FISEVIER

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Infection, Genetics and Evolution

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/meegid



Research paper

Major *tdh*⁺ *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* serotype changes temporally in the Bay of Bengal estuary of Bangladesh



Farhana Akther ^a, Sucharit Basu Neogi ^a, Wasimul B. Chowdhury ^a, Abdus Sadique ^a, Atiqul Islam ^a, Marufa Zerin Akhter ^b, Fatema-Tuz Johura ^a, Makoto Ohnishi ^c, Haruo Watanabe ^c, Yan Boucher ^d, Munirul Alam ^{a,*}

- ^a Infectious Diseases Division, International Center for Diarrheal Disease Research, Bangladesh (icddr,b), Dhaka 1212, Bangladesh;
- ^b Department of Microbiology, University of Dhaka, Dhaka 1000, Bangladesh;
- ^c National Institute of Infectious Diseases (NIID), Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo, Japan;
- ^d Department of Biological Sciences, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada;

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 1 February 2016 Received in revised form 2 April 2016 Accepted 5 April 2016 Available online 7 April 2016

Keywords: V. parahaemolyticus tdh Serotype O3:K6 Pandemic O8:K21

ABSTRACT

Vibrio parahaemolyticus is responsible for seafood-related gastroenteritis worldwide. In Bangladesh, diarrhea is endemic and diarrheagenic V. parahaemolyticus serotypes occur naturally in the coastal and estuarine aquatic environment. V. parahaemolyticus strains, isolated from estuarine surface water of the Bay of Bengal villages of Bangladesh during 2006-2008, were tested for the presence of virulence and pandemic-marker genes, serodiversity, and phylogenetic relatedness. PCR analysis of V. parahaemolyticus (n = 175) showed 53 (30.3%) strains to possess tdh, the major virulence gene encoding thermostable direct hemolysin. Serotyping results revealed the tdh+ V. parahaemolyticus strains to belong to 10 different serotypes, of which the O8:K21 (30.2%) and O3:K6 (24.5%) were predominantly non-pandemic and pandemic serotypes, respectively; while O5:K30 and O9:KUT were new. The pandemic markers, orf8 and toxRS^{variant}, were present only in the pandemic serotype O3:K6 (n = 13) and its serovariant O4:K68 (n = 2). Temporal distribution of the tdh^+ serotypes revealed the O8:K21 to be predominant in 2006 and 2007, while O3:K6 was the predominant tdh^+ serotype in 2008. Pulsed-field gel electrophoresis (PFGE) of Sfil-digested genomic DNA revealed high genetic diversity among the V. parahaemolyticus strains, while dendrogram constructed with the PFGE patterns formed two major clusters separating the tdh⁺ O3:K6 and its pandemic serovariants from the tdh⁺ non-pandemic (O8:K21) strains, suggesting different lineages for them. The potential health risk related to the prevalent tdh^+ strains, including the observed temporal change of the predominant tdh^+ serotype, from O8:K21 to the pandemic serotype 03:K6 in estuarine surface waters serving as the major source of drinking water suggests the need for routine environmental monitoring to prevent V. parahaemolyticus infection in Bangladesh.

© 2016 Published by Elsevier B.V.

1. Introduction

Vibrio parahaemolyticus, a natural inhabitant of marine and estuarine waters, is the causal agent of gastroenteritis, wound infection and septicemia related to the consumption of raw or undercooked seafood and untreated surface water (Martinez-Urtaza et al., 2004; Nair et al., 2007). The bacterium was first identified as the major cause of seafood-borne disease outbreak in 1950 in Japan (Fujino et al., 1951). V. parahaemolyticus gastroenteritis has cholera-like symptoms, e.g., diarrhea with low-grade fever, abdominal cramps, nausea, vomiting, watery stools with visible mucus, and dehydration (Klontz et al., 2012). Diarrhea outbreaks caused by water-borne pathogens

E-mail address: munirul@icddrb.org (M. Alam).

including *V. parahaemolyticus* may be influenced by various climate factors, e.g., sea surface temperature, salinity, and turbidity (Johnson et al., 2012). An increasing trend in *V. parahaemolyticus*-related illnesses has been observed since 2000 in many parts of the world including the United States (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, CDC, 2006). However, the evolutionary relationships between clinical and environmental strains and the mechanisms promoting the emergence of pathogenic strains of this bacterium are not well explored.

Pathogenicity of *V. parahaemolyticus* is strongly correlated with the production of either thermostable direct hemolysin (TDH), TDH-related hemolysin (TRH), or both (Honda and Iida, 1993; Nishibuchi and Kaper, 1995). *V. parahaemolyticus* strains isolated from coastal and estuarine environments are less likely to carry *tdh* and *trh* (<5%) (DePaola et al., 2003; Nishibuchi and Kaper, 1995), although these highly dispersed naturally occurring population carrying virulence genes are responsible for majority of the seafood borne diarrhea

^{*} Corresponding author at: International Centre for Diarrhoeal Disease Research, Bangladesh (icddr,b), GPO Box 128, Dhaka 1000, Bangladesh.

outbreaks globally (Alam et al., 2009; Mala et al., 2016). In *V. parahaemolyticus* other virulence factors include the type III secretion system 1 and 2 (T3SS1 and T3SS2), which are responsible for cytotoxic activity and enterotoxicity, respectively (Morita et al., 2013; Noriea et al., 2010).

