Growing significance of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* as an emerging foodborne bacterial pathogen.

Mahendra Pal*

Founder of Narayan Consultancy on Veterinary Public Health and Microbiology, Anand-388001, India

Accepted on January 5, 2019

Introduction

Foodborne diseases, caused by diverse etiology, are important from public health, and economic point of view. Currently, more than 200 diseases may be transmitted to humans through the ingestion of food contaminated either with microorganisms or with chemicals [1]. These diseases can occur in sporadic as well as in epidemic form resulting in significant morbidity and mortality in people worldwide [1]. There are many emerging bacterial foodborne pathogens, such as Aeromonas hydrophila, Arcobacter butzleri, Bacillus cereus, Campylobacter jejuni, Clostridium botulinum, Cronobacter skazakii, Eshcheria coli 0157: H7, Listeria monocytogenes, Plesiomonas shigelloides, Yersinia enterocolitica, Vibrio parahaemolyticus, and V. vulnificus, which are reported from developed as well as developing nations of the world [1,2]. These pathogens can cause life threatening infections, especially in children, elderly, pregnant women, and immune compromised persons; and are responsible for a great number of diseases with significant impact on human health and economy [2]. Among these, V. parahaemolyticus is an emerging foodborne bacterium that is the leading cause of gastroenteritis in many countries of the world including India [2]. The etiologic agent is a Gram negative, halophile, motile, oxidase positive, straight or curved rod-shaped, facultative anaerobic bacterium that occurs naturally in the marine, estuarine, and coastal environments throughout the world [3]. The organism is recovered from coastal water, seas and, plankton, crabs, fish, shellfish, finfish, and molluscs in Africa, Asia, Australia, Europe, New Zealand, North America, and South America [1,4].

The survival of *V. parahaemolyticus* in seafood's is subjected to chilling, freezing, heating, drying and smoking. Low-temperature freezing (at -18°C or -24°C) or High-temperature treatment above 55°C and low-temperature freezing at -18°C for 10 min is described to inactivate or kill *V. parahaemolyticus* in oysters [5]. The pathogen is reported to be sensitive to heating, freezing, refrigeration, and common disinfectants [6].

It is believed that the impact of climate change may perhaps attribute to the rising incidences of *V. parahaemolyticus* infection [7]. Most sporadic infections and outbreaks in USA were linked to consumption of contaminated, raw Mollusca shellfish. Majority of cases have occurred during the warm months. There seems to be no association with age, sex, race, and occupation in the epidemic of *V. parahaemolyticus* infection [1]. A plethora of seafood's including fish, shellfish, oysters, mackeral, crabs, mussel, lobster, calms, and shrimp are linked to several outbreaks of *V. parahaemolyticus* infection [1,8]. It is pertinent to mention that ingestion of raw and undercooked seafood, including finfish, constitutes the chief

vehicle of transmission of *V. parahaemolyticus* infection to human beings [1,9].

V. parahaemolyticus was first time identified as a foodborne pathogen in Japan in the 1950s during a massive outbreak, which involved 272 persons and killed [10]. Since then, the infection is recorded in many countries, such as Australia, Bangladesh, Canada, China, France, Germany, Hong Kong, India, Indonesia, England, Italy, Laos, Malaysia, Philippines, Spain, Taiwan, Tanzania, Thailand, Vietnam, and USA [1,7,11-13]. The first isolation of *V. parahaemolyticus* from a case of gastroenteritis in India was reported by Chatterjee and co-workers in 1970. In the United States, the first outbreak of V. parahaemolyticus was reported in Maryland in 1971, where in 425 cases of gastroenteritis occurred following the consumption of improperly cooked crabs [14]. The bacterium is responsible to cause an estimated 4,500 illnesses in the U.S. annually, and around 90% of them were from the consumption of seafood. Between 1986 and 1995, some 197 outbreaks of foodborne disease were caused by V. parahaemolyticus in Taiwan [13]. This marine pathogen is recognized as an important cause of food-borne gastroenteritis, particularly in the Far East due to more consumption of seafood. V. parahaemolyticus causes three major syndromes of clinical illness namely, gastroenteritis, wound infections, and septicaemia [1]. V. parahaemolyticus is reported as common cause of diarrhoeal disease throughout the world. In this context, Su and Liu mentioned that V. parahaemolyticus should be considered as important pathogen of sea food safety concern It is important to cite that thermo stable direct haemolysin (TDH) and TDH-related haemolysin (TRH) are two major virulence factors of *V. parahaemolyticus*, which are closely related to its pathogenicity [6]. Although various serotypes of V. parahaemolyticus are found to be associated with human infections, however, serotype O3:K6 is implicated in several outbreaks [15].

The infection primarily occurs through consumption of contaminated raw fish, shellfish and other sea foods. Rarely, infection can also be acquired when a person with open wound is exposed to warm sea water. The sources of contamination are sea fish, sea water, salted vegetables, kitchen knife and chopping board [1]. The incubation period of *V. parahaemolyticus* is 3-24 hours, usually about 10-15 hours. The clinical manifestation in patients include diarrhoea, abdominal cramps, nausea, vomiting headache, fever, chills, dehydration, weakness, hypotension, and cyanosis [9]. In addition, the pathogen also causes wound infection, ear infection, traveller's diarrhoea, and septicaemia in humans [1,16].

