

Food safety risks in traditional fermented food from South-East Asia

Anil Kumar Anal, Giorgia Perpetuini, Awanwee Petchkongkaew, Reasmey Phary Tan, Sylvie Avallone, Rosanna Tofalo, Hai Van Nguyen, Son Chu-Ky, Phu Ha Ho, Thanh Tam Phan, et al.

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| 1 | Food safety | risks in | traditional | fermented | food | from | South- | East A | Asia |
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| 3 | Anil Kumar Anal ^{1,2} , Giorgia Perpetuini ^{2,3,4} , Awanwee Petchkongkaew ^{2,5} , Reasmey Tan ^{2,6} , |
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| 4 | Sylvie Avallone ⁷ , Rosanna Tofalo ⁴ , Hai Van Nguyen ^{2,8} , Son Chu-Ky ^{2,8} , Phu Ha Ho ^{2,8} , Thanh |
| 5 | Tam Phan ^{2,8} , Yves Waché ^{2,3} |
| 6 | |
| 7 | ¹ Department of Food Agriculture and Bioresources, School of Environment, Resources and |
| 8 | Development, Asian Institute of Technology, PO Box 4; Klong Luang 12120, Thailand |
| 9 | ² Tropical Fermentation Network |
| 10 | ³ International Joint Laboratory « Tropical Bioresources & Biotechnology » (Univ. Bourgogne |
| 11 | Franche-Comté, AgroSup Dijon, PAM UMR A 02.102 and School of Biotechnology and |
| 12 | Food Technology, Hanoi University of Science and Technology), Dijon France |
| 13 | ⁴ Faculty of BioScience and Technology for Food, Agriculture and Environment, University |
| 14 | of Teramo, Via R. Balzarini 1, 64100, Teramo, Italy |
| 15 | ⁵ School of Food Science and Technology, Faculty of Science and Technology, Thammasat |
| 16 | University, 12120, Thailand |
| 17 | ⁶ Food Technology and Nutrition Research Unit, Research and Innovation Center, Institute of |
| 18 | Technology of Cambodia, Russian Federation Blvd., P.O. Box 86, 12156 Phnom Penh, |
| 19 | Cambodia |
| 20 | ⁷ QualiSud, Univ Montpellier, CIRAD, Montpellier SupAgro, Université d'Avignon, |
| 21 | Université de la Réunion, Montpellier, France. |
| 22 | ⁸ International Joint Laboratory « Tropical Bioresources & Biotechnology » (Univ. Bourgogne |
| 23 | Franche-Comté, AgroSup Dijon, PAM UMR A 02.102 and School of Biotechnology and |
| 24 | Food Technology, Hanoi University of Science and Technology), Hanoi, Vietnam |
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27 Abstract

South-East Asia is well-known for traditionally fermented foods. However, these products are generally still produced at small scale following traditional procedures. Nowadays, consumers are particularly aware of the health concerns regarding food additives; the health benefits of "natural" and "traditional" foods, processed with no added chemical preservatives, are becoming more and more attractive. Therefore, their confidence towards safety and quality of Asian fermented foods is low. Major food safety concerns are related not only to food production methods, but also to how foods are processed, stored, sold and consumed. In this review the main factors affecting food safety are analysed. They are not limited only to the improper use of chemicals such as pesticides or antibiotics, but also to improper processing and handling during storage which could provoke the accumulation of toxic compounds such as mycotoxins or biogenic amines. Urgent attention is required to improve the quality of the ingredients and the integration of food safety management systems for industrial growth. Therefore, in the last part of this review directions to improve the food safety of fermented foods are proposed.

44 Keywords: fermented foods, South-East Asia, food safety

65 **1. Introduction**

In South-East Asia, the economic and demographic developments together with the migration 66 of the population to urban areas resulted in many changes in the organisation of the food 67 production system. This increased the consumer concern about food safety (Ha, Shakur, & 68 Pham Do, 2019). However, the level of concern is not only coming from an undefined 69 perception of this change but it follows also several outbreaks that occurred in the recent 70 71 years. Drivers of food safety unconformity have been analysed (Kendall, Kaptan, Stewart, Grainger, Kuznesof, Naughton, et al., 2018). They have multiple origins among them the lack 72 of resources, the economic pressure, the structuration, the training and the will. As confirmed 73 74 by the achievement of the Asifood Erasmus+ project (Anal, Waché, Louzier, Roy, Mens, Availlone et al. submitted), the demand of actors of the field for food safety is huge. Among 75 the various food products concerned, the case of traditional fermented food is special as these 76 77 foods are usually produced at small scale, very popular and considered as delicacies in Asia but also, often as risky (Sarter, Ho, & To, 2014). Taking into account the classification 78 79 proposed by Steinkraus (Steinkraus, 1997), popular fermented food in continental South-East Asia (Valyasevi & Rolle, 2002; Vu & Nguyen, 2016) are belonging to the (i) High salt/meat-80 flavored amino acid/peptide sauce (various fish sauces or pastes like nuoc mam, prahok, pla 81 82 ra, soy sauces like Tuong), (ii) Lactic acid fermentations (vegetable leaves, bamboo, onions, fermented meat that can be uncooked (Nem chua, nahm), fish, shrimp), (iii) alcoholic 83 fermentation (rice wine), (iv) acetic fermentation (rice vinegar), (v) alkaline fermentation of 84 soy (thua-nao). With the general economic idea of decreasing the risks and increasing the 85 scale of production, these products could be the victim of a food diversity extinction. 86 However, other economic models exist like in Europe where small-scale fermented foods are 87 considered as a way to increase typicity and bring value-added. 88

The goal of this review is to evaluate the dangers and risks to which traditional fermented food are exposed in South-East Asia. Recent studies, from 2007 to 2019, concerning the detection of pathogens and chemical contaminants in some of the most risky products are reported. From these results, directions to improve the food safety of fermented foods in Vietnam, Cambodia and Thailand will be proposed.

