

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

PCR Versus Cytotoxicity Assay for Diagnosis of Antibiotics Associated Diarrhea Caused by *Clostridium difficile* infection

¹Hanan S. Abdel Khalek*, ¹Mona O. Ramadan, ²Amir F. Abedlhamid

¹Medical Microbiology and Immunology Department Faculty of Medicine Tanta University

²General Surgery Department, Tanta University Hospital

ABSTRACT

Key words:

Cytotoxicity, PCR, AAD

*Corresponding Author:

Hanan S. Abdel Khalek
Medical Microbiology and
Immunology Department
Faculty of Medicine Tanta
University
Tel : 01069008516
dr.hannam@gmail.com

Background: Antibiotic Associated Diarrhea (AAD) is a common health problem in patients under antibiotic therapy. *Clostridium difficile* is the commonest cause of AAD. **Objectives:** our study aimed to compare between cytotoxicity assay and PCR for the diagnosis of *Clostridium difficile* antibiotic associated diarrhea as regard specificity and sensitivity. **Methodology:** Stool samples were collected from patients clinically suspected to have antibiotic associated diarrhea and proved by sigmoidoscope from General Surgery Department in Tanta University. All samples were subjected to cytotoxicity assay to detect C-difficile toxin and PCR to detect *ctd B* gene encoding for toxin B. **Results:** Cytotoxicity test showed specificity 96% and sensitivity 90.5%. while PCR assay showed specificity 100% and sensitivity 98%. **Conclusion:** PCR is rapid, specific and sensitive in the diagnosis of C-difficile Antibiotic associated diarrhea.

INTRODUCTION

Antibiotic Associated Diarrhea (AAD) is a common health problem. It occurs in 20% of patients who are under antibiotic therapy.¹⁻³ The severity and prognosis of AAD depend on the type of accused antibiotic. Laboratory diagnosis of AAD is a world challenge.⁴ *Clostridium difficile* is the commonest causative agent of AAD. Pathogenesis is mainly via disturbance of normal gut microbiota or via toxin production that causes mucosal damage of GIT.⁵⁻⁸

AAD must be suspected in any patient receiving antibiotic within last 3 weeks.⁹ *Clostridium difficile* produces 2 types of toxins which are toxin A and B. It has been proved that toxin B produces cytopathicity besides being cytotoxic.¹⁰⁻¹²

Toxin B is more effective than toxin A in destroying colonic epithelium.¹³

Clostridium difficile has been recently reclassified as *clostridioides difficile*.¹⁴

Different methods were developed for its diagnosis. Blood-enriched Cycloserine–Cefoxitin–Fructose agar were developed and are still used in the laboratory in order to select *C. difficile* colonies from enteric microbiota.¹⁵⁻¹⁸ However, toxins can be tested by cytotoxicity assay, using a variety of cell lines with antitoxin neutralization to confirm the test. Although cytotoxicity assay is considered to be the gold standard test for diagnosis of *C-difficile* infection, it is time consuming and can not be used as a routine screening test. ELISA for glutamate dehydrogenase (GHD) antigen in stool is used for initial diagnosis.¹⁹

Diagnosis of *Clostridium difficile* in any patient having acute diarrhea > 3 time per 24 hours for at least 10 days is mandatory.²⁰

Megacolon and hirschspurg disease are predisposing factors for *Clostridium difficile* superinfection.²¹

Clostridium difficile is gram positive anaerobe that is considered to be normal flora but its superinfection occurs due to disturbance of normal gut population or what is called gut microbiota by antibiotics especially clindamycin and flouroquinolones.²²

Symptoms of AAD may include low grade fever, lower abdominal pain, watery to bloody diarrhea and septic shock in severe cases. Extracolonic presentation may occur in 5% of AAD. Sigmoidoscope, rectoscope and colonoscope may show mild inflammation or severe colonic mucosal involvement in the form of pseudomembrane on gut mucosa.²³

The Society for Healthcare Epidemiology of America (SHEA) 2017 recommended the use of one step or multistep tests to detect toxigenic *Clostridium difficile* in acute or chronic diarrhea with mucosal involvement.²⁴

METHODOLOGY

Subjects and design

This study was carried out during the period from August 2018 to August 2019. Thirty Patients were selected from General Surgery Department, Tanta University Hospital. They were suspected clinically to have antibiotic associated diarrhea and colitis.