Summary

V. parahaemolyticus from stool, rectal swab and food is attempted in several nutrient media such as arabinose gluconate agar, glucose salt teepol agar, marine agar, thiosulphate citrate bile salt (TCBS) agar, and Vibrio agar [9]. Among this, TCBS is a selective medium on which colonies of V. parahaemolyticus can be easily identified due to blue green colour. Kanagawa test is helpful in the identification of pathogenic isolates recovered from patients or food. The haemolysis of human or rabbit red blood cells on Wagatsuma Agar V. parahaemolyticusthiosulphate citrate bile salt (TCBS) agar should be widely used for the isolation and presumption identification of V. parahaemolyticus by poor resource countries who do not have facilities of molecular tools in the laboratory.

As V. parahaemolyticus infection is self-limited, no chemotherapy is required. However, in severe cases, ciprofloxacin, neomycin, tetracycline may be tried. In addition, supportive therapy with oral or intravenous electrolyte fluid is also given to save the life of patient [9]. Presently, no vaccine is available, and therefore, the infection can be controlled by thorough cooking of fish, shellfish and other seafood's before consumption, use of safe and potable water in kitchen, proper handling of seafood's, satisfactory refrigeration of foods, and avoiding cross contamination of processed food with raw food. In addition, health education of fish eating community about the hazards of eating raw or undercooked or insufficiently cooked fish and other seafood's and kitchen hygiene [9]. It is advised that persons with liver disease should avoid eating raw or undercooked Mollusca shellfish, since they are at particularly high risk for *V. parahaemolyticus* [12,20].

It is emphasized that incidence and frequency of pathogenic *V. parahaemolyticus*in water, finfish and shellfish should be deterimined. There is a need to improve global public health surveillance of *V. parahaemolyticus*to identify new epidemic strains. Further work on the pathogenesis, risk factors, and molecular epidemiology should be conducted.

Acknowledgements

The author is very grateful to Prof. Dr. R.K. Narayan for going through the manuscript. The help of Anubha in computer is also appreciated.

References

- Pal M. Impact of emerging foodborne pathogens on public health. Ph.D. Lecture Notes, Addis Ababa University, College of Veterin ary Medicine. Debre Zeit. 2014;3(3):1-21.
- 2. Pal M. Yersinia enterocolitica as an important pathogen of food safety concern. J Exp Food Chem. 2018;4:(1):1-2.
- 3. Ceccarelli D, Hasan NA, Huq A, et al. Distribution and dynamics of epidemic and pandemic Vibrio parahaemolyticus virulence factors. Front Cell Infect Microbiol. 2013;3:97.

- 4. Raszl SM, Froelich BA, Vieira CR, et al. Vibrio parahaemolyticus and Vibrio vulnificus in South America: water, seafood and human infections. J Appl Microbiol. 2016; 121 (5): 1201-22.
- 5. Andrews LS, Park DL, Chen YP. Low temperature pasteurization to reduce the risk of Vibrio infections from raw shellstock oysters. Food Addit Contam. 2000;17(9): 787-791.
- 6. Su YC, Liu C. Vibrio parahaemolyticus: a concern of seafood safety. Food Microbiol. 2007;24:549-558.
- Martinez-Urtaza J, Bowers JC, Trinanes J. et al. Climate anomalies and the increasing risk of Vibrio parahaemolyticus and Vibrio vulnificus illnesses. Food Res Int. 2010;43(7):1780-1790.
- 8. Hlady WG. Vibrio infections associated with raw oyster consumption in Florida, 1981–1994. J Food Prot. 1997;60:353-357.
- 9. Pal M. Zoonoses, 2007 2nd Edition. Satyam Publishers, Jaipur, India.
- 10. Fujino T, Okuno Y, Nakada D, et al. On the bacteriological examination of shirasu food poisoning. Med J Osaka Univ. 1953;4:299-304.
- 11. Lalitha MK, Walter NM, Jesudasan M, et al. V.I. An outbreak of gastroenteritis due to Vibrio parahaemolyticus in Vellore. Indian J Med Res. 1983;78:611-615.
- 12. Hally RJ, Rubin RA, Fraimow HS, et al. Fatal Vibrio parahaemolyticus septicemia in a patient with cirrhosis: a case report and review of the literature. Dig Dis Sci. 1995;40(6):1257-1260.
- 13. Pan TM, Chai TJ, Lee CL, et al. Foodborne disease outbreaks due to bacteria in Taiwan, 1986 to 1995. J Clin Microbiol. 1997;35(5):1260-62.
- 14. Molenda JR, Johnson WG, Fishbein M, et al. Vibrio parahaemolyticus in Maryland: laboratory aspects. J Appl Microbiol. 1972;24(3):444-48.
- 15. Nair GB, Ramamurthy T, Bhattacharya SK, et al. Global dissemination of Vibrio parahaemolyticus O3:K6 and its serovariants. Clin Microbiol Rev. 2007;20(1):39-48.
- 16. Morris J, Black R. Cholera and other vibrioses in the United States. N Engl J Med. 1985;312:343-350.
- 17. Wong HC. Detection of molecular typing of Vibrio parahaemolyticus. J Food Drug Anal. 2003;11:100-107.
- 18. Kawatsu K, Ishibashi M, Tsukamoto T. Development and evaluation of a rapid, simple, and sensitive immunochromatographic assay to detect thermostable direct hemolysin produced by Vibrio parahaemolyticus in enrichment cultures of stool specimens. J Clin Microbiol. 2006;44(5):1821-27.
- 19. Hossain MT, Kim YO, Kong IS. Multiplex PