6.
- MP Doyle, LR Beuchat, TJ Montville, eds. Food Microbiology: Fundamentals and Frontiers. 2nd ed. Washington, DC: ASM Press, 2001.
- Songer JG, Meer RM. Genotyping of Clostridium perfringens by polymerase chain reaction is a useful adjunct to diagnosis of clostridial enteric disease in animals. Anaerobe. 1996; 2, 197-203. [DOI:10.1006/anae.1996.0027]
- 15. Cakmak O, Ormanci FSB, Tayfur M. Presence and contamination level of Clostridium perfringens in raw frozen ground poultry and poultry burgers. Turk J Vet Anim Sci. 2006; 30,101-105.
- Hughes C, Gillespie IA, O'Brien SJ. Foodborne transmission of intestinal disease in England and Wales, 1992-2003. Food Control. 2007; 18, 766-72. [DOI:10.1016/j.foodcont.2006.01.009]
- Satio M. Production of enterotoxin by C. perfringens derived from humans, animals, foods and the natural environment in Japan. J Food Protect. 1990; 53:115-8. [DOI:10.4315/0362-028X-53.2.115] [PMID]
- Stern DH, Batty I. Pathogenic Clostridia 1st ed. Butterworth. London, U.K. 1975.
- McDonel JL. Toxins of Clostridium perfringens types A, B, C, D, and E. In pharmacology of Bacterial toxins ed., Dorner, F. and Drews, H. 1986; 477-517.Oxford: pergamon press.
- Baums CG, Schotte U, Amtsberg G. Diagnostic multiplex PCR for toxin genotyping of C. perfringens isolates. Vet Microbiol. 2004; 100(1-2):11-16. [DOI:10.1016/S0378-1135(03)00126-3]
- Chon JW, Park JS, Hyeon JY, Park C, Song KY, Hong KW, et al. Development of Real-Time PCR for the Detection of Clostridium perfringens in Meats and Vegetables. J Microbiol Biotechnol. 2012; 22:530-4. [DOI:10.4014/jmb.1107.07064] [PMID]
- 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. https://doi.org/10.3201/eid1707.110572

https://doi.org/10.3201/eid1701.P21101 [DOI:10.3201/eid1701.P11101] [PMID]

- 23. Crouch E, Golden N. A risk assessment for Clostridium perfringens in ready-to-eat and partially cooked meat and poultry products. Retrieved June. 2005; 24:2010.
- 24. Heikinheimo A, Lindström M, Korkeala H. Enumerationand isolation of cpe-positive Clostridium perfringensspores from feces. J Clin Microbiol. 2004; 42, 3992-7. [DOI:10.1128/JCM.42.9.3992-3997.2004]
 [PMID] [PMCID]
- Labbe R, Juneja V. Foodborne Infections and Intoxications: Chapter 6. Clostridium perfringens Gastroenteritis (Food Science and Technology, Clostridium perfringens gastroenteritis, 3rd ed. New York: Elsevier; 2006. [DOI:10.1016/B978-012588365-8/50008-6] [PMID]
- 26. Labbe, R. Guide to Foodborne Pathogens: Clostridium perfringens. 2001; 191-234.
- 27. Hobbs G, Cann D, Wilson, B. The incidence of organisms of the genes Clostridium in vacuum-packed fish in the United Kingdom. J Appl Bacteriol.1965; 28: 265-70.
 [DOI:10.1111/j.1365-2672.1965.tb02151.x]
 [PMID]
- Taniguti T, Zenitani B. Incidence of Clostridium perfringens in fish. I. On the application of LAS medium to detection of Clostridium perfringens. J Food Hyg Soc Jpn. 1969; 10:199-203. [DOI:10.3358/shokueishi.10.199]
- Lin YT, Labbe R. Enterotoxigenicity and genetic relatedness of Clostridium perfringens isolates from retail foods in the United States. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2003; 69:1642-6.
 [DOI:10.1128/AEM.69.3.1642-1646.2003]
 [PMID] [PMCID]
- Weber D, Saviteer S, Rutala W. In vitro susceptibility of Bacillus spp. to selected antimicrobial agents. Antimicrob Agents Chemother. 1998; 32:642-5.
 [DOI:10.1128/AAC.32.5.642] [PMID] [PMCID]
- Lynch M, Painter J, Woodruff R. Surveillance for Foodborne-Disease Outbreaks United States, 1998-2002. Surveill Summar. 2006; 55(SS10);1-34.
- Zhang T, Luo Q, Chen Y, Li T, Wen G, Zhang R, et al. Molecular epidemiology, virulence determinants and antimicrobial resistance of Campylobacter spreading in retail chicken meat in Central China. Gut Pathog. 2016; 8:48.
 [DOI:10.1186/s13099-016-0132-2] [PMID] [PMCID]
- Gkiourtzidis K, Frey J, Bourtzi-Hatzopoulou E. PCR detection and prevalence of alpha-, beta-, beta 2-, epsilon-, iota- and enterotoxin genes in