Inclusion criteria:

Include watery, mucoid or bloody diarrhea that persist for more than 1 week after a history of prolonged antibiotic use as clindamycin or flourquinolones and mild fever with lower abdominal pain. All cases showed evident pseudomembranous colitis during sigmoidoscope and/or colonoscope.

Exclusion criteria:

Was antibiotic use denying by the patient, recent antibiotic use in previous 24 h, recent barium enema during last 10 days, use of antacid or normal sigmoidoscopic study. Thirty cases were included in the study. The age group ranged from 65-78years. Stool samples were collected in a clean leak proof containers and labeled with patient name and date of sample collection. The samples were transferred rapidly to the microbiological laboratory and processed. At least 2 ml of stool samples were used. All samples were subjected to cytotoxicity assay and PCR.

Ethical approval for this study was provided by ethical and research committee.

Cytotoxicity assay:

Cytotoxicity assay was performed using the *C-difficile* toxin antitoxin kit (Techlab, Blacksburg, va). Stool samples were washed by phosphate buffered saline and centrifuged. The deposit was discarded while the supernatant was added to 96 wells containing cell line of green African monkey .The test was considered positive if cytopathic rounding of cells occurs and prevented after neutralization with specific antitoxin to *Clostridium difficile*. The test was evaluated after 48hours.The test starts to show positive results after 24h while negative results were documented after 48h.

PCR Assay:

This assay aimed to detect the gene encoding for toxin B of *clostridium difficile* (ctd B). This gene is 322 bp molecular weight. DNA was extracted from stool samples using Qiagen extraction mini stool kits. According to manufacturer's instructions. Four microliters of each extracted sample was added in 50ul reaction mixture to the primers sequence corresponding to forward and reverse primers respectively (table 1).

The primer targets the *C-difficile* B toxin gene ctd B gene. Using thermal cycler 9600Perkin-Elmer and Taq polymerase (Qiagen), the amplification cycle were done consisting of initial denaturation step at 94°C for 3 min., 30 cycles of 94 °C for 45 S then 56C for 45 S then 72°C for 75S and final extension at 72°C for 10 min. Amplicons were detected in 1.3% agarose gel stained by ethidium bromide by gel electrophoresis. Step ladder marker from 100 to 1000 was used. Positive control using pure DNA from toxogenic *C-difficile* strain ATCC9689 was used in lane 1. The target gene was detected at 322bp.

Table 1: Forward and reverse primers designed for ctd B gene

Forward primer	(5'-TTTAGATACTACACACGAAG-3')
Reverse primer	(5'-GCCATTATACCTATCTTAGC-3')

RESULTS

This study was carried out on 30 patients suspected clinically as AAD and proven to have pseudomembranous colitis by sigmoidscopy. Out of 30 samples 22 samples were positive by cytotoxicity assay while 8 samples were negative by cytotoxicity assay .By PCR all 22 samples were positive for gene encoding toxin B while 3 out of 8 cases that were negative by cytotoxicity test were positive by PCR.

Cytotoxicity test showed specificity 96% and sensitivity 90.5%. While PCR assay showed specificity 100% and sensitivity 98%. (table2)

Table 2: Shows specificity, sensitivity, positive predictive value and negative predictive value of cytotoxicity and PCR

Assay	Specificity	Sensitivity	PPV	NPP
Cytotoxicity	96	90.5	89.5	97.1
PCR	100	98	99	98.1

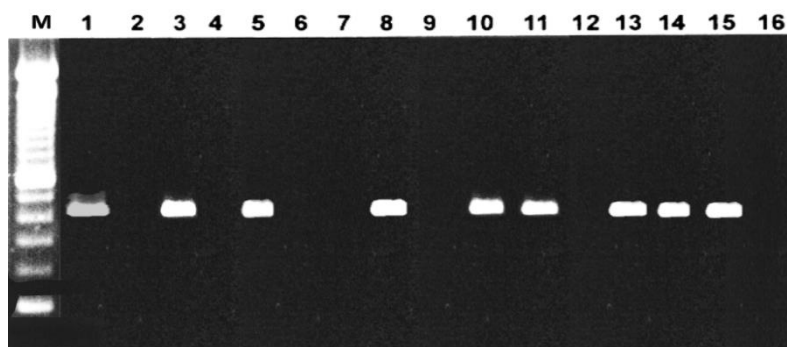


Photo1: Agarose gel electrophoresis for amplified product of ctdB gene
Lane 1: Positive control
Lane 3, 5, 8, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15 were positive