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95 2. Contamination of raw or fermented products with pathogenic bacteria

In South-East Asia, and in particular in Vietnam, consumers' confidence towards fermented
products is low, especially because of the microbial safety risks of the raw material such as
meat and vegetable (Sarter, Ho, & To, 2014).

One of the riskiest traditional fermented meat products is an uncooked pork sausage eaten 99 after a short lactic fermentation. It is called *nem chua* in Vietnam, *nahm* in Thailand and *nem* 100 chrouk in Cambodia. To elaborate this product, pork is bought in the wet market or 101 supermarket and then the minced meat is mixed with herbs and spices such as garlic, guava 102 103 leaf, fresh chili, etc. The finish products are packed into banana leaves to provide an 104 anaerobic environment for the fermentation process and to inhibit entry of potentially pathogenic microorganisms. The products are stored at room temperature for spontaneous 105 fermentation for several days. 106

The highest risk of *nem chua* is related to meat since this fermented sausage is uncooked and
unheated. In pork raw meat from South-East Asia, *Escherichia coli, Salmonella, Campylobacter, Listeria monocytogenes* and *Staphylococcus aureus* are the main food-borne
pathogens and they are frequently found in intestinal tract and faeces of food animals (Dao &
Yen, 2006) (Nguyen Thi Nhung, Van, Cuong, Duong, Nhat, Hang, et al., 2018)
(Ananchaipattana, Hosotani, Kawasaki, Pongsawat, Md.Latiful, Isobe, et al., 2012; CarriqueMas, Bryant, Cuong, Hoang, Campbell, Hoang, et al., 2014; Dang-Xuan, Nguyen-Viet,

Unger, Pham-Duc, Grace, Tran-Thi, et al., 2017; T. N. M. Nguyen, Hotzel, El-Adawy, Tran, 114 Le, Tomaso, et al., 2016; Takeshi, Itoh, Hosono, Kono, Tin, Vinh, et al., 2009; Toan, Nguyen-115 Viet, & Huong, 2013). These bacteria as well as antibiotic resistance genes can be 116 117 horizontally transferred to human through direct and indirect contacts with the source of infection which can be animals or contaminated foods. In raw food, in the examples given in 118 Table 1, these bacteria are found with at least 10% probability of contamination. The 119 120 probability could rise up to 83% depending on the species, the raw food, and the origin of the 121 sample.

In fermented meat, the contamination is still very high in the examples presented in Table 1 122 123 and they even reach 100% in the neighboring regions of India (Keisam, Tuikhar, Ahmed, & Jeyaram, 2019) although in one study not presenting whether fermented meat was cooked or 124 not, contaminations ranged from 0 to 19% (Ananchaipattana, et al., 2012). A study focusing 125 126 on Salmonella in the food chain and in nem chua confirmed through serovar analysis and genotyping that contamination of the raw meat was usually responsible for contamination of 127 the fermented product (Le Bas, Hanh, Thành, Cuong, Quang, Binh, et al., 2008). The 128 129 microbial safety of nem chua in Vietnam has been discussed in several studies ((Phan, Pham et al. 2006; Nguyen et al., 2010; 2013 ; Le, Do et al. 2012). Indeed, the concentration of E. 130 coli and S. aureus in raw meat for preparing nem chua was 10-100 and 100-1000 fold higher 131 than the National Vietnamese Standard (TCVN 7046:2002 for fresh meat), respectively. 132 Consequently, the final products nem chua could not meet the requirement for hygiene and 133 safety standard (TCVN 7050:2002 for unheated fermented products) (Le, Do, Le, Tran, & 134 Van, 2012; Phan, Pham, & Hoang, 2006). However, cases of illness in human beings due to 135 the consumption of *nem chua* have been rarely reported in Vietnam. Several explanations 136 can contribute to this fact, including small scale production combined with incomplete 137 epidemiological data, as well as the presence of a number of lactic acid bacteria (LAB) 138

present in the final product. These LAB and their metabolites can produce organic acid and 139 140 bacteriocins able to inhibit the growth of pathogenic microorganisms. The LAB of 30 samples of nem chua were isolated and the presence of Lactobacillus plantarum (prevalence of 141 142 67.6%), Pediococcus pentosaceus (21.6%), Lactobacillus brevis (9.5%) and Lactobacillus farciminis (1.3%) was reported (Tran, May, Smooker, Van, & Coloe, 2011). L. plantarum was 143 also reported as the most prevalent in meat and legume fermentation products (La Anh, 2015; 144 145 D. T. L. Nguyen, Van Hoorde, Cnockaert, De Brandt, Aerts, & Vandamme, 2013). Some authors investigated thus the antibacterial properties of some L. plantarum strains isolated 146 from fermented food. L. plantarum B33 isolated from nem chua could inhibit food-borne 147 bacteria including E. coli NC31, E. coli K12TG1, E. coli 320 LCB, S. aureus, S. 148 Typhimurium with a zone of inhibition ranging from 4-14 mm (Lê, Hồ, Trần, Chu, Lê, Lê, et 149 al., 2011). Recently, the bacteriocins produced by other LAB isolated from nem chua were 150 151 characterized (Pilasombut, Rumjuankiat, Ngamyeesoon, & Duy, 2015). It was shown that L. plantarum KL-1 could produce a bacteriocin inhibiting the growth of pathogens and of some 152 LAB such as Lactobacillus sakei, Leuconostoc mesenteroides and Enterococcus faecalis. 153 Additionally, 47% LAB isolates from nem chua exhibited strong antimicrobial activity 154 against moulds from the same products and L. plantarum and P. pentosaceus showed the best 155 antifungal activities (Phong, Van, Thanh, Long, & Dung, 2016). These strains could thus be 156 useful as backslop and/or starter cultures. 157

Vegetables can also be the source of microbiological contamination (Ha et al., 2019). In South-East Asia, there are different kinds of fermented vegetables including cucumbers, mustard greens, young melons, cabbages, chinese cabbages, papayas, bamboo shoots, and bean sprouts with Asian spider flower. They are usually produced in small-scale using mostly spontaneous fermentation and sometime back-slopping fermentation. The production of fermented foods and beverages through spontaneous fermentation and back-slopping represents an inexpensive and reliable preservation method in less developed countries (Owens, 2014). Most of the sellers of these fermented vegetables are producers and these products are usually sold in the local markets in open containers. The results of two studies carried out in Phnom Penh wet markets are reported in Table 1.