Based on the variations in somatic O and capsular K-antigens, V. parahaemolyticus can be classified into 13 O and 71 K serogroups (Iguchi et al., 1995; Nair et al., 2007). Epidemiologically, the O3:K6 serotype of *V. parahaemolyticus* is considered as the major pandemic pathogen, predominantly associated with worldwide clinical cases since 1996 (approximately 50–80% of the patients), although various other non-pandemic serotypes namely 08:K21, 09:KUT are also known to possess the tdh gene and associated with diarrheal infections (Alam et al., 2009; Nair et al., 2007). Contemporary epidemiological investigations have indicated that some serotypes, e.g., 04:K68, 01:K25, 01:K untypable (01:KUT), 01:K56, 03:K75, 03:KUT, 04:K8, 05:KUT, associated with gastroenteritis outbreaks in Asia, Africa and America (Ansaruzzaman et al., 2005; Matsumoto et al., 2000), are genetically closely related to the pandemic serotype O3:K6 and considered to have been serovariants evolved from the ancestor O3:K6 through seroconversion (Chen et al., 2011). The rapid emergence of serovariants of 03:K6 suggests genetic recombination and natural evolution of the pandemic clone generating more than 20 serotypes that belong to the pandemic clonal complex of V. parahaemolyticus (Caburlotto et al., 2010; Nair et al., 2007). Irrespective of their serodiversity, the pandemic V. parahaemolyticus strains ubiquitously harbor two genetic markers, i.e., a unique open reading frame (orf8) of the f237 filamentous phage, and a variant toxRS operon (toxRS^{variant}) possessing pandemic groupspecific (GS) sequence, which are used to distinguish between the pandemic and non-pandemic traits (Matsumoto et al., 2000; Nasu et al., 2000). In general, a strain can be considered a pandemic group when V. parahaemolyticus harbors both tdh and the new type toxRS operon (toxRS^{variant}) (Okura et al., 2003).

In Bangladesh, recurrent diarrhea outbreaks result in many deaths, particularly in the remote coastal villages where safe drinking water is scarce and people use surface water for drinking and other household chores (Alam et al., 2006). Toxigenic V. $parahaemolyticus (tdh^+ and trh^+)$ including the pandemic O3:K6 strains have been isolated from the hospitalized patients suffering from gastroenteritis in Dhaka city in the central part as well as the estuarine environment of Chittagong in the southern part of the country (Bhuiyan et al., 2002; Islam et al., 2004). A previous study carried out in diarrhea endemic coastal villages of Bangladesh from various districts during 2005–2006, reported the isolation of tdh^+ strains belonging to diverse serotypes from the environment, with O8:K21 as the predominant non–pandemic serotype

associated with diarrheal cases (Alam et al., 2009). In this study, to understand local variability, we focused on a single coastal location (Kuakata) over three years (2006 to 2008). *V. parahaemolyticus* strains isolated from the surface water of estuarine environment of Bangladesh were investigated for the presence of major virulence and related marker genes, the serodiversity of potentially pathogenic strains, and their genetic relatedness. The aim was to assist intervention and preventive measure against the toxigenic *V. parahaemolyticus* serotypes occurring in the estuarine environment of Bangladesh, where thousands of people suffer from recurrent diarrhea and are at high risk of water-borne diseases due to saline water intrusion resulted from the changing climate (Cruz et al., 2007; Khan et al., 2011).

2. Material and methods

2.1. Isolation of bacterial strains and confirmation of V. parahaemolyticus

A total of 175 *V. parahaemolyticus* strains, isolated between November 2006 and December 2008 from the 9 selected brackish sites of Kuakata, an estuarine ecosystem of the Bay of Bengal, Bangladesh were analyzed for serogroup, virulence, and molecular characteristics in the present study. The study site is located in the south-western part of Bangladesh, near the world's largest mangrove forest, the Sundarban. The latitude and longitude of Kuakata is 21.82104 and 90.12142, respectively. *V. parahaemolyticus* strains were confirmed by microbiological and molecular methods, as described elsewhere (Alam et al., 2009). Briefly, the presumptive, green and mucoid *Vibrio*-like (bigger) colonies on thiosulfate-citrate-bile salts-sucrose (TCBS) agar were selected and confirmed by microbiological (APHA, 2005) and molecular methods (Alam et al., 2009). *V. parahaemolyticus* strains with the year of isolation are shown in Table 1.

2.2. Storage

 $V.\ parahaemolyticus$ strains confirmed by biochemical, serological, and molecular methods were subcultured on gelatin agar (GA) plates; and a single representative colony from the GA was aseptically inoculated into T1N1 broth (1% Trypticase, 1% NaCl; pH 7.6–7.8), incubated at 37 °C for 3 to 4 h, and stored at 80 °C with 15% glycerol until it was required for the experiment.

2.3. Extraction and purification of chromosomal DNA

For extraction of genomic DNA, a single colony of each of the bacterial strains were enriched overnight at 37 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ in 3 ml Luria-Bertani broth

Table 1Serogroup, virulence, and molecular characteristics of *V. parahaemolyticus* strains isolated from environmental samples (2006–2008)^a.

Year	Serotypes	No. of isolates (%)	Species-specific genes		Virulence genes		Pandemic markers	
			toxR	tlh	tdh	trh	ORF8	toxRS ^{variant}
2006	08:K21	4 (12.1)	+	+	+	_	_	_
(Nov-Dec)	O5:KUT	1 (3.0)	+	+	+	_	_	_
	ND	28 (84.8)	+	+	_	_	_	_
2007	08:K21	12 (19.7)	+	+	+	_	_	_
(Feb-Mar)	O9:KUT	7 (11.5)	+	+	+	_	_	_
	O4:K46	3 (4.9)	+	+	_	+	_	_
	ND	39 (63.9)	+	+	_	_	_	_
2008	O3:K6	13 (16.0)	+	+	+	_	+	+
(Nov-Dec)	OUT:KUT	4 (4.9)	+	+	+	_	_	_
	O8:KUT	3 (3.7)	+	+	+	_	_	_
	O1:KUT	2 (2.5)	+	+	+	_	_	_
	O4:K68	2 (2.5)	+	+	+	_	+	+
	O5:KUT	2 (2.5)	+	+	+	_	_	_
	O4:KUT	1 (1.2)	+	+	+	_	_	_
	O5:K30	1 (1.2)	+	+	+	_	_	_
	O9:KUT	1 (1.2)	+	+	+	_	_	_
	ND	52 (64.2)	+	+	_	_	_	_

^a ND, Not done; OUT, 'O'-untypable, KUT, 'K'-untypable

(Difco, USA). The enriched cells were harvested and subjected to alkaline lysis by 10% SDS in the presence of TE buffer (10 mM Tris–HCl; 1 mM EDTA, pH 8.0). The cells were then treated at 37 °C for 1 h with freshly prepared Proteinase K (final concentration 100 µg/ml in 0.5% SDS), followed by treatment with 1.0% CTAB/NaCl (cetyl trimethyl ammonium bromide in 0.7 M NaCl) for 10 min at 65 °C. RNA was removed by treating with RNase (final concentration 100 µg/ml) at 37 °C for 1 h. This was followed by phenol chloroform extraction and precipitation of the nucleic acid in the presence of isopropanol (Chowdhury et al., 2000). Excess salt was removed by 70% alcohol wash and the nucleic acid was air dried, resuspended in sterile TE buffer and stored at $-20\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ for subsequent PCR analysis. The purity of the DNA was assayed using a spectrophotometer (Gene Quant, England) at 260 and 280 nm.

2.4. Polymerase chain reaction (PCR)

Simplex PCR assays were performed to detect the species-specific gene *toxR* and *tlh* by following the methods, as described elsewhere (Bej et al., 1999; Kim et al., 1999). The presence of the two major virulence genes i.e., *tdh* and *trh*, was examined using a multiplex PCR assay with the genomic DNA of the *V. parhaemolyticus* strains following a previously described method (Bej et al., 1999).

2.5. Group specific (GS) and open reading frame 8 (ORF8)-PCR

PCR assays for amplification of the pandemic marker genes GS and ORF8 were performed using specific primers previously reported to detect *toxRS* sequences unique to the pandemic O3:K6 clone of *V. parahaemolyticus* and the *orf8* sequence of phage *f*237 respectively (Matsumoto et al., 2000; Nasu et al., 2000).

2.6. Serotyping

A commercially available *V. parahaemolyticus* antisera test kit (Denka Seiken, Tokyo, Japan) was used for serotyping of the toxigenic and pandemic *V. parahaemolyticus* strains according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, the strains were first grown on LB agar (Difco) containing 3% NaCl. Following overnight incubation at 37 °C, a loop full of bacterial inoculum was mixed with 1 ml normal saline and an aliquot of this cell suspension was boiled for 2 h for use in the O-antigen based serogrouping. The remaining cell suspension (not boiled) was used for serogrouping based on the K-antigen.

2.7. Pulsed-field gel electrophoresis (PFGE)

Pulsed-field gel electrophoresis (PFGE) of *Sf*II-digested DNA of *V. parahaemolyticus* was performed using a standardized protocol, as described elsewhere (Kam et al., 2008). *Xba*I-digested *Salmonella enterica* serovar Braenderup DNA was used as molecular size markers. Following electrophoresis, gels were stained with ethidium bromide and images were captured using a GelDoc system (BioRad, Hercules, CA, USA).

2.8. Image analysis

The PFGE gel images were analyzed using BioNumeric® (Applied Math, Belgium) computer software package to determine their fingerprint patterns. After background subtraction and gel normalization, the fingerprint patterns were subjected to typing on the basis of banding similarity and dissimilarity using Dicesimilarity coefficient and unweighted-pair group method using average linkages (UPGMA) clustering methods, as recommended by the manufacturer; these were graphically represented as dendrograms.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. High prevalence of toxigenic V. parahaemolyticus in the Bay of Bengal estuary

V. parahaemolyticus strains (n = 175), isolated from water samples collected from the Bay of Bengal estuary during 2006 (n = 33), 2007 (n = 61) and 2008 (n = 81), were confirmed by a combination of culture and molecular methods as described elsewhere (Alam et al., 2009). PCR assays were performed to screen the strains for the presence of virulence and related marker genes. All of the isolated strains harbored the tlh gene encoding a thermolabile hemolysin, and the virulence regulatory gene toxR confirming all to be V. parahaemolyticus (Bej et al., 1999; Kim et al., 1999). As shown in Table 1, 56 (32.0%) of the V. parahaemolyticus strains tested in the present study displayed pathogenic potential, being positive for the toxin genes tdh or trh. This result appears concordant with the results reported by Johnson et al. (2012), but contrary to some past studies reporting very low prevalence of these virulence genes in V. parahaemolyticus strains occurring in natural coastal and estuarine waters (DePaola et al., 2003; Nishibuchi and Kaper, 1995). Nonetheless, in the present study, the occurrence of V. parahaemolyticus strains carrying major toxigenic gene, tdh, varied from year to year with 15.1% (5 out of 33) in 2006, 31.2% (19 out of 61) in 2007, and 35.8% (29 out of 81) in 2008 (Fig. 1). V. parahaemolyticus carrying trh gene, encoding TDH-related hemolysin was also observed, but in a low frequency, accounting for 4.9% (3 of 61) of the strains isolated in 2007. None of the tested V. parahaemolyticus strains in the present study carried both tdh and trh, although both genes can occur in the same strain in relatively low frequency (~5%), as reported from studies carried out in various coastal regions of Asia, Europe, and USA (DePaola et al., 2003; Nishibuchi and Kaper, 1995; Ottaviani et al., 2013).

