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Occurrence of *Salmonella enterica* subsp. *enterica* in bivalve molluscs and associations with *Escherichia coli* in molluscs and faecal coliforms in seawater

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**Occurrence of *Salmonella* spp. in bivalve molluscs and associations with *Escherichia coli* in molluscs and faecal coliforms in seawater**

**Silva Rubini<sup>a</sup>, Giorgio Galletti<sup>a</sup>, Mario D’Incau<sup>a</sup>, Guido Govoni<sup>b</sup>, Lari Boschetti<sup>c</sup>, Chiara Berardelli<sup>c</sup>, Stefania Barbieri<sup>d</sup>, Giuseppe Merialdi<sup>a</sup>, Andrea Formaglio<sup>d</sup>, Enrica Guidi<sup>d</sup>, Mauro Bergamini<sup>d</sup>, Silvia Piva<sup>e</sup>, Andrea Serraino<sup>e</sup>, Federica Giacometti<sup>e\*</sup>**

<sup>a</sup>Experimental Institute for Zooprophyllaxis in Lombardy and Emilia Romagna, Via Bianchi 9, 25124 Brescia, Italy

<sup>b</sup>International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), 19 Avenue de la Paix 1202, Geneva, Switzerland

<sup>c</sup>Public Health Unit of Ferrara, U.O.D. Igiene degli alimenti di Origine Animale, Via Cassoli 30, 44121 Ferrara, Italy

<sup>d</sup>Department of Medical Sciences, Branch of Public Health Medicine, University of Ferrara, Via Fossato di Mortara 64/b, 44121 Ferrara, Italy

<sup>e</sup>Department of Veterinary Medical Sciences, University of Bologna, Via Tolara di Sopra 50, 40064 Ozzano dell'Emilia, Bologna, Italy

(\*) **Corresponding author:** Federica Giacometti, Tel.: +39 51 2097320; fax: +39 51 2097346. E-mail address: federica.giacometti3@unibo.it (F. Giacometti).

**Keywords:** bivalve molluscs, seawaters, *Salmonella* spp., *Escherichia coli*, faecal coliforms

**ABSTRACT**

The objectives of this study were to present data on the presence of *Salmonella* spp. and on the enumeration of *Escherichia coli* and faecal coliforms respectively in different species of bivalve

27 molluscs and seawater and to conduct a retrospective evaluation to assess the capacity of *E. coli* in  
28 molluscs and faecal coliforms and *Salmonella* spp. in sea and brackish water to predict the presence  
29 of *Salmonella* spp. in bivalve molluscs, and therefore, the risk of exposure for consumers. Data were  
30 collected from 4972 seawater samples and 5785 live bivalve molluscs samples (2877 *Ruditapes*  
31 *philippinarum*, 2177 *Mytilus galloprovincialis*, 256 *Chamela gallina* and 475 *C. gigas* and *O. edulis*)  
32 collected in the molluscs production area of Ferrara, Northern Italy, from 1997 to 2015. An overall  
33 *Salmonella* spp. occurrence of 2.2% was reported in water and molluscs, with percentages varying  
34 depending on the type of sample and on the classification areas. All the 237 *Salmonella* strains were  
35 identified as *Salmonella enterica* and a total of 53 different serovars were observed. Significant  
36 associations between the fecal indicators and presence of *Salmonella* spp. were observed both  
37 applying EU and USA criteria, but, it should be noted that the EU approach seems to be more stringent  
38 achieving the goal of identifying the most critical batches (94 out of the 100) whereas, following the  
39 USA approach, a not negligible and higher number of batches compliant for faecal coliforms but  
40 contaminated by *Salmonella* spp. has to be mentioned. In any case, the faecal indicators *E. coli* in  
41 molluscs and faecal coliforms in seawaters reflect only in part the presence of *Salmonella* spp. in  
42 molluscs and the consequent potential risk for consumers. Microbiological evaluation of seawaters  
43 seems to have a minor impact into the prediction of *Salmonella* spp. presence in molluscs.