Clostridium perfringens isolated from lambs with clostridial dysentery. Vet Microbiol. 2001;82: 39-43. [DOI:10.1016/S0378-1135(01)00327-3]

- 34. Meer RR, Songer JG. Multiplex polymerase chain reaction assay for genotyping Clostridium perfringens. Am J Vet Res. 1997; 58:702-5.
- Miwa N, Nishina T, Kubo S, et al. Most probable numbers of enterotoxigenic Clostridium perfringens in intestinal contents of domestic livestock detected by nested PCR. J Vet Med Sci; 1997; 59:557-60. https://doi.org/10.1292/jvms.59.89
 [DOI:10.1292/jvms.59.557]
- Al-Khaldi SF, Myers KM, Rasooly A. Genotyping of Clostridium perfringens toxins using multiple oligonucleotide microarray hybridization. Mol Cell Probes. 2004; 18:359-67. [DOI:10.1016/j.mcp.2004.05.006] [PMID]
- Albini S, Brodard I, Jaussi A. Real-time multiplex PCR assays for reliable detection of Clostridium perfringens toxin genes in animal isolates. Vet Microbiol. 2008; 127:179-85. [DOI:10.1016/j.vetmic.2007.07.024] [PMID]
- Lund T, DeBuyser M, Granum PE. A new cytotoxin from Bacillus cereus that may cause necrotic enteritis. Mol Microbiol. 2000; 38:254-61. [DOI:10.1046/j.1365-2958.2000.02147.x] [PMID]
- Schulz M, Vukov N, Schulz A. Identification and partial characterization of the non-ribosomal peptide synthetase gene responsible for cereulide production in emetic Bacillus cereus. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2005; 71:105-14. [DOI:10.1128/AEM.71.1.105-113.2005] [PMID] [PMCID]
- 40. Miyamoto K, Wen Q, Bruce A. Multiplex PCR Genotyping Assay That Distinguishes between Isolates of Clostridium perfringens Type A Carrying a Chromosomal Enterotoxin Gene (cpe) Locus, a Plasmid cpe Locus with an IS1470-Like Sequence, or a Plasmid cpe Locus with an IS1151 Sequence. J Clin Microbiol. 2004; 42(4): 1552-8.
 [DOI:10.1128/JCM.42.4.1552-1558.2004]
 [PMID] [PMCID]
- Garmory HS, Chanter N, French NP. Occurrence of Clostridium perfringens b2-toxin amongst animals, determined using genotyping and subtyping PCR assays. Epidemiol Infect. 2000; 124:61-7 [DOI:10.1017/S0950268899003295] [PMID] [PMCID]
- McClane BA, and Strouse RJ. Rapid detection of Clostridium perfringens type A enterotoxin by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay. J Clin Microbiol. 1984; 19(2), 112-5.