3.2. High serotypic diversity among toxigenic strains in a single geographic location

Serotyping results of the strains isolated in the estuarine waters surrounding Kuakata, Bangladesh, revealed that the V. parahemolyticus strains carrying virulence genes, tdh^+ or trh^+ , belonged to an array of serotypes; 11 different combinations of O and K antigens were identified from among 56 toxigenic strains, including pandemic serotypes, i.e., O3:K6 and O4:K68 (Table 1). The predominant O serogroup was found to be O8 (n = 19, 33.9%), while the main K serotype was K21, which accounted for 16 (28.6%) of the toxigenic strains (Table 1). However, four (7.1%) and 21 (37.5%) of the $tdh^+ V$. parahaemolyticus strains did not react to the existing O or K antisera, respectively; while four

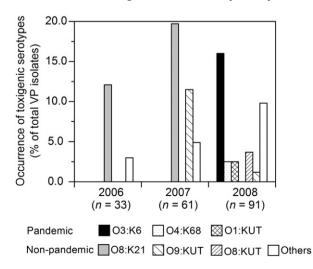


Fig. 1. Year-wise (2006–2008) occurrence (%) of $tdh^+ V$. parahaemolyticus (Vp) serotypes in the coastal and estuarine surface water of Bangladesh.

(7.1%) strains did not react to any of the existing O or K antisera (OUT:KUT), suggesting new serotype(s). All of the three trh^+ *V. parahemolyticus* were isolated in 2007, and belonged to the serotype O4:K46. Among the tdh^+ strains, O8:K21 was found to be the predominant serotype during 2006–2007, as reported earlier in 2005 from the estuarine aquatic environments of Bangladesh (Alam et al., 2009). In 2007, this predominant tdh^+ serotype O8:K21 (63.2%; 12 of 19) was accompanied by O9:KUT, which accounted for the remainder, 36.8% (7 of 19), of the tdh^+ strains (Fig. 1).

3.3. Major shift of prevalence towards the major V. parahaemolyticus pandemic serotype and its serovariants in a single year

In 2008, a major shift in the incidence of the toxigenic serotypes occurred, as the tdh^+ serotype found in the three previous years, O8:K21, was not detected among the isolated strains. Instead, the pandemic O3:K6 serotype was found to be the predominant among tdh⁺ strains (45%; 13 out of 29 strains) occurring in the estuarine environment near Kuakata, Bangladesh (Table 1). This change was remarkable as the major tdh^+ serotype O3:K6 was accompanied by a tdh^+ pandemic serovariant 04:K68 that was also absent in the preceding three years at that site (Table 1) (Alam et al., 2009). Interestingly, in 2008, the major tdh^+ serotype O8:K21 was not found, but the pandemic serotype, O3:K6, and its serovariants were accompanied by a new tdh^+ serotype 08:KUT. These results suggest a major genetic reshuffling in the year 2008 of *V. parahemolyticus* population in the Kuakata estuarine region. The emergence in 2008 of the non-pandemic *tdh*⁺ serotype O8:KUT is suggestive of sero-conversion (Bhoopong et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2011), presumably from the tdh^+ O8:K21 serotype prevalent in the preceding years, 2006–2007, as shown in 2005 (Alam et al., 2009).

V. parahemolyticus pandemic serotype O3:K6 was found associated with diarrhea outbreaks in India in 1996 (Okuda et al., 1997), and subsequently in Bangladesh (Bhuiyan et al., 2002) where it was isolated from natural surface water (Islam et al., 2004), suggesting aquatic reservoir for the bacterium. In the present study, O3:K6 serotype was not detected among the V. parahemolyticus strains isolated from the estuarine aquatic environment of Bangladesh during 2006 and 2007, as nor was it in 2005 from a previous study (Alam et al., 2009). The absence of O3:K6 among the strains tested in 2006-2007 does not rule out the possibility that the pandemic clone and its serovariants existed, but remained undetected presumably due to low number related to seasonal variation, as environmental determinants have been proposed for the occurrence and distribution of *V. parahaemolyticus* (Martinez-Urtaza et al., 2004). The other possibility is that the appearance of the pandemic serotype O3:K6 and its serovariant O4:K68, in Bangladesh was due to seroconversion of a previously established strain (Bhoopong et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2011), as reported for V. cholerae (Blokesch and Schoolnik, 2007; Stroeher et al., 1992). Nonetheless, the observed temporal fluctuation of major tdh⁺ serotypes on an annual scale, 08:K21 and 03:K6 in the estuarine aquatic environment of Kuakata appeared in congruence with a recent study showing rise and fall of the pandemic *V. parahaemolyticus* serotypes O3:K6 in southern Chile (García et al., 2013).

3.4. Antigen variability and horizontal gene transfer of virulence determinants

In the present study, the pandemic tdh^+ serotype O3:K6 was found together with a wide range of tdh^+ serotypes, which included pandemic serovariant O4:K68, and non-pandemic strains such as O8:K21, O4:KUT, O5:K30, O5:KUT, O8:KUT, O9:KUT, and OUT:KUT (Table 1). The overall serotyping results suggest the O-antigen to be relatively more stable, as compared to the K-antigen of the potentially pathogenic V. parahemolyticus (Bhoopong et al., 2007). The observed temporal distribution patterns of tdh gene in at least 10 of the 75 reported V. parahaemolyticus serotypes suggest a high frequency of horizontal

gene transfer (HGT) for this gene among the potentially toxigenic *V. parahaemolyticus* in the estuarine environments of Bangladesh (Kamruzzaman and Nishibuchi, 2008; Morita et al., 2013). This supposition is supported by recent studies showing the T3SS2, a component of the *V. parahaemolyticus* pathogenicity island (VPaI-7) harboring *tdh* gene, to be horizontally transferred not only to different *V. parahaemolyticus* serotypes but also to other *Vibrio* spp., namely *V. cholerae* and *V. mimicus* (Okada et al., 2010; Morita et al., 2013). This could be the source of the *tdh* gene identified in the O9:KUT and O5:K30 strains isolated in this study, two serotypes that have not been previously found to carry *tdh*, although *trh*⁺ serotype O5:K30 has been reported from Japan (Fukushima, 2007).