In these studies, the microbiological quality of fermented vegetables sold in Phnom Penh markets was investigated, showing a correlation between microbial contamination and hygienic conditions (quality and material of container, use of hands, hands with gloves, the same rice paddle for all the products, open containers, etc...). The authors supposed that the lack of hygienic precautions and bad cultural practices could be extended upward to the production of vegetables (González García, Fernández-López, Polesel, & Trapp, 2019).

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This paragraph deals with pathogen bacteria but it should be noted that another source of 175 176 disease has been characterized in Thai fermentd fish. Indeed, liver fluke in its development cycle is ingested by fishes that, if eaten without cooking, can inoculate the disease in human 177 178 consumers (Sriraj, Boonmars, Aukkanimart, Songsri, Sripan, Ratanasuwan, et al., 2016). It is particularly dangerous as liver fluke can be a factor of development of cholangiocarcinoma, 179 especially when it is linked to high concentrations of nitrosamine (Mitacek, Brunnemann, 180 Suttajit, Martin, Limsila, Ohshima, et al., 1999). However, it can be noted that the level of 181 such cancers is not higher in North-East Thailand, the region where this fermented fish is 182 produced and consumed. 183

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187 <u>3.</u> Toxin or toxic compounds producing microorganisms

189 3.1 Mycotoxin risks

190 Mycotoxins are toxic secondary fungal metabolites mainly produced by five genera of filamentous fungi i.e. Alternaria, Aspergillus, Cladosporium, Fusarium and Penicillium. 191 192 These molds can produce different types of mycotoxins, among them, some are unique to one species, but most can be produced by several fungi (Bräse et al., 2009). FAO reported that 193 25% of the world's crops are affected by mold or fungal growth with losses of around 1 194 195 billion metric tons of food products annually. Economic losses occur because of: 1) yield loss due to diseases induced by toxigenic fungi; 2) reduced crop value resulting from mycotoxin 196 contamination; 3) losses in animal productivity from mycotoxin-related health problems; and 197 198 4) human health costs. Moreover, additional costs associated with mycotoxin also include the cost of management at all levels (prevention, sampling, mitigation, litigation, and research 199 costs). These economic impacts affect all along the food and feed supply chains: crop 200 201 producers, animal producers, grain handlers and distributors, processors, consumers, and the society as a whole (due to health care impacts and productivity losses). Nowadays, more than 202 203 400 mycotoxin metabolites have been discovered but the eight most important mycotoxins 204 (Top 8) with worldwide relevance in regard to public health are aflatoxins, ochratoxin A, fumonisin B₁, zearalenone, deoxynivalenol, nivalenol, T-2 toxin and patulin (FAO, 2001). 205 206 Mycotoxin can contaminate various agricultural commodities and particularly cereals and 207 legumes such as wheat, barley, rye, oats, rice, maize, peanuts, alfalfa, clover, beans, peas, chickpeas, lentils, lupine, mesquite, carob, soybeans, tamarind and some other cereal grains 208 that are normally used as substrates for traditional fermented food in South-East Asia. Those 209 210 substrates can be contaminated with mycotoxin either before harvest or under post-harvest conditions (FAO, 1991), resulting in mycotoxin contamination in the finished products. 211 212 Mycotoxin is relatively stable to cooking and processing temperatures. Once they contaminate

food and feed, they cannot be removed safely. This means that once foods are contaminated,human exposure is almost certain if the foods go into the market.

In South-East Asia, this problem is acute due to favorable humidity and temperature 215 216 conditions for the development of molds. It is even hypothesized that the consumption of aflatoxin contaminated foods, which is recognized as a risk factor for human hepatocellular 217 carcinoma, may contribute to the high incidence of this disease in South-East Asia (Tran-218 Dinh, Kennedy, Bui, & Carter, 2009). Several studies report a high level of contamination of 219 220 agricultural products and, due to the great stability of mycotoxins, these compounds remain present in agriculture soils (Tran-Dinh, Kennedy, Bui, & Carter, 2009). They also remain in 221 222 the raw product after processing and, if the raw material is used for animal feeding, they can contaminate meat products. As a result, despite a 20-year-old study showing in the north of 223 Thailand that vegetarians can be more exposed to mycotoxins (Vinitketkumnuen, 224 225 Chewonarin, Kongtawelert, Lertjanyarak, Peerakhom, & Wild, 1997), animal products are also likely to be contaminated. For instance in Vietnam, aflatoxins and zearalenone were 226 227 found in all feed samples analyzed (Thieu, Ogle, & Pettersson, 2007) and then aflatoxin M1, in more than half of pig urine samples collected in various slaughterhouses of Vietnam (Lee, 228 Lindahl, Nguyen-Viet, Khong, Nghia, Xuan, et al., 2017). As a result, mycotoxins can be 229 expected in fermented products in a way similar to unfermented ones (Sivamaruthi, Kesika, & 230 Chaiyasut, 2018). Although analyses of mycotoxins present in fermented products are rare, 231 some have been detected in soy fermented products like Thua-nao (Petchkongkaew, 232 Taillandier, Gasaluck, & Lebrihi, 2008) and Tuong (Vu & Nguyen, 2016). This latter soy 233 sauce is fermented by Aspergillus orizae which is very near, and considerd as the 234 domesticated form of, A. flavus, the aflatoxin producer, a fact that can explain the presence of 235 aflatoxin in 4/14 brands of Tuong. A review presenting mycotoxins in world fermented 236

products has been published recently confirming that mycotoxins are often present in thisclass of products (Sivamaruthi, Kesika, & Chaiyasut, 2018).