44

## 45 **1. Introduction**

46 In Italy bivalve molluscs such as Manila clams (*Ruditapes philippinarum*) and mussels (*Mytilus*  
47 *galloprovincialis*) represent products of great economic importance whereas striped clams (*Chamela*  
48 *gallina*) and oysters (*Crassostrea gigas* and *Ostrea edulis*) are of less economic importance. Overall  
49 they are widely distributed in the food trade and, specifically for *R. philippinarum*, Italy is the second  
50 producer after China (Turolla, 2008).

51 In relation to the sanitary control of shellfish produced and sold for human consumption, two main  
52 **control systems** are in place in the European Community (EC) and United States of America (USA):

53 these are the principal systems used worldwide and countries that trade with EU and/or USA will use  
54 either one, or a hybrid of the two systems (Gosling, 2015). In Europe, according to Regulation  
55 853/2004, areas in which bivalve molluscs are cultivated in marine or brackish water must be  
56 previously classified by veterinary authorities as production area A, B or C depending on the content  
57 of *Escherichia coli* in the soft parts and flesh and intravalvular liquid of harvested bivalves, with an  
58 upper limit of respectively 230, 4600 and 46000 MPN *E. coli*/100 g sample material is for class A, B  
59 and C areas. Bivalve molluscs from class A area can be placed directly on the market provided that  
60 they comply with microbiological criteria requirements, whereas molluscs from class B area must be  
61 purified by resuspension at class A area, or heat-treated before distribution, and, finally molluscs  
62 from class C area, a resuspension at class A area over a long period of time or a sufficient heat  
63 treatment is needed.

64 In relation to food safety criteria laid down in EC Regulation 2073/2005 concerning bivalve to be  
65 placed on the market, the absence of *Salmonella* spp. in 25 g of flesh and an upper limit of 230 MPN  
66 *E. coli*/100 g sample material are mandatory; according to EC Regulation 2285/2015, from 1<sup>st</sup> January  
67 2017, 20% of the samples may contain *E. coli* between 230 and 700 MPN/100 g sample material  
68 while the remaining 80% of the samples must be below 230 MPN/100 g sample material. In the USA,  
69 the official controls system is based on the National Shellfish Sanitation Program (NSSP), that is a  
70 federal/state cooperative programme recognized by Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and the  
71 Interstate Shellfish Conference that is substantially different from the EU one; for example, the  
72 microbiological monitoring is based on water testing and considers either total coliforms or faecal  
73 coliforms, not *E. coli*, and to achieve 'approved' status the geometric mean faecal coliforms count  
74 per water sample from an area must not exceed 14 Most probable Number (MPN)/100 ml, and the  
75 ninetieth percentile must not exceed 43 MPN/100 ml (NSSP, 2017).

76 It is well known that live bivalve molluscs, being suspension feeders that gain nourishment by  
77 pumping large volumes of water from the environment through their gills, actively filter and retain  
78 particles from their surrounding water, including free living or particle bound bacteria, viruses and

79 parasites. This highlights the role of bivalve molluscs as vehicle for several hazards that could result  
80 in potential health risks for consumers, particularly if live bivalve molluscs are eaten raw or lightly  
81 cooked. With specific regard to bacteria, the microbiota found in bivalve molluscs include indigenous  
82 bacteria that naturally occur in marine or estuarine environments (mostly *Vibrio* spp.), non-  
83 indigenous bacteria, usually enteric bacteria, derived from faecal contamination (mostly *Salmonella*  
84 spp., *E. coli*, *Shigella* spp. and rarely *Campylobacter* spp. and *Yersinia enterocolitica*), and bacteria  
85 from contamination during food preparation and processing by the distribution industry or consumers  
86 (*Bacillus cereus*, *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Clostridium perfringens*) (Anacleto, Pedro, Leonor, Rosa,  
87 & Marques, 2013).