V. parahaemolyticus strains carrying the major virulence markers, i.e., tdh or trh, were additionally screened for the presence of pandemic markers. Two genes typical to the pandemic group such as orf8 and toxRS^{variant} were present in all of the isolated strains belonging to the serotype O3:K6 and its serovariants namely O4:K68, but not in O1:KUT or O5:KUT despite being recognized as a pandemic serovariants (Table 1). Retrospective analysis of *V. parahaemolyticus* strains also revealed that the serotype O1:KUT strains previously isolated from the Bay of Bengal estuary in 2005 (Alam et al., 2009) lacked the major pandemic marker genes such as orf8 and toxRS^{variant}. Also, none of the tdh⁺ nonpandemic strains, including the isolate found to carry trh, harbored any of the two markers usually found in the serotype O3:K6 and its pandemic serovariants (Table 1 & Fig. 1). The occurrence in 2008 of O1:KUT and OUT:KUT (Nair et al., 2007) lacking the pandemic markers orf8 and/or toxRSvariant is intriguing. Either these strains are derived from the progenitor pandemic serotype, O3:K6 or its serovariants and lost virulence determinants or they represent local strains which acquired a novel serotype by HGT (Bhoopong et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2011). These two possibilities can be resolved by looking at the genetic relatedness of the isolates.

3.5. Genetic diversity of the V. parahaemolyticus population in estuarine Bangladesh

V. parahemolyticus strains carrying the major virulence genes such as tdh and trh were also subjected to pulsed-field gel electrophoresis (PFGE). Cluster analysis was also performed with the different PFGE patterns to understand the genetic relatedness and evolutionary trend of the toxigenic *V. parahemolyticus* strains isolated from the estuarine environments of Bangladesh. The PFGE patterns of the environmental V. parahaemolyticus strains were compared with the contemporary strains belonging to respective serogroups associated with diarrhea cases reporting to the hospitals in neighboring coastal region, to determine their clonal relatedness. The results revealed that the Sfildigested genomic DNA of toxigenic V. parahemolyticus strains yielded 12 to 19 fragments ranging from 20 kb to 350 kb (Fig. 2). A total of 37 different PFGE patterns and 19 major pulsotypes (P1 to P19) were obtained from 48 representative V. parahemolyticus strains tested in the present study. Results demonstrated that the naturally occurring toxigenic strains exhibited high genetic diversity in the coastal and estuarine environment of Bangladesh, which has been an established habitat for V. parahemolyticus (Alam et al., 2009; Islam et al., 2004), especially V. cholerae responsible for Asiatic cholera (Alam et al., 2006).

3.6. V. parahaemolyticus strains causing infections originate from local surface waters

Cluster analysis by dendrogram revealed two major clusters, separating the toxigenic non-pandemic O8:K21 serotype strains from the pandemic O3:K6 and its serovariant strains (Fig. 2). The pandemic and non-pandemic strains belonging to the two major clusters were further subdivided into multiple small sub-clusters comprising genetically closely related strains (Fig. 2). These small sub-clusters comprised heterogeneous but clonally closely related strains forming 'clonal

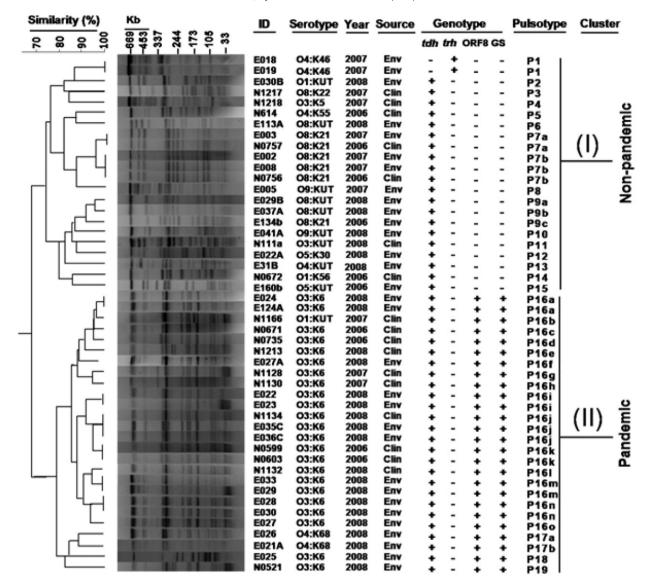


Fig. 2. PFGE patterns of Sfil-digested genomic DNA of potentially toxigenic *V. parahaemolyticus* strains isolated from the coastal ecosystem of Bangladesh. Strain identification number, serotype, year of isolation, environmental (Env) and clinical (Clin) sources and, genotypes of the *V. parahaemolyticus* strains are indicated. The dendrogram was constructed by the Bionumeric software (Applied Maths) using the Dice similarity coefficient and UPGMA of the PFGE profiles of the *V. parahaemolyticus* strains. The pandemic and non-pandemic groups were differentiated based on their genotypes and clustering patterns of the PFGE profiles of *V. parahaemolyticus* strains.

complexes' (Alam et al., 2009). Highly related PFGE patterns of the major $tdh^+ V$. parahaemolyticus serotypes (O3:K6 or O8:K21) isolated from natural surface waters, and strains belonging to the respective serotypes isolated from contemporary clinical sources indicate clonal link, suggesting surface water as the source of the $tdh^+ V$. parahaemolyticus responsible for diarrhea in Bangladesh. For example, pulsotype 16 is composed of both clinical and environmental O3:K6 strains and pulsotype 7 includes clinical and environmental O8:K21 strains (Fig. 2).