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240 3.2 Biogenic amines

Biogenic amines (BAs) are low molecular weight nitrogenous compounds naturally present in 241 animals, plants, and microorganisms where they play several functions including gene 242 expression regulation, cell growth and differentiation, etc. (Suzzi and Torriani, 2015). On the 243 basis of their chemical structure, BAs are divided into aliphatic (putrescine, cadaverine, 244 spermine and spermidine), aromatic (tyramine and phenylethylamine) or heterocyclic 245 246 (histamine and tryptamine). Considering the number of amine groups, they are classified in monoamines (tyramine and phenylethylamine), diamines (putrescine and cadaverine) or 247 polyamines (spermine and spermidine) (Park et al., 2019). The occurrence of some BAs 248 249 (histamine, putrescine, cadaverine, tyramine, tryptamine, 2-phenylethylamine, spermine and spermidine) in fermented foods such as fish, meat, cheese, vegetables, and wines, has been 250 251 widely described (for a review see Spano et al., 2010). Unfortunately, the consumption of 252 foods or beverages containing high amounts of BAs is a risk for consumer health since they can have toxic effects (Park et al., 2019). The BAs encountered in fermented foods are mainly 253 produced by microbial decarboxylation of amino acids (Mah et al., 2019). The main microbial 254 255 groups associated with BAs accumulation are several Gram negative (enterobacteria and pseudomonads) and Gram positive bacteria including staphylococci, Bacillus spp. and lactic 256 acid bacteria (LAB). The presence of decarboxylase positive microorganisms is not the only 257 factor influencing BAs accumulation in foods, in fact, specific environmental conditions are 258 required (e.g. availability of BAs precursors, presence of proteolytic enzymes involved in the 259 release of free amino acids). Other factors involved are: raw materials characteristics in terms 260 of composition, pH, ion strength, physico-chemical parameters (NaCl, pH and ripening 261

temperature) and processing, storage and distribution conditions (Suzzi and Torriani, 2015;Linares et al., 2012).

Several traditional fermented foods from South-East Asia including fish sauce and fermented 264 soybean foods are characterized by a high amount of BAs (for reviews see Prester, 2011, 265 Zaman et al., 2009; Park et al., 2019). The most popular fermented soybean foods are 266 produced through bacterial fermentation and the main are: Natto, Miso, Cheonggukjang, 267 Doenjang, Gochujang, Chunjang, Doubanjiang, and Douchi. The BAs composition of these 268 products is reported in Table 2 (it should be noted that for Doenjang, the very high maximal 269 concentration detected comes from one isolated study and most studies report values below 270 thresholds). 271

Fermented fish products represent a source of BAs and especially histamine, which is one of 272 the most dangerous for human health. In fact, it is the only BA with regulatory limits. The US 273 274 FDA set a guidance level of 50 mg/kg for histamine in the edible portion of fish (FDA, 2011), 275 and the European Commission established up to a maximum of 200 mg/kg in fresh fish and 276 400 mg/kg in fishery products treated by enzyme maturation in brine (EFSA, 2011). BA 277 content in seafood for South-Korea and China is regulated imposing maximum limits of histamine content in fish, at 200 mg/kg and 200-400 mg/kg, respectively. According to EFSA 278 (2011) dried anchovies and fish sauce are the fermented foods showing the highest mean 279 content of histamine, with values of 348 mg/kg and 196-197 mg/kg, respectively. More in 280 general, fish sauce is characterized by the highest mean values for the sum of BAs (582 - 588 281 mg/kg). The histamine content of some Asian fish products is reported in Table 3. 282

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284 **4.** Chemical contaminations

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286 4.1 Pesticides, heavy metals

In the past century, agriculture has increased productivity through mechanization, fertilization, pesticides, and selective breeding. Furthermore, intensification of cash-crop production and conventional agriculture with fertilizers and pesticides impair local resources (soil fertility, biodiversity). Some trace elements (e.g. iron, potassium, etc...) have undergone historical decrease in food in Finland, United States and United Kingdom (Mayer, 1997; Ekholm et al., 2007). This decline was attributed to varietal selection based mainly on yield and soil degradation due to intensive agriculture.

294 Great transitions are at work in Europe. The Ecophyto plan is implemented with the purpose of progressively reducing the use of pesticides. With international trades, food products are 295 296 imported from numerous countries where the environmental rules do not correspond to European ones. In Northern Europe, foods imported from Asia contained 111 distinct 297 pesticides and in some cases concentration exceeded the Maximum Residue Levels with leafy 298 299 vegetables particularly concerned (chives, thai basil) (Skretteberg, 2015). In 2010, among 245 plant foods from Phnom Penh markets, 15% of the long beans and 95% of the kale contained 300 301 noticeable levels of organophosphate and carbamate pesticides (Neufeld et al., 2010).

302 It is true that, apart from the war inheritances like agent orange which still results in daily intakes of dioxins far above the WHO recommendation in some parts of Vietnam (Tuyet-303 304 Hanh, Minh, Vu-Anh, Dunne, Toms, Tenkate, et al., 2015), South-East Asian cultures can be potentially contaminated by chemicals and metals. Several studies have highlighted the 305 poisoning of agriculture workers (Thetkathuek & Jaidee, 2017; Thetkathuek, Suybros, 306 Daniell, Meepradit, & Jaidee, 2014) and of the environment (Harnpicharnchai, Chaiear, & 307 308 Charerntanyarak, 2014) but the main concern for fermented food products is related to pesticides encountered in raw materials. A survey in the Red river delta showed that 309 pesticides used in agriculture were frequently detected in biota, leading to repeated analyses 310 above the acceptable daily intakes in fishes and vegetables (Hoai, Sebesvari, Minh, Viet, & 311