88 *Salmonella* is the second most common cause of human gastroenteritis (EFSA & ECDC, 2016): the  
89 risks of foodborne illness associated with *Salmonella* in molluscs are low compared to viruses and  
90 *Vibrio* spp. (Iwamoto, Ayers, Mahon, & Swerdlow, 2010; NACMCF, 1992) but there is a  
91 considerable amount of epidemiological data regarding the presence of *Salmonella* in seafood and  
92 related illness. The EU summary report on zoonoses, zoonotic agents and food-borne outbreaks in  
93 2015 reports that, for the causative agent of foodborne outbreaks by food vehicle, in “fish, shellfish,  
94 molluscs, crustaceans and products thereof”, histamine was the leading cause of strong-evidence  
95 outbreaks (52.5%) followed by calicivirus including Norwalk-like virus (norovirus) (25%) and  
96 *Salmonella* (12.5%) (EFSA & ECDC, 2016).

97 Even if *Salmonella* spp. are not natural inhabitant of the aquatic environment, several *Salmonella*  
98 serovars are widely distributed in water (sea, estuarine, river) and in a variety of seafood, with the  
99 highest prevalence in molluscs, shrimp, clams, and various fish species (Novoslavskij et al., 2016).

100 *Salmonella* spp. and, in general, faecally derived enteric pathogens, are introduced into the aquatic  
101 environment via anthropogenic activities like inappropriate disposal of human wastes, agricultural  
102 runoffs or sewage discharges (Malham et al., 2014) as well as wildlife (Obiri-Danso & Jones, 2000),  
103 and, given the reported ability to survive long periods in different aquatic environments, these  
104 microorganisms could pass into new hosts (Amagliani, Brandi, & Schiavano, 2012). Yet the use of

105 faecal bacterial indicators in bivalve monitoring was based on their relation to the probable  
106 occurrence of human faecal pathogens: it has been well remarked that no correlation was between  
107 faecal microorganisms and both *Vibrio* spp. and viruses for humans, but, the true evidence of this  
108 correlation in relation to *Salmonella* spp. is still a matter of debate.

109 The current publication presents data on the presence of *Salmonella* spp. and on the enumeration of  
110 *E. coli* in different species of bivalve molluscs, namely Manila clams (*R. philippinarum*), mussels  
111 (*M. galloprovincialis*), striped clams (*C. gallina*) and oysters (*C. gigas* and *O. edulis*), and on faecal  
112 coliform levels in water samples from seashore and inland channels of the Ferrara province, Emilia-  
113 Romagna Region, Northern Italy with a continuous sampling history from 1997 to 2015. In addition,  
114 a retrospective evaluation was conducted to assess: i) the capacity of the faecal indicator *E. coli* to  
115 predict the presence of *Salmonella* spp. in bivalve molluscs, and therefore, the risk of exposure for  
116 consumers; ii) the efficacy of sea and brackish water analysis for faecal coliforms and *Salmonella*  
117 spp. to predict the presence of *Salmonella* spp. in live bivalve molluscs iii) the comparison of the  
118 regulations currently in force in USA versus Europe.

119

## 120 **2. Material and methods**

### 121 *2.1. Sample and data collection*

122 Microbiological records for *E. coli*, faecal coliforms and *Salmonella* spp. analyses of live bivalve  
123 molluscs and water were collated from official monitoring performed by the regional Veterinary  
124 Authority from 1997 to 2015 and from a shellfish monitoring program that has been carried out since  
125 1997 in the province of Ferrara, Emilia Romagna region, Italy. A total of 10757 samples were  
126 collected, respectively 4972 seawater samples (of which 1237 in class A area and 3735 in class B  
127 area) and 5785 live bivalve molluscs samples; the examined bivalve molluscs comprise 2877 Manila  
128 clams (*R. philippinarum*, all in class B area), 2177 mussels (*M. galloprovincialis*, 969 and 1208 in  
129 class A and B areas), 256 striped clams (*C. gallina*, all in class A area) and 475 oysters (*C. gigas* and  
130 *O. edulis*, respectively 62 and 413 in class A and B areas). A total of 4815 paired samples of bivalve

131 mollusc and seawater were collected. Each mollusc sample comprised at least 10 live individuals  
132 (commercial size or adult product) that were analyzed for *Salmonella* spp. detection and *E. coli*  
133 enumeration. Seawater samples were collected in from 0.2 m below the water surface using 1.2 L  
134 polypropylene or glass bottle for *Salmonella* spp. detection and for faecal coliforms count. All  
135 samples were transported under chilled conditions to the laboratory and processed within 24 h after  
136 collection.