3.7. Seroconversion and horizontal gene transfer (HGT) both play a role in shaping the population of toxigenic strains

Strains from two pandemic serovariants clustered with O3:K6, one clinical O1:KUT (pulsotype 16b) and two O4:K68 strains (pulsotype 17) (Fig. 2). Being genetically close to O3:K6, these are likely the result of seroconversion occurring in the local environment (Chen et al., 2011). In the estuarine environment of Bangladesh, the predominant tdh^+ serotype was O8:K21 during 2006 and 2007. A major shift in the

tdh⁺ serotype occurred in 2008 when the O3:K6 was predominant, and O8:KUT was found to be one of the *tdh*⁺ non-pandemic serotypes, but not O8:K21. We presume, the tdh⁺ O8:KUT might have been originated from O8:K21 via seroconversion (Bhoopong et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2011). Although the O8:KUT strains found in this study generally cluster closely with O8:K21 isolates, there are two clearly distinct clusters containing both of these serotypes (pulsotypes P6-P7 and pulsotype P9) (Fig. 2), suggesting high frequency of horizontal gene transfer (HGT) within and between the naturally occurring populations, as has been proposed recently for toxigenic V. parahemolyticus (Theethakaew et al., 2013; Kamruzzaman and Nishibuchi, 2008; Morita et al., 2013). The observed diversity of the tdh^+ serotypes, which included the pandemic serotype O3:K6 and the pandemic serovariants, and their temporal serotypic shift portray the estuarine aquatic environment to be an important natural habitat that allows genetic recombination among pathogenic V. parahaemolyticus that remains a potential threat for millions of people living in the coastal villages of Bangladesh.

4. Conclusions

Foodborne pathogen V. parahaemolyticus has been a significant concern for millions of seafood lovers worldwide. In the coastal villages of Bangladesh, diarrhea is endemic (Alam et al., 2006) and diarrheagenic V. parahaemolyticus serotypes occur naturally in the aquatic environment (Alam et al., 2009; Islam et al., 2004). The results presented in this study, coupled with the information available in the published literature clearly indicate the coastal and estuarine environment of the Bay of Bengal to be an important natural habitat supporting the survival and evolution of potentially toxigenic *tdh*⁺ population, belonging to both the pandemic and non-pandemic serotypes of the bacterium. This study provides the first in situ evidence of the temporal serotypic shift of the major tdh⁺ V. parahaemolyticus associated with diarrhea in this region. The emergence of the pandemic pathogen O3:K6 and its establishment as the major tdh⁺ serotype in 2008 was remarkable because in the immediate past years, 2006–2007, and also in 2005, the O8:K21associated with diarrheal illness was the predominant tdh^+ serotype occurring naturally in the coastal and estuarine environment of Bangladesh. Also, remarkable was the fact that, in 2008 the pandemic serotype O3:K6 was accompanied by tdh⁺ pandemic and non-pandemic serovariants, namely 04:K68 and 08:KUT, respectively; but not the 08:K21, predominantly found tdh^+ serotype occurring, in the preceding years, 2005–2007. While these results suggest possible seroconversion as the means of the observed serotypic shift, the high genetic diversity among the toxigenic population belonging to a respective serotype is attributable presumably to extensive HGT of virulence determinants (tdh, trh) and antigen coding genes (O and K) among the naturally occurring diverse population of V. parahaemolyticus. The serodiversity of tdh⁺ strains, including the two novel tdh⁺ serotypes, O5:K30 and O9:KUT occurring in the coastal and estuarine environment of Bangladesh might suggest broad host range for the major virulence factors in V. parahaemolyticus belonging to both the pandemic and non-pandemic clonal complexes, which makes the clinical management of the disease and its prevention potentially challenging. This study underscores the need for routine monitoring of the potentially pathogenic V. parahaemolyticus evolving in the estuarine surface water serving as the source of drinking water for millions in Bangladesh where many people dies each year due to recurrent diarrhea and related infectious diseases.

Acknowledgments

This research was funded by the Japanese National Institute of Infectious Diseases (NIID) grant. icddr,b acknowledges with gratitude the commitment of the NIID, Japan to its research efforts. We gratefully appreciate the contribution of Mr. Nurul Amin Bhuiyan for his assistance to the research. icddr,b is also grateful to the Governments of Bangladesh, Canada, Sweden and the UK for providing core/unrestricted support.

References

- Alam, M., Hasan, N.A., Sadique, A., Bhuiyan, N.A., Ahmed, K.U., Nusrin, S., Nair, G.B., Siddique, A.K., Sack, R.B., Sack, D.A., Huq, A., Colwell, R.R., 2006. Seasonal cholera caused by Vibrio cholerae serogroups O1 and O139 in the coastal aquatic environment of Bangladesh. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 72, 4096–4104.
- Alam, M., Chowdhury, W.B., Bhuiyan, N.A., Islam, A., Hasan, N.A., Nair, G.B., Watanabe, H., Siddique, A.K., Huq, A., Sack, R.B., Akhter, M.Z., Grim, C.J., Kam, K.M., Luey, C.K., Endtz, H.P., Cravioto, A., Colwell, R.R., 2009. Serogroup, virulence, and genetic traits of Vibrio parahaemolyticus in the estuarine ecosystem of Bangladesh. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 75. 6268–6274.
- American Public Health Association (APHA), 2005. Procedures for the Bacteriological Examination of Sea Water and Shellfish. Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater, 21st ed. American Public Health Association (APHA), American Water Works Association (AWWA), and Water Environment Federation (WEF), Washington, DC, USA.
- Ansaruzzaman, M., Lucas, M., Deen, J.L., Bhuiyan, N.A., Wang, X.Y., Safa, A., Sultana, M., Chowdhury, A., Nair, G.B., Sack, D.A., von Seidlein, L., Puri, M.K., Ali, M., Chaignat, C.L., Clemens, J.D., Barreto, A., 2005. Pandemic serovars (O3:K6 and O4:K68) of *Vibrio*