[DOI:10.1128/jcm.19.2.112-115.1984] [PMID] [PMCID]

- Olsvik O, Granum PE, and Berdal BP. Detection of Clostridium perfringens type A enterotoxin by ELISA. Acta Pathol Microbiol Immunol Scand Sect B. 1982; 90:445-7. [DOI:10.1111/j.1699-0463.1982.tb00144.x] [PMID]
- 44. Chen K, Ahmed S, Sheng YJ, et al. Diagnostic Accuracy of Nucleic Acid Amplification Based Assays for Clostridium perfringens Associated Diseases: A Systematic Review and Metaanalysis. J Clin Microbiol, 2020; 24;58(9): e00363-20 [DOI:10.1128/JCM.00363-20]
- 45. Féraudet-Tarisse C, Mazuet C, Pauillac S, Krüger M, Lacroux C, Popoff MR, et al. Highly sensitive sandwich immunoassay and immunochromatographic test for the detection of Clostridial epsilon toxin in complex matrices. Plos one, 2017; 12(7), e0181013.
 [DOI:10.1371/journal.pone.0181013] [PMID] [PMCID]
- Löser R, Bader M, Kuchar M, Wodtke R, Lenk J, Wodtke J, et al. Synthesis, 18 F-labelling and radiopharmacological characterisation of the Cterminal 30mer of Clostridium perfringens enterotoxin as a potential claudin-targeting peptide. J Amino Acids, 2019; 1(2), 219-44. [DOI:10.1007/s00726-018-2657-9] [PMID]
- Jiang D, Liu F, Liu C. Induction of an electrochemiluminescence sensor for DNA detection of Clostridium perfringens based on rolling circle amplification. Anal Methods, 2014; 6(5), 1558-62. [DOI:10.1039/C3AY41961D]
- Uzal FA, Vidal JE, McClane BA, et al. Clostridium Perfringens Toxins Involved in Mammalian Veterinary Diseases. Open Toxinol J. 2010; 2: 24-42. [DOI:10.2174/1875414701003020024] [PMID] [PMCID]
- Doosti A, Pasand M, Mokhtari-Farsani A, et al. Prevalence of Clostridium perfringens type a isolates in different tissues of broiler chickens. Bulg J Vet Med. 2017; 1:20(1). [DOI:10.15547/bjvm.919]
- Zandi E, Mohammadabadi MR, Ezzatkhah M. Typing of Toxigenic Isolates of Clostridium perfringens by Multiplex PCR in Ostrich. Iran J Appl Anim Sci. 2014; 1:4(4).
- Afshari A, Jamshidi A, Razmyar J, et al. Molecular typing of Clostridium perfringens isolated from minced meat. Iran J Vet Sci Technol.2015;7(1):32-9.
- 52. Jabbari AR, Esmaelizad M, Samimi F. Identification of enterototxin harboring gene among Clostridium perfringens isolates with different toxin types in Iran. Iran J Vet Med. 2016;10(3):165-72.