137

## 138 2.2. Sampling site

139 All the samplings were performed in the north-western area of the Adriatic Sea facing the Po river  
140 delta, the major Italian river which, from spring to estuary, flows through the Po Valley (Pianura  
141 Padana) for a total of 652 Km. The Po Valley is a high populated area with abundant large animals  
142 intensive farms. The Po River, near to its end in the Adriatic sea, creates a wide delta with a surface  
143 area of 31 Km<sup>2</sup> and an average depth of 1.5 m; its hydrographic network is for the most part artificially  
144 regulated, and, as a consequence, freshwater flows are partially independent of rain events. More than  
145 one third of the lagoon surface is exploited for clam farming, with an annual production that reached  
146 a maximum of 87000 t y<sup>-1</sup> in 2011 (Bison, 2012).

147 The areas of molluscs production have been divided into 5 sub-areas (see Figure 1): i) long-line: the  
148 marine class A area used to breed mostly mussels and secondary oysters; ii) Lupini: the coastal marine  
149 area including seawaters between 1 and 2 nautical miles that is classified as class A area in which  
150 natural banks of striped clams are present and harvested; iii) B-Out: the narrow sea coastal area and  
151 inland waters classified as class B area; iv) B-In: class B area that includes the inner channels directly  
152 connected to the sea, together with internal waters; v) Sacca: the class B area included between the  
153 Po river and the marine coastline. All these last three sub-areas were used to breed mussels, Manila  
154 clams and oysters.

155

## 156 2.3. Microbiological analyses



157 All samples were analyzed at the Experimental Institute for Zooprophyllaxis of Lombardy and Emilia  
158 Romagna in Ferrara. For live bivalve molluscs, the isolation of *Salmonella* spp. was performed using  
159 the official International Organization for Standardization (ISO) cultural methods, UNI EN ISO  
160 6579:1993 still 2002, the ISO 6579:2002 since 2003 with its technical corrigendum and amendments,  
161 whereas, *E. coli* was enumerated using a 5 tube 3 dilutions MPN procedure based on ISO 16649-3.  
162 For water analysis, the isolation of *Salmonella* spp. was carried out filtering a sample volume of 1000  
163 mL through 0.45 µm-pore size membrane filters according to APAT CNR IRSA 7080 procedure  
164 (APAT, 2003); the enumeration of faecal coliform and *E. coli* from 1998 to 2014 were performed by  
165 a five tube three dilutions MPN methods according respectively to APAT CNR IRSA 7020 and 7030  
166 procedures (APAT, 2003), whereas from August 2014, a membrane filtering method was applied  
167 (APAT, 2003).

168 Cultures displaying a reaction typical of *Salmonella* (an alkaline slant and acid butt, with or without  
169 production of H<sub>2</sub>S) were confirmed by biochemical tests using miniaturized galleries, e.g. API-20E  
170 strip (bioMérieux, Marcy l'Etoile, France) or MID (Microgen Bioproduct Ltd, Camberley, United  
171 Kingdom) (Anacleto et al. 2013; APAT, 2003). The serotyping of *Salmonella* strains was performed  
172 using commercial antisera (BBL Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, USA; Statens Serum Institut,  
173 Copenhagen, Denmark); following the White-Kauffman-Le Minor serotyping scheme (Baudart,  
174 Lemarchand, & Brisabois, 2000).

175

#### 176 2.4. Statistical analysis

177 Fisher's exact test were used to study the association between the occurrence of *Salmonella* spp. in  
178 molluscs and: i) *E. coli* levels in molluscs; ii) faecal coliform levels in paired seawater; iii) presence  
179 of *Salmonella* spp. in paired seawater.