- parahaemolyticus associated with diarrhea in Mozambique: spread of the pandemic into the African continent. J. Clin. Microbiol. 43, 2559–2562.
- Bej, A.K., Patterson, D.P., Brasher, C.W., Vickery, M.C., Jones, D.D., Kaysner, C.A., 1999. Detection of total and hemolysin-producing Vibrio parahaemolyticus in shellfish using multiplex PCR amplification of tlh, tdh and trh. J. Microbiol. Methods 36, 215–225.
- Bhoopong, P., Palittapongarnpim, P., Pomwised, R., Kiatkittipong, A., Kamruzzaman, M., Nakaguchi, Y., Nishibuchi, M., Ishibashi, M., Vuddhakul, V., 2007. Variability of properties of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* strains isolated from individual patients. J. Clin. Microbiol. 45, 1544–1550.
- Bhuiyan, N.A., Ansaruzzaman, M., Kamruzzaman, M., Alam, K., Chowdhury, N.R., Nishibuchi, M., Faruque, S.M., Sack, D.A., Takeda, Y., Nair, G.B., 2002. Prevalence of the pandemic genotype of Vibrio parahaemolyticus in Dhaka, Bangladesh, and significance of its distribution across different serotypes. I. Clin. Microbiol. 40, 284–286.
- Blokesch, M., Schoolnik, G.K., 2007. Serogroup conversion of *Vibrio cholerae* in aquatic reservoirs. PLoS Pathog. 3, 81.
- Caburlotto, G., Gennari, M., Ghidini, V., Tafi, M., Lleo, M.M., 2010. Serological and molecular characterization of Vibrio parahaemolyticus marine strains carrying pandemic genetic markers. ISME J. 4, 1071–1074.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), 2006. Vibrio parahaemolyticus infections associated with consumption of raw shellfish–three states. MMWR Morb. Mortal. Wkly Rep. 55, 854–856.
- Chen, Y., Stine, O.C., Badger, J.H., Gil, A.I., Nair, G.B., Nishibuchi, M., Fouts, D.E., 2011. Comparative genomic analysis of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*: serotype conversion and virulence. BMC Genomics 12, 294.
- Chowdhury, N.R., Chakraborty, S., Eampokalap, B., Chaicumpa, W., Chongsa-Nguan, M., Moolasart, P., Mitra, R., Ramamurthy, T., Bhattacharya, S.K., Nishibuchi, M., Takeda, Y., Nair, G.B., 2000. Clonal dissemination of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* displaying similar DNA fingerprint but belonging to two different serovars (O3:K6 and O4:K68) in Thailand and India. Epidemiol. Infect. 125, 17–25.
- Cruz, R.V., Harasawa, H., Lal, M., Wu, S., Anokhin, Y., Punsalmaa, B., Honda, Y., Jafari, M., Li, C., Huu Ninh, N., 2007. Asia. Climate Change 2007: Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability. In: Parry, M.L., Canziani, O.F., Palutikof, J.P., van der Linden, P.J., Hanson, C.E. (Eds.), Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK, pp. 469–506.
- DePaola, A., Nordstrom, J.L., Bowers, J.C., Wells, J.G., Cook, D.W., 2003. Seasonal abundance of total and pathogenic *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in Alabama oysters. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 69, 1521–1526.
- Fujino, T., Okuno, T., Nakada, D., Aoyama, A., Fukai, K., Mukai, T., Ueho, T., 1951. On the bacteriological examination of shirasu food poisoning. J. Jpn. Assoc. Infect. Dis. 25, 11–12
- Fukushima, H., 2007. Distribution of thermostable direct hemolysin (*TDH*)- and *TDH*-related hemolysin (TRH)-producing *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in coastal Shimane Prefecture and *TDH* and TRH *V parahaemolyticus* contamination of retail shellfish. Kansenshogaku Zasshi 81, 138–148.
- García, K., Bastías, R., Higuera, G., Torres, R., Mellado, A., Uribe, P., Espejo, R.T., 2013. Rise and fall of pandemic Vibrio parahaemolyticus serotype O3:K6 in southern Chile. Environ. Microbiol. 15, 527–534.
- Honda, T., Iida, T., 1993. The pathogenicity of Vibrio parahaemolyticus and the role of the thermostable direct haemolysin and related haemolysins. Rev. Med. Microbiol. 4, 106–113.
- Iguchi, T., Kondo, S., Hisatsune, K., 1995. Vibrio parahaemolyticus O serotypes from O1 to O13 all produce R-type lipopolysaccharide: SDS-PAGE and compositional sugar analysis. FEMS Microbiol. Lett. 130, 287–292.
- Islam, M.S., Tasmin, R., Khan, S.I., Bakht, H.B., Mahmood, Z.H., Rahman, M.Z., Bhuiyan, N.A., Nishibuchi, M., Nair, G.B., Sack, R.B., Huq, A., Colwell, R.R., Sack, D.A., 2004. Pandemic strains of O3:K6 Vibrio parahaemolyticus in the aquatic environment of Bangladesh. Can. I. Microbiol. 50, 827–834.
- Johnson, C.N., Bowers, J.C., Griffitt, K.J., Molina, V., Clostio, R.W., Pei, S., Laws, E., Paranjpye, R.N., Strom, M.S., Chen, A., Hasan, N.A., Huq, A., Noriea 3rd., N.F., Grimes, D.J., Colwell, R.R., 2012. Ecology of Vibrio parahaemolyticus and Vibrio vulnificus in the coastal and estuarine waters of Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, and Washington (United States). Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 78, 7249–7257.
- Kam, K.M., Luey, C.K., Parsons, M.B., Cooper, K.L., Nair, G.B., Alam, M., Islam, M.A., Cheung, D.T., Chu, Y.W., Ramamurthy, T., Pazhani, G.P., Bhattacharya, S.K., Watanabe, H., Terajima, J., Arakawa, E., Ratchtrachenchai, O.A., Huttayananont, S., Ribot, E.M., Gerner-Smidt, P., Swaminathan, B., 2008. Vibrio parahaemolyticus PulseNet PFGE Protocol Working Group. Evaluation and validation of a PulseNet standardized pulsed-field gel electrophoresis protocol for subtyping Vibrio parahaemolyticus: an international multicenter collaborative study. J. Clin. Microbiol. 46, 2766–2773.
- Kamruzzaman, M., Nishibuchi, M., 2008. Detection and characterization of a functional insertion sequence, ISVpa2, in Vibrio parahaemolyticus. Gene 409, 92–99.
- Khan, A.E., Ireson, A., Kovats, S., Mojumder, S.K., Khusru, A., Rahman, A., Vineis, P., 2011. Drinking water salinity and maternal health in coastal Bangladesh: implications of climate change. Environ. Health Perspect. 119, 1328–1332.
- Kim, Y.B., Okuda, J., Matsumoto, C., Takahashi, N., Hashimoto, S., Nishibuchi, M., 1999. Identification of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* strains at the species level by PCR targeted to the *toxR* gene. J. Clin. Microbiol. 37, 1173–1177.
- Klontz, E.H., Faruque, A.S., Das, S.K., Malek, M.A., Islam, Z., Luby, S.P., Klontz, K.C., 2012. Clinical and epidemiologic features of diarrheal disease due to Aeromonas hydrophila and Plesiomonas shigelloides infections compared with those due to Vibrio cholerae non-O1 and Vibrio parahaemolyticus in Bangladesh. ISRN Microbiol. 2012. 654819.
- Mala, W., Alam, M., Angkititrakul, S., Wongwajana, S., Lulitanond, V., Huttayananont, S., Kaewkes, W., Faksri, K., Chomvarin, C., 2016. Serogroup, virulence, and molecular traits of Vibrio parahaemolyticus isolated from clinical and cockle sources in northeastern Thailand. Infect. Genet. Evol. 39, 212–218.