Renaud, 2011). Even banned organochlorine pesticides still persists in these environments. 312 313 Among vegetables reaching the residue limits established by the European Union, some vegetables used for fermentation like chinese cabbage and some herbs are cited (Sapbamrer & 314 315 Hongsibsong, 2014; Wanwimolruk, Kanchanamayoon, Phopin, & Prachayasittikul, 2015) while some fruits (watermelon and durian) despite the presence of chemicals, were considered 316 as safe (Wanwimolruk, Kanchanamayoon, Boonpangrak, & Prachayasittikul, 2015). The fate 317 of pesticides in food products depends on the specific physicochemical properties of the 318 319 compounds as well as of the conditions of preparation of food (presence of water, temperature and pH etc). During fermentation, the concentration of pesticides usually decreases 320 321 significantly, giving rise to degradation products. In addition to non fermented products, fermented products are characterized by the presence of microorganisms. The presence of 322 323 pesticides as well as of their degradation products tend to limit the activity of microorganisms 324 and modify the sensorial properties of the product but in the mean time, microorganisms can degrade these products and help decreasing the contamination of fermented products 325 326 (Regueiro, López-Fernández, Rial-Otero, Cancho-Grande, & Simal-Gándara, 2015). Studies 327 on pesticides in food are still at the preliminary level and their degradation, the risk related to their degradation products, the potential catalysis by microorganisms, thought of paramount 328 329 importance, need to be further studied.

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331 5. Antibiotics resistance of microbes from traditional fermented foods from South-East
332 Asia

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Antibiotics are either microbial secondary metabolites or the analogous compounds synthesized or semi-synthesized chemically, that could inhibit the growth and survival of other bacteria. These compounds are used as therapeutic agents against infectious disease in

humans, livestock and aquaculture. However, haphazard and extensive use of antibiotics may 337 select antibiotic resistant bacteria (Ben et al., 2019). Bacteria can develop antibiotic resistance 338 by several mechanisms via enzymatic degradation; antibiotic target modification; changing 339 340 the bacterial cell wall permeability and alternative pathways to escape the activity (Verraes et al., 2013). Antibiotic resistance can be inherited or acquired. Inherited antibiotic resistance is 341 exhibited by all isolated of the same species while acquired antibiotic resistance occurs when 342 343 susceptible bacteria gain the genes encoding a resistance mechanism via mutation or the transfer of genetic material from other bacteria (MacGowan & Macnaughton 2017). 344

Foodborne diseases not only affect people's well-being, but also cause hospitalization and 345 346 economic loss. Approximately 22.8 million cases of diarrheal illness caused by Salmonellosis outbreak annually, with 37,600 deaths in South-East Asia (Van et al., 2012). Generally, food 347 contributes as an important part for transfer of antibiotic resistance in terms of antibiotic 348 349 residues or resistant genes from food microflora to pathogenic bacteria (Akbar & Anal, 2013). It is important to monitor the prevalence of pathogenic bacteria along with antibiotic resistant 350 351 foodborne pathogens in food chain to improve and implement food safety (Chanseyha et al., 352 2018). For instance, for the contamination of raw products by pathogenic bacteria as discussed above, the resistance of bacteria to antibiotic is thus also an important issue. The 353 resistance of E. coli to antibiotic isolated from pork collected in pig farm, supermarket and 354 wet market from Hochiminh city and Tien Giang province was reported. The resistance to 355 sulphafurazole, ampicillin/amoxicillin, trimethoprim, 356 tetracycline, chloramphenicol, streptomycin, nalidixic acid, ciprofloxacin, gentamicin, colistin and ceftazidime were 100, 70, 357 55, 60, 50, 65, 30, 42.2, 73.3, 22.2 and 1.1%, respectively (N. T. Nguyen, Nguyen, Nguyen, 358 Nguyen, Nguyen, Thai, et al., 2016; Van, Chin, Chapman, Tran, & Coloe, 2008). Nguyen et 359 al. (2016a) described for the first time a strain – isolated from pork – resistant against colistin 360

361 (a last-resort antibiotic). Multi-resistance of *E. coli* to at least 3 different classes of antibiotics
362 was observed with rates up to 75% in pork (Van, Chin, Chapman, Tran, & Coloe, 2008).

363 *Campylobacter* and *Salmonella* spp. from pork meat showed high resistance rate (>50%) 364 against streptomycin and tetracycline in addition, with different levels of antimicrobial 365 susceptibility to ciprofloxacin, nalidixic acid, ampicillin, chloramphenicol, erythromycin and 366 streptomycin (0-<50%) (T. N. M. Nguyen, et al., 2016; Vo, van Duijkeren, Gaastra, & Fluit, 367 2010). Moreover, 52.2% of *Salmonella* strains from pork, beef and chicken meat showed 368 multidrug resistance (Nguyen Thi Nhung, et al., 2018).

Traditional fermented foods and beverages are popular for their nutritional balance and food 369 370 security. In many Asian countries, techniques for fermenting cereals, vegetables and meat products are well developed. Such fermented foods are highly priced for improved nutritional 371 372 and organoleptic quality as well as for beneficial microorganisms (Anal, 2019). Several 373 studies have indicated that along with beneficial microorganism, fermented foods can act as vehicles of antibiotic resistant bacteria (see Table 4). Therefore, through the food chain 374 375 involving traditional fermented food, antibiotic resistant genes may be transferred to other 376 bacteria including pathogens and commensals and into the gastrointestinal tract (Abriouel et al., 2017). 377

378 South-East Asia region is rapidly developing, and food products are exported globally. Since 379 this region is a hotspot of antibiotic resistant bacteria, there is a risk of dissemination of antibiotic resistant bacteria and genes to consumers worldwide (Nhung et al., 2016). In Asia, 380 numerous fermented foods are categorized into five groups including fermented soybean; fish; 381 vegetable; bread and porridges; and alcoholic beverage. Lactic acid bacteria (LAB) are the 382 commonly involved bacteria in these products to a varying extent, having either positive or 383 negative effects (Rhee et al., 2011). Some of the antibiotic resistant LAB isolated from 384 traditionally fermented foods are summarized in the Table 4. 385