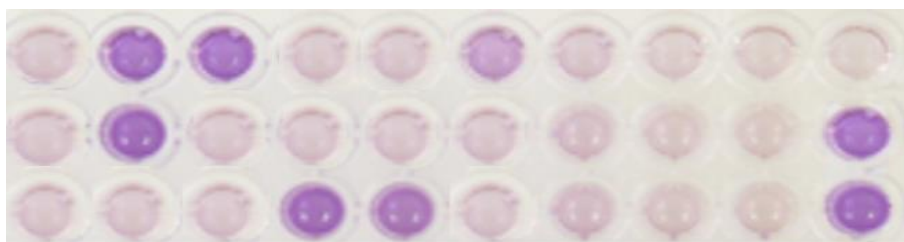


Photo 2: Cytotoxicity Assay test.

Dark color indicates negative results while light color indicates positive result

DISCUSSION

This study was carried out on 30 patients suspected clinically as AAD and proven to have pseudomembranous colitis by sigmoidoscopy. Out of 30 samples 22 samples were positive by cytotoxicity assay while 8 samples were negative. By PCR all 22 samples were positive for gene encoding toxin B (ctd B) while 3 out of 8 cases that were negative by cytotoxicity test were positive by PCR.

Cytotoxicity test showed specificity 96% and sensitivity 90.5% while PCR assay showed specificity 100% and sensitivity 98%.

This was in accordance with Deshpande et al²⁵ who found that PCR had a specificity of 96% and sensitivity of 95%.

This study was in accordance to Alcala et al²⁶ who found that the sensitivity, specificity, and positive and negative predictive values of the PCR assay were 93.5, 94.0, 73.0, and 98.8%, respectively.

Our study disagreed with Akerlund et al²⁷ who found that cytotoxicity assay had sensitivity, 90.9%, specificity, 95.2%, positive predictive value 70.2% and negative predictive value, 98.8%.

CONCLUSION

AAD is a common health problem. It needs urgent management to prevent mortality. *C-difficile* toxin is the key factor for the diagnosis. Although PCR assay is expensive but by measuring cost to benefit it must be used as a routine test for diagnosis of AAD. PCR is a rapid, specific and sensitive method.

Conflicts of interest:

- The authors declare that they have no financial or non financial conflicts of interest related to the work done in the manuscript.
- Each author listed in the manuscript had seen and approved the submission of this version of the manuscript and takes full responsibility for it.
- This article had not been published anywhere and is not currently under consideration by another journal or a publisher.

REFERENCES

1. Delmee, M. Laboratory diagnosis of *Clostridium difficile* disease. *Clin. Microbiol. Infect.* 2001; 7:411-416.
2. Bauer MP, van Dissel JT. Alternative strategies for *Clostridium difficile* infection. *Int J Antimicrob Agents* 2009; 33:S51–56.
3. Davies KA, Longshaw CM, Davis GL, Bouza E, Barbut F, Barna Z, et al. Underdiagnosis of *Clostridium difficile* across Europe: the European, multicentre, prospective, biannual, point-prevalence study of *Clostridium difficile* infection in hospitalised patients with diarrhoea (EUCLID). *Lancet Infect Dis* 2014; 14:1208–1219.
4. Debast SB, Bauer MP, Kuijper EJ Committee. European society of clinical microbiology and infectious diseases: update of the treatment guidance document for *Clostridium difficile* infection. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2014;20(2):1–26.
5. Mackay IM. Real-time PCR in the microbiology laboratory. *Clin. Microbiol. Infect.* 2004; 10:190-212.
6. Niesters HG: Clinical virology in real time. *J. Clin. Virol.* 2004; 25(Suppl. 3).S3-2.
7. Oldfield EC: *Clostridium difficile*-associated diarrhea: risk factors, diagnostic methods, and treatment. *Rev. Gastroenterol. Disord.* 2004; 4:186-195.
8. Snell H, Ramos M, Longo S, John M, and Hussain Z. Performance of the TechLab C. DIFF CHEK-60 enzyme immunoassay (EIA) in combination with the C. *difficile* Tox A/B II EIA kit, the Triage C. *difficile* panel immunoassay, and a cytotoxic assay for diagnosis of *Clostridium difficile*-associated diarrhea. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* 2004;42:4863-4865.
9. Van den Berg RJ, Kuijper EJ, Bruijnesteijn van Coppenraet ES, and Claas ECJ. *Clin. Microbiol. Infect.* 2003; in press.