- Martinez-Urtaza, J., Lozano-Leon, A., DePaola, A., Ishibashi, M., Shimada, K., Nishibuchi, M., Liebana, E., 2004. Characterization of pathogenic *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* isolates from clinical sources in Spain and comparison with Asian and North American pandemic isolates. J. Clin. Microbiol. 42, 4672–4678.
- Matsumoto, C., Okuda, J., Ishibashi, M., Iwanaga, M., Garg, P., Rammamurthy, T., Wong, H.C., Depaola, A., Kim, Y.B., Albert, M.J., Nishibuchi, M., 2000. Pandemic spread of an O3:K6 clone of Vibrio parahaemolyticus and emergence of related strains evidenced by arbitrarily primed PCR and toxRS sequence analyses. J. Clin. Microbiol. 38, 578–585.
- Morita, M., Yamamoto, S., Hiyoshi, H., Kodama, T., Okura, M., Arakawa, E., Alam, M., Ohnishi, M., Izumiya, H., Watanabe, H., 2013. Horizontal gene transfer of a genetic island encoding a type III secretion system distributed in *Vibrio cholerae*. Microbiol. Immunol. 57, 334–339.
- Nair, G.B., Ramamurthy, T., Bhattacharya, S.K., 2007. Global dissemination of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* serotype 03:K6 and its serovariants. Rev. Clin. Microbiol. 20, 39–48.
- Nasu, H., Iida, T., Sugahara, T., Yamaichi, Y., Park, K.S., Yokoyama, K., Makino, K., Shinagawa, H., Honda, T., 2000. A filamentous phage associated with recent pandemic Vibrio parahaemolyticus O3:K6 strains. J. Clin. Microbiol. 38, 2156–2161.
- Nishibuchi, M., Kaper, J.B., 1995. Thermostable direct hemolysin gene of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*: a virulence gene acquired by a marine bacterium. Infect. Immun. 63, 2093–2099
- Noriea 3rd., N.F., Johnson, C.N., Griffitt, K.J., Grimes, D.J., 2010. Distribution of type III secretion systems in *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* from the northern Gulf of Mexico. J. Appl. Microbiol. 109, 953–962.

- Okada, N., Matsuda, S., Matsuyama, J., Park, K.S., de los Reyes, C., Kogure, K., Honda, T., Iida, T., 2010. Presence of genes for type III secretion system 2 in *Vibrio mimicus* strains. BMC Microbiol. 10, 302.
- Okuda, J., Ishibashi, M., Hayakawa, E., Nishino, T., Takeda, Y., Mukhopadhyay, A.K., Garg, S., Bhattacharya, S.K., Nair, G.B., Nishibuchi, M., 1997. Emergence of a unique O3:K6 clone of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in Calcutta, India, and isolation of strains from the same clonal group from Southeast Asian travelers arriving in Japan. J. Clin. Microbiol. 35. 3150–3155.
- Okura, M., Osawa, R., Iguchi, A., Arakawa, E., Terajima, J., Watanabe, H., 2003. Genotypic analyses of Vibrio parahaemolyticus and development of a pandemic group-specific multiplex PCR assay. J. Clin. Microbiol. 41, 4676–4682.
- Ottaviani, D., Leoni, F., Rocchegiani, E., Mioni, R., Costa, A., Virgilio, S., Serracca, L., Bove, D., Canonico, C., Di, Cesare, A., Masini, L., Potenziani, S., Caburlotto, G., Ghidini, V., Lleo, M.M., 2013. An extensive investigation into the prevalence and the genetic and serological diversity of toxigenic *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in Italian marine coastal waters. Environ. Microbiol. 15, 1377–1386.
- Stroeher, U.H., Karageorgos, L.E., Morona, R., Manning, P.A., 1992. Serotype conversion in *Vibrio cholerae* O1. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 89, 2566–2570.
- Theethakaew, C., Feil, E.J., Castillo-Ramírez, S., Aanensen, D.M., Suthienkul, O., Neil, D.M., Davies, R.L., 2013. Genetic relationships of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* isolates from clinical, human carrier, and environmental sources in Thailand, determined by multilocus sequence analysis. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 79, 2358–2370.