387 6. Analysis and main recommendations

Despite huge differences between South-East Asian countries, concerns about risk of 388 pathogens in fermented meat product such as nem chua, due to the contamination in raw meat 389 material, are common (Hoang & Vu, 2017). The high level of contaminations in farms can be 390 391 related to hygiene (Dang-Xuan, Nguyen-Viet, Pham-Duc, Unger, Tran-Thi, Grace, et al., 392 2019). However, several studies have highlighted an increase in the level of contaminations in slaughterhouses. These contaminations were likely to come from faeces to carcasses (Dang-393 Xuan, et al., 2019; Le Bas, et al., 2008). Cross contaminations between species have also been 394 395 observed as shown in Table 1: although infections by *Campylobacter* concerned mostly poultry and poultry products, this species was also found in swine carcasses and retail 396 397 products as the meat could be contaminated with faeces at the slaughterhouse and processing 398 facilities during the evisceration process, leading to the contamination of food products (T. N. M. Nguyen, et al., 2016). Taking into account that pigs are still mainly slaughtered in small 399 400 structures in Vietnam despite the existence of big modern structures, one axis of improvement 401 could be the improvement of hygiene conditions in those small slaughterhouses in a way sustainable for small structures. These recommendations for good hygiene practices could be: 402 403 (1) separate gut rinsing and carcass dressing, (2) separate lairage and carcass dressing, (3) use specific working surface for the carcass during slaughter, (4) cleaning and disinfection of 404 these surfaces after work, (5) give clean water to the pigs at lairage (well water, not tank 405 water), (6) clean and disinfect tanks and tools after work, (7) waste management avoiding 406 407 contamination (Le Bas, et al., 2008). Other steps can be causes of contaminations such as handling in pork shops where management of flies and handling avoiding contact between 408 meat and worker clothes could be improved (Dang-Xuan, et al., 2019). Finally, although the 409 original load of raw pork meat is certainly the main contributor to the pathogen contamination 410

in the sausage, some additional contaminations may also result from the processing, 411 412 especially during the forming of the sausages into the guava and banana leaves, usually done by hand. Leaves being usually considered as the source of inoculation of fermenting lactic 413 414 acid bacteria, a maintained spontaneous fermentation would require an improvement of the leave production while another perspective would be the use of starters. Recommendation 415 416 could also target consumers and a Thai study recommended also to cook nahm before eating 417 (Paukatong & Kunawasen, 2001), however, such a step would introduce a completely new way of consumption in Vietnam. 418

For vegetables, basic hygiene could improve significantly the situation concerning pathogens. 419 420 Contrary to the general consumer perception, hygienic problems are not limited to wet markets but are also present in supermarkets. For instance, a Thai study detected almost no 421 422 significant contamination differences between open markets and supermarkets however, it 423 could not take into account differences concerning fermented products as they were only available in open markets at that time (Ananchaipattana, et al., 2012). It is likely that a 424 425 training of producers and handlers to good practices could improve greatly the hygienic 426 quality of fermented products. One particular care should be taken to cross contaminations which have also been observed in vegetables as mixed vegetables are far more contaminated 427 428 than fermented monoproducts. Moreover, the use of hurdle technologies like biopreservation, involving the use of efficient starters could also contribute to improve pathogenic control 429 through sustainable solutions (Ho, 2017). 430

The problem of mycotoxin comes mainly from conditions of mold development, which can be decreased through the respect of good practice, and from the high stability of concerned molecules that can stay in the environment a long time after the production by molds. One concern is the price of analyses, which makes difficult any actions for basic farmers. There are however also some solutions to decrease the level of contamination by using adsorbant

materials like bentionite clays for piglet farming (Thieu, Ogle, & Pettersson, 2008) or
microbial catalysts able to degrade the toxins (Petchkongkaew, Taillandier, Gasaluck, &
Lebrihi, 2008).

The fluctuations in the BAs concentration suggest the lack of standardized processes. Improvements in this direction could be useful. In this context, it is essential to implement control strategies and develop methods to reduce BAs content in fermented products in order to face consumers demand for healthier and safe foods.

Food contamination by pesticides is a world-wide problem but, concerning specific 443 contaminations in the region, the agricultural practices are obviously a way to improve results 444 445 as, for mangosteen, 97% of the fruits for local market are exceeding the MRLs whereas no problems are detected for the GAP production of fruits intended for the European Union 446 (Wanwimolruk, Kanchanamayoon, Phopin, & Prachayasittikul, 2015). Organic agriculture 447 448 could also be a mean to improve this point but some steps are still required to secure production especially in less controlled area. Indeed, the safety of organic foods is still 449 450 unclear as the use of untreated irrigation or washing water or inappropriate organic fertilizers (i.e manure or composts) is possible (Taban et al., 2011; Nguyen-the et al, 2016). Data related 451 to the microbial communities associated to the surface of fresh fruits and vegetables have 452 shown significant differences, quantitatively and qualitatively, between conventional and 453 organic products (Leff & Fierer, 2013; Bigot et al., 2015). Using E. coli, Salmonella and 454 Listeria which are the most contaminating pathogen bacteria for leafy vegetables as indicator, 455 different studies have been carried out to evaluate the contamination level of organic vs 456 conventional vegetables, notably leafy ones (Tango et al., 2014; Karp et al., 2016). Results are 457 contrasted with no real trend or a slight impact on organically-grown vegetables (Leff & 458 Fierer, 2013; Tango et al., 2014). Studies on the mycotoxin contamination of agricultural 459 products have mainly been carried out on cereals or fruits and rarely on leafy vegetables (van 460

der Walt et al., 2006; Sanzani et al., 2016). Mycotoxin contaminations in organic cereal crops
were variable and inconclusive but their levels were sometimes higher than those observed in
conventional samples (Baert et al., 2006; Magkos et al., 2006; Piqué et al., 2013). In this field,
more studies are needed before establishing precise recommendations.