180 To perform the statistical analysis the *E. coli* counts in molluscs were divided based on the *E. coli*  
181 contamination level laid down into EC Regulation 2073/2005 as food safety criteria applicable for  
182 products from class A areas, namely collected for direct human consumption and placed on the

183 market, irrespective of the fact that samples were collected from class A or B areas. Therefore, two  
184 groups were considered using 230 MPN/100g as cutoff. Similarly results of fecal coliforms count in  
185 water were divided in three categories identified according to the classification approach used in USA  
186 with standards set for categories ranging from waters with low contamination levels,  $\leq 14$ , between  
187 14 and  $\leq 43$  and  $> 43$  MPN/100 ml water. Data on faecal coliforms was available since 1999.

188

### 189 3. Results

190 A total of 237 out of 10757 samples (2.2%) were positive for *Salmonella* spp., respectively 137  
191 seawater samples (2.8%) and 100 bivalve molluscs (1.7%): the presence of *Salmonella* spp. ranged  
192 from 0 to 3.4% depending on the type of sample and on the classification areas (Table 1).

193 The overall *Salmonella* spp. prevalence differs considerably through the years and between water  
194 class areas and species of molluscs: water prevalences were of 0 to 4.2% and of 0 to 13.8%  
195 respectively for class A and B areas; in molluscs, *R. philippinarum* (collected only in class B area)  
196 reported higher prevalences of 0 to 8.2% followed by *M. galloprovincialis* (0 to 4.3% and of 0 to  
197 2.4% respectively for class A and B areas), *C. gallina* (collected only in class A area) with prevalences  
198 of 0 to 4.3% and lastly *C. gigas* and *O. edulis* with prevalences of 0 to 2.1%.

199 All the 237 *Salmonella* strains were identified as *Salmonella enterica* and a total of 53 different  
200 serovars were observed (Figure 2), respectively 43 and 32 serovars from the 137 and 100 seawater  
201 and molluscs positive samples. *Salmonella* ser. Typhimurium resulted the dominant serotype  
202 (26.9%), followed by its monophasic variant 4,[5],12:i:- (11.8%), *Salmonella* Derby (6.3%),  
203 *Salmonella* Newport (5.5%), and *Salmonella* Thompson (4.6%).

204 A significant association was observed between *E. coli* levels in molluscs and presence of *Salmonella*  
205 spp. in molluscs samples, both from class A and B areas. In more details, an association was observed  
206 in *R. philippinarum* from class B area (no *R. philippinarum* were on class A area) and in *M.*  
207 *galloprovincialis* collected only from class A area, not for class B area (table 2).

208 A significant association was observed between faecal coliforms levels in seawater and presence of  
209 *Salmonella* spp. both in total molluscs and *R. philippinarum* samples (table 3).

210 A significant association between presence of *Salmonella* spp. in molluscs and paired seawater was  
211 observed only for *R. philippinarum* samples (see table 4), where a co-presence of *Salmonella* spp. in  
212 13 samples was observed. In 5 samples the same serovar was isolated in the two different matrices,  
213 respectively *S. enterica* serovars Typhimurium (3 samples), its monophasic variant 4,[5],12:i:- (1  
214 sample) and *Salmonella* Thompson (1 sample).

215

#### 216 **4. Discussion**

217 Only safe food should be placed on the market (Regulation EC 178/2002). With regards to bivalve  
218 molluscs, the climate change, the pollution and the anthropogenic factors as well as the food  
219 distributions and consumers behaviour changes (undercooked or raw seafood consumption, mainly  
220 bivalve molluscs) have created a cunning environment in which each element may have a potential  
221 impact on food safety. In this context, it appears evident that the aquatic environment and its quality  
222 and/or safety is a critical point for live bivalve molluscs that, being excellent bio-samplers, reflect the  
223 quality of the surrounding water in a given location. This study, reporting data on the presence of  
224 *Salmonella* spp. and on the enumeration of *E. coli* in different species of bivalve molluscs and of fecal  
225 coliform in water samples, with a continuous sampling history over 19-year-period (1997 through  
226 2015), is useful to present the real scenario in which bivalve molluscs are bred in the molluscs  
227 production area of Ferrara, leading us to perform some considerations.