- 53. Afshari A, Jamshidi A, Razmyar J, Rad M. Genotyping of Clostridium perfringens isolated from broiler meat in northeastern of Iran. Vet Res Forum. 2015;6(4) 279.
- 54. Shakerian A, Rahimi E, Mesbah J, et al. Molecular Detection of Clostridium Perfringens in Some Raw Animal Food Origin Products in Shahrekord. J Paramed Sci. 2017;11(4): 391-9.
- Poursoltani M, Mohsenzadeh M, Razmyar J. Toxinotyping of Clostridium perfringens strains isolated from packed chicken portions. Iran J Med Microbiol. 2014; 10;8(1):9-17.
- 56. Ezatkhah M, Alimolaei M, Shahdadnejad N. The Prevalence of netB Gene in Isolated Clostridium perfringens from organic broiler farms suspected to necrotic enteritis. International J Enteric Pathog. 2016; 16;4(3):3-5667. [DOI:10.15171/ijep.2016.03]
- Paredes-Sabja D, Torres JA, Setlow P, et al. Clostridium perfringens spore germination: characterization of germinants and their receptors. J Bacteriol. 2008; 190:1190-201. [DOI:10.1128/JB.01748-07] [PMID] [PMCID]
- Banawas S, Paredes-Sabja D, Korza G, Li Y, Hao B, Setlow P, et al. The Clostridium perfringens germinant receptor protein GerKC is located in the spore inner membrane and is crucial for spore germination. J Bacteriol. 2013; 195:5084-91. [DOI:10.1128/JB.00901-13] [PMID] [PMCID]
- Udompijitkul P, Alnoman M, Banawas S. et al. New amino acid germinants for spores of the enterotoxigenic Clostridium perfringens type A isolates. Food Microbiol. 2014; 44:24-33. [DOI:10.1016/j.fm.2014.04.011] [PMID]
- Alnoman M, Udompijitkul P, Paredes-Sabja D, et al. The inhibitory effects of sorbate and benzoate against Clostridium perfringens type A isolates. Food Microbiol, 2015; 48:89-98.
 [DOI:10.1016/j.fm.2014.12.007] [PMID]
- Udompijitkul P, Paredes-Sabja D, Sarker MR. Inhibitory effects of nisin against Clostridium perfringens food poisoning and nonfood-borne isolates. J Food Sci. 2012; 77:51-6. [DOI:10.1111/j.1750-3841.2011.02475.x] [PMID]
- Akhtar S, Paredes-Sabja D, Torres JA, et al. Strategy to inactivate Clostridium perfringens spores in meat products. Food Microbiol. 2009;

26:272-7. [DOI:10.1016/j.fm.2008.12.011] [PMID]

- Udompijitkul P, Alnoman M, Paredes-Sabja D, et al. Inactivation strategy for Clostridium perfringens spores adhered to food contact surfaces. Food Microbiol, 2103; 34:328-36.
 [DOI:10.1016/j.fm.2013.01.003] [PMID]
- 64. Delves-Broughton J. Nisin as a food preservative. Food Aust. 2005; 57:525-7. [DOI:10.1201/9781420028737.ch7]
- 65. Nerandzic MM, Donskey CJ. Triggering germination represents a novel strategy to enhance killing of Clostridium difficile spores. PLoS One. 2010; 5: e12285. [DOI:10.1371/journal.pone.0012285] [PMID] [PMCID]
- Ishimori T, Takahashi K, Goto M, Nakagawa S, Kasai Y, Konagaya Y, et al. Synergistic effects of high hydrostatic pressure, mild heating, and amino acids on germination and inactivation of Clostridium sporogenes spores. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2012; 78:8202-7.
 [DOI:10.1128/AEM.02007-12] [PMID] [PMCID]
- Talukdar PK, Udompijitkul P, Hossain A. Inactivation Strategies for Clostridium perfringens Spores and Vegetative Cells. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2016; 83(1), e02731-16. [DOI:10.1128/AEM.02731-16] [PMID] [PMCID]
- Titball RW. Clostridium perfringens vaccines. Vaccine. 2009 Nov 5;27 Suppl 4: D44-7. [DOI:10.1016/j.vaccine.2009.07.047] [PMID]
- Novak JS, Yuan JT. Increased inactivation of ozone-treated Clostridium perfringens vegetative cells and spores on fabricated beef surfaces using mild heat. J Food Prot. 2004; 67:342-6. [DOI:10.4315/0362-028X-67.2.342] [PMID]
- 70. Evelyn SFV. Use of power ultrasound to enhance the thermal inactivation of Clostridium perfringens spores in beef slurry. Int J Food Microbiol. 2015; 206(3):17-23.
 [DOI:10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2015.04.013]
 [PMID]
- Gombas DE, Gomez RF. Sensitization of Clostridium perfringens spores to heat by gamma radiation. Appl Environ Microbiol. 1978; 36:403-7. [DOI:10.1128/aem.36.3.403-407.1978] [PMID]