In all cases, training of farmers, retailers and transformators would greatly improve thesituation.

467

468 **7. Conclusion**

Fermented foods from South-East Asia exhibit several safety risks in a similar way to raw 469 470 agriculture products (Figure 1). The presence of pathogens is one of the main and immediate risk as it contaminates many clean samples during slaughter and handling. However, the 471 presence of chemicals, biogenic amins, mycotoxins and parasites can be a more difficult risk 472 473 to take into account as it can be more hidden with a long-term effect. Risks could be greatly diminished by the use of good agriculture/manufacturing practice, especially concerning 474 475 pathogen and chemical contamination and antibiotic resistance. For mycotoxin, good producing and storage practice could also help a lot and, for biogenic amines, a survey of 476 strains present during fermentation might be required as a first step before strategies to avoid 477 478 their development. For all food safety concerns, starters can also be used for biopreservation and bioremediation purposes and thus decrease risks (Ho, Nguyen, Petchkongkaew, Nguyen, 479 Chu-Ky, Nguyen, et al., in minor revision). 480

This validates the drivers of food unsafety as cited above (Kendall, et al., 2018). Among the various ways to improve safety, training of all actors of the production/transformation chain may be one of the main active ones. This was the subject of the AsiFood Erasmus+ project which just finished recently (Anal et al., in press).and, in the future, it would be interesting to evaluate the impact of training on food safety in the different partner countries. It should also

be added that the level of food safety in the various ASEAN countries is very diverse as a
result of economic development, culture, motivation (export to world region exerting a big
control) etc.

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| Species | Samples | Origin | Place | Positive samples | Ref. |
|-----------------|----------|------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------|--|
| In raw products | | | | | • |
| Salmonella | meat | | НСМс | | (Nguyen T. Nhung, Cuong, Thwaites, & Carrique-Mas, 2016 |
| | pork | | Hanoi | 25% | Toan et al. (2013) |
| | pork | Wet market | Hung Yen | 32.8% | Takeshi et al. (2009) |
| | pork | Wet market | Hue | 44% | Dang-Xuan et al. (2017) |
| | pork | | | 11.6% | Nguyen et al. (2016) |
| | meat | Open markets | Bangkok /Pathum Thani | 83% | (Ananchaipattana, et al., 2012) |
| | meat | supermark ets | Bangkok /Pathum Thani | 67% | (Ananchaipattana, et al., 2012) |
| E. coli | Poultry | Factories, | Hanoi | 45% | (Dao & Yen, 2006) |
| | Raw meat | school, | | 21.3% | |
| | (beef, | hospital | | | |
| | pork) | canteens | | | |
| | Fish | | [| 6.6% |] |
| | Veg. | | | 18.5% | |
| Campylobacter | | | Vietnam | 10% | Nguyen et al. (2016) |
| | | | Vietnam | 15-32% | Carrique-Mas et al. (2014) |

894 Table 1 Contamination of raw and fermented products in Vietnam, Thailand, Cambodia and Northeast
 895 India.

| | | | Mekong delta | 53.7% | |
|-------------------|------------|----------------|-----------------|---------|--|
| In fermented | | | | | |
| products | | | | | |
| Enterococcus sp. | vegetables | 5 wet | Phnom | 34% | Chrun, Hosotani et al. (2017) |
| Bacillus sp. | | markets | Penh | 31% | |
| coliforms | | | | 24% | |
| E. coli | | | | 10% | |
| E. coli | cucumber | 22 sellers | Phnom | 4/11 | Tan Reasmey (unpublished data) |
| | | from 11 | Penh | markets | |
| coliforms | | wet | | 9/11 | |
| S. aureus | | markets | | markets | |
| E. coli | pork and | Open | Bangkok | 18% | Ananchaipattana et al. 2012 |
| Salmonella | fish | markets | /Pathum | 9% | |
| Staphylococcus | | | Thani | 9% | |
| Listeria | | | | 0% | |
| Bacillus cereus | soybean | markets | North- | 100% | Keisam et al. 2019 |
| | bamboo | | east | 13% | |
| Clostridium | Soybean | | India | 60% | |
| botulinum | Bamboo | | | 15% | |
| | Fish | | | 44% | |
| | Milk | | | 4% | |
| | pork | | | 74% | |
| E. coli | Soybean | | | 13% | |
| | milk | | | 100% | |
| Proteus mirabilis | soybean | | | 100% | |
| | pork | | | 100% | |
| Salmonella | Nem chua | Along chain | Hanoi | 35.2% | (Le Bas, et al., 2008) |
| Salmonella | Nahm | | Bangkok | 20% | (Osiriphun, Pongpoolponsak, & Tuitemwong, 2004) |

Table 2 Minimum and maximum BAs content in some fermented soybean product. BAs concentration is expressed in mg/kg. Modified from Mah et al. (2019)