228 An overall occurrence of *Salmonella* spp. of 2.2% was reported in water and molluscs collected in  
229 the considered production area: this rate could be considered low, but, at the same time poses a not  
230 negligible threat for the assessment of the risks of faecal pollutions in the aquatic environment. The  
231 significance of *Salmonella* spp. as human pathogen and as a leading cause of food-borne illness is  
232 well known, but, the observed occurrence suggests to reconsider the role and the ecology of this  
233 allochthonous pathogen at the base of the marine and estuarine environment and ecosystem; in fact,

234 although allochthonous organisms are historically viewed as transient member of the microbial  
235 community of coastal waters, the coastal environment may serve as an important niche for these  
236 microorganisms to persist, exchange genetic material, and grow (Bienfang et al., 2011).

237 The observed *Salmonella* spp. occurrence in seawater and bivalve molluscs is in agreement with  
238 available data in literature, in which the prevalence rates considerably vary depending on climate  
239 conditions, the season and area of samplings, the type of considered seafood and similar or different  
240 environmental conditions (estuarine or seawater, after rainfall, low solar radiation) (Amagliani et al.,  
241 2012; Novoslavskij et al., 2016); in Italy, *Salmonella* spp. prevalence rates from 0 to 3.1% were  
242 reported (Normanno, Parisi, Addante, Quaglia, & Dambrosio, 2006; Mazzette, Virgilio, Piras,  
243 Tempesta & Serra, 2010; Serracca et al., 2010; Prato et al., 2013; Fusco, Aprea, Galiero, Guarino, &  
244 Viscardi, 2011; Carraro et al., 2015; EFSA & ECDC, 2016). In our 19-years period of monitoring in  
245 live bivalve molluscs, from class A areas (products that can be placed directly on the market) only 6  
246 out of the 1287 (0.5%) samples collected resulted *Salmonella* spp. positive, showing a good insight  
247 the official monitoring usefulness. In the other hand, a total of 94 samples resulted *Salmonella* spp.  
248 positive among the 4498 (2%) molluscs collected from class B areas (molluscs that may be placed on  
249 the market only after treatment in a purification centre or after relaying); no food safety considerations  
250 could be gathered from these data, but, again, the EU classification areas approach achieves the goal  
251 of identifying the most critical batches (94 out of the 100).

252 Lastly, it should be noted that 87 out of total 100 *Salmonella* spp. positive molluscs were *R.*  
253 *philippinarum* and, therefore, an higher *Salmonella* spp. prevalence in Manila clams than the other  
254 bivalve molluscs species considered in this study has to be reported, according with the studies of  
255 Anacleto et al. (2013), that reported an occurrence of 17% and 25%, respectively for *V. pullastra* and  
256 *R. philippinarum*, and of Carraro et al. (2015) that observed the presence of *Salmonella* spp. in only  
257 one sample of Manila clam among the 540 samples analyzed.

258 In literature, other studies investigated the correlation between the presence of *Salmonella* spp. and  
259 the bacterial indicator of faecally pollution *E. coli* in bivalve molluscs, even if with contrasting results,

260 but, as far as we known, no other studies were on the comparison of bacterial indicators of faecal  
261 pollution *E. coli* in molluscs and faecal coliforms in water (representative of EU and USA monitoring  
262 approaches) in relation to the power of prediction of the presence of *Salmonella* spp. in bivalve  
263 molluscs.