10. Van den Berg, RJ, Claas EC, Oyib DH, Klaassen CH, Dijkshoorn L, Brazier JS, and Kuijper EJ. Characterization of toxin A-negative, toxin B-positive *Clostridium difficile* isolates from outbreaks in different countries by amplified fragment length polymorphism and PCR ribotyping. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* 2004; 42:1035-1041.
11. Van den Berg, R.J, Ameen HA, Furusawa T, Claas EC, van der Vorm ER, and Kuijper EJ. Coexistence of multiple PCR-ribotype strains of *Clostridium difficile* in faecal samples limits epidemiological studies. *J. Med. Microbiol.* 2005; 54:173-179.
12. Wilkins TD and Lyerly DM. *Clostridium difficile* testing: after 20 years, still challenging. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* 2003; 41:531-534.
13. Zheng L, Keller SF, Lyerly DM, Carman RJ, Genheimer CW, Gleaves CA, Kohlhepp SJ, Young S, Perez S, and Ye K. Multicenter evaluation of a new screening test that detects *Clostridium difficile* in fecal specimens. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* 2004; 42:3837-3840
14. Russello G, Russo A, Sisto F, Scaltrito MM, Farina C. Laboratory diagnosis of *Clostridium difficile* associated diarrhoea and molecular characterization of clinical isolates. *New Microbiol* 2012; 35:307–316.
15. Deneve C, Janoir C, Poilane I, Fantinato C, Collignon A. New trends in *Clostridium difficile* virulence and pathogenesis. *Int J Antimicrob Agents* 2009; 33:S24–28.
16. Persson S, Torpdahl M, Olsen K. New multiplex PCR method for the detection of *Clostridium difficile* toxin A (tcdA) and toxin B (tcdB) and the binary toxin (cdtA/cdtB) genes applied to a Danish strain collection. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 2008; 14:1057–1064
17. De Boer E, Zwartkruis-Nahuis A, Heuvelink AE, Harmanus C, Kuijper EJ. Prevalence of *Clostridium difficile* in retailed meat in the Netherlands. *Int J Food Microbiol* 2011; 144:561–564.
18. Dubberke ER, Wertheimer AI. Review of current literature on the economic burden of *Clostridium difficile* infection. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol* 2009; 30:57–66.
19. Landelle C, Verachten M, Legrand P, Girou E, Barbut F, Buisson CB. Contamination of healthcare workers' hands with *Clostridium difficile* spores after caring for patients with *C. difficile* infection. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol* 2014; 35:10–15.
20. Bowman KA, Broussard EK, Surawicz CM. Fecal microbiota transplantation: current clinical efficacy and future prospects. *Clin Exp Gastroenterol* 2015;8:285–291.
21. Garcia LB, Uzeda Md. Occurrence of *Clostridium difficile* in fecal samples of children in Rio de Janeiro, RJ. *Rev Inst Med Trop Sao Paulo* 1988; 30:419–423.
22. Sachu A, Dinesh K, Siyad I, Kumar A, Vasudevan A, Karim S. A prospective cross sectional study of detection of *Clostridium difficile* toxin in patients with antibiotic associated diarrhoea. *Iran J Microbiol* 2018; 10:1–6.
23. Segar L, Easow JM, Srirangaraj S, Hanifah M, Joseph NM, Seetha K. Prevalence of *Clostridium difficile* infection among the patients attending a tertiary care teaching hospital. *Indian J Pathol Microbiol* 2017; 60:221–225.
24. Wilcox MH, Gerding DN, Poxtom IR et al. Bezlotoxumab for prevention of recurrent *Clostridium difficile* infection. *N Engl J Med* 2017; 376 30517.
25. Deshpande A, Pasupuleti V, PCHall G and Jai A: Potential value of repeat stool testing for *Clostridium difficile* stool toxin using enzyme immunoassay *Curr Med R* 2010; 26:2635-41.
26. Alcalá L, Sanchez-Cambronero L, Catalan MP, Sanchez-Somolinos M, Pelaez MT, Marin M and Bouza E. Comparison of three commercial methods for rapid detection of *Clostridium difficile* toxins A and B from fecal specimens. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* 2008; 46:3833-3835.
27. Akerlund T, Persson I, Unemo M, Norén T, Svenungsson B, Wullt M, and Burman LG. Increased sporulation rate of epidemic *Clostridium difficile* type 027/NAP1. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* 2008; 46:1530-1533.