| Fermented soybean product | TRP | РНЕ | PUT | CAD | HIS | TYR | SPD | SPM |
|---------------------------|------------|-------------|-------------|-----------|-------------|--------------|-----------|-----------|
| Cheonggukjang | ND-236.4 | ND-40.8 | ND-121.3 | ND-20.2 | ND-755.4 | ND-2539 | ND-59.2 | ND-14.7 |
| Chunjang | 13.3-31.35 | ND-11.8 | 3.26-28.59 | ND-6.6 | 1.85-272.55 | 19.78-131.27 | 0.24-12.8 | ND-2.9 |
| Doenjang | ND-2808.1 | ND-8704 | ND-4292.3 | ND-3235.5 | ND-2794.8 | ND-6616.1 | ND-8804 | ND-9729.5 |
| Doubanjiang | ND-62.43 | 1.43-185.61 | 1.15-129.17 | ND-0.17 | ND | ND-25.75 | ND-0.18 | ND-1.69 |
| Douchi | ND-440 | ND-239 | ND-596 | ND-191 | ND-808 | ND-529 | ND-719 | ND-242 |
| Gochujang | ND-36.6 | 0.7-24.8 | 2.5-36.4 | ND-18.1 | 0.6-59 | 2.1-126.8 | ND-14.5 | ND-1.8 |
| Miso | ND-762 | ND-11.76 | ND-23.2 | ND-201 | ND-221 | ND-95.3 | ND-28.31 | ND-216 |
| Natto | ND-301 | ND-51.5 | ND-43.1 | ND-42 | ND-457 | ND-300.2 | ND-478.1 | ND-80.1 |
| Soy sauce | ND-45.8 | 1.5-121.6 | 2.5-1007.5 | 0.7-32.3 | 3.9-398.8 | 26.8-794.3 | 1.5-53.1 | ND-16.1 |

TRP: tryptamine, PHE: β-phenylethylamine, PUT: putrescine, CAD: cadaverine, HIS: histamine, TYR: tyramine, SPD: spermidine, SPM: spermine

2 Table 3 Range of histamine concentrations found in Asian fish products

| 923 | | | | | | | |
|-----|---------------------------------|----------|-------------------|--------------------------------------|--|--|--|
| | Product | Origin | HIS (mg/kg) | References | | | |
| | Fish sauce | | 45-1220 | | | | |
| | Fish paste | Taiwan | 0.1-760 | Tsai et al. 2006 | | | |
| | Shrimp paste Anchovy sauces | Malaysia | 20–1180 63–393 | Saaid et al. 2009, Zaman et al. 2010 | | | |
| | Thai fish sauce (Som-fug) | Thailand | 55.1-291 | Riebroy et al. 2004 | | | |
| | Ikan pekasam from black tilapia | | 18.8-71.3 | | | | |
| | Ikan pekasam from javanese carp | Malaysia | 12.7-109.1 | Ezzat et al., 2015 | | | |
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Table 4 Antibiotic resistance of LAB isolated from Asian traditional fermented food products

| Raw material | Country | Product | LAB | Phenotypic antibiotic resistance | References | | |
|--|-----------------------------------|---|--|--|-------------------------------|--|--|
| Milk | China | Yogurt | Lb. acidophilus, Lb. brevis, Lb. fermentum, Lb. plantarum, S. thermophilus | ERY, TET | Nawaz et al. (2011) | | |
| | India | Dairy productsE. casseliflavus, E. faecium, E. durans, E. lactis, Lb. fermentum, Lb. plantarum, P. pentosaceus, Ln. mesenteroides | | ERY, TET | Thumu and Halami (2012) | | |
| | Indonesia | Dadih | Lb. fermentum, Lb. plantarum, P. acidilactici | , | Sukmarini et al. (2014) | | |
| Meat | Aeat Indonesia Bekasan tempoya | | Lb. fermentum, Lb. plantarum, P. acidilactici | CHL, ERY | | | |
| Vegetable | China | Jiang shui | Lb. plantarum | TET | Nawaz et al. | | |
| | | Pickle | Lb. salivarius | ERY, TET | (2011) | | |
| Cereal | India | <i>Idli</i> batter, <i>dosa</i> batter | E. casseliflavus, E. faecium, E. durans, E. lactis, Lb. fermentum, Lb. plantarum, P. pentosaceus, Ln. mesenteroides | ERY, TET | Thumu and Halai (2012) | | |
| Rice + ragi | Indonesia | Tape ketan | Lb. fermentum, Lb. pantarum, P. acidilactici | CHL, ERY | Sukmarini et al. (2014) | | |
| CHL, chloramphenicol; ERY, Erythromycin; TET, tetracycline | | | | | | | |

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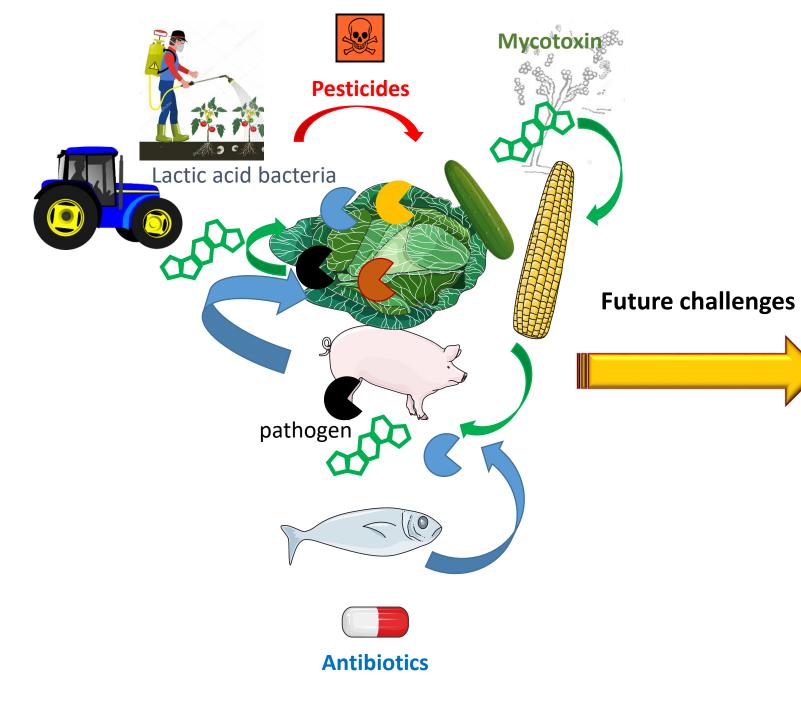


Figure 1°: Pre-processing

- Organic agriculture
- Standards and certifications
- Crop rotation and
 - intercropping with nitrogen
- fixing leguminous crops
- Integrated pest management using biological controls
- Good practices
- Training

Figure 1B: Processing and post-processing