264 Literature reports that bacterial indicators of faecal pollution in water provide an adequate indicator  
265 of *Salmonella* spp. presence in waters (Efstratiou, Mavridou, & Richardson, 2009; Ferguson, Coote,  
266 Ashbolt, & Stevenson, 1996; Morinigo, Castro, Balebona, Munoz, & Borrego, 1992) and in bivalve  
267 molluscs, particularly in *R. philippinarum*, or in other bivalve species like oysters (Anacleto et al.,  
268 2013), but, on several occasions or no *Salmonella* spp. was detected in samples with high indicator  
269 counts or *Salmonella* spp. was detected in samples with low indicator counts (Dionisio, Joao, Ferreira,  
270 Fidalgo, & Garc, 2000; Efstratiou, Mavridou, & Richardson, 2009; Hood, Ness, & Blake, 1983;  
271 Mannas, Mimouni, Chaouqy, Hamadi, & Martinez-urtaza, 2014; Moriglino, Cornax, Oz, Romero, &  
272 Borrego, 1990). In this context, despite our monitoring was not drawn with the specific aim of testing  
273 these associations, and therefore, it could be biased by several factors, our study results is a useful  
274 and robust tool for assessing the *E. coli*, faecal coliform and *Salmonella* spp. parameters all together  
275 in a long period of time and in a specific area and considering both water versus molluscs and mollusc  
276 versus mollusc and some considerations could be performed from our findings.

277 A significant associations between fecal indicators and presence of *Salmonella* spp. was observed  
278 both applying EU and USA criteria prevalently for *R. philippinarum*, whereas, the weight carried for  
279 the other observed associations resulted of less importance or partially affected by *R. philippinarum*  
280 results. Considering that the *R. philippinarum* data we analyzed belongs exclusively from class B  
281 area, it seems evident that or this fact may has biased our findings or *R. philippinarum* really has a  
282 different behavior with respect with other bivalve species.

283 It should be noted that, following EU regulations and its official monitoring system, only two batches  
284 (0.2%) with *E. coli* levels  $\leq 230$  MPN/100 g in molluscs from class A area showed the presence of  
285 *Salmonella* spp. in molluscs, whereas, following the NSSP, a total of 58 batches (1.6%) with faecal

coliforms  $\leq 14$  MPN/100 ml in seawaters, were contaminated by *Salmonella* spp. Shellfish from “approved” waters, namely waters in which the MPN faecal coliforms median does not exceed the considered value of  $\leq 14$  MPN/100 ml water, can be sold directly on the market without prior treatment (Gosling, 2015). In this specific case, a not negligible and higher number of batches compliant for the faecal indicators but contaminated by *Salmonella* spp. has to be mentioned. This scenario is not representative of the current situation for two reasons: i) the sampling plan was not designed to assess the microbiological quality of waters according to NSSP; ii) the statistical evaluation could not be performed calculating the geometric mean of fecal coliforms enumeration but only singular values were considered. On the other hand calculating the gemetric median of all data collected in this study on fecal coliform contamination of water a level of 12 MPN/100 ml water was obtained, finding that could be considered compliant with NSSP. Despite our attempts, in one hand, this estimation should be considered anyway a forced parameter which remains an important data gap having some implications in the final outputs of this association, but in the other, it should be noted that, in general, concentrations of faecal coliform bacteria under steady-state conditions are approximately 10 to 100 times higher in bivalves than the surrounding seawater (Strubbia, Lyons, & Lee, 2016; Bernard, 1989). This demonstrates the fact that the occurrence of faecal bacteria in waters is highly variable and depending on several factors including pollution sources as well as environmental conditions that are not easily identifiable and testable. This observation should be taken into account in relation to the different approaches used for faecal indicators, that in the EU are measured in shellfish flesh while in the USA in shellfish-growing waters.

306

## 307 **5. Conclusion**

308 This study has reported the presence of *Salmonella* spp. in seawaters and in bivalve molluscs collected  
309 in the Ferrara area from 1997 to 2015 and has demonstrated that its presence varied by bivalve species  
310 considered, classification areas in which molluscs were collected and sampling occasion. The faecal  
311 indicators *E. coli* in molluscs and faecal coliforms in seawaters reflect only in part the presence of

312 *Salmonella* spp. in molluscs and the consequent potential risk for consumers. Microbiological  
313 evaluation of seawaters seems to have a minor impact into the prediction of *Salmonella* spp. presence  
314 in molluscs.

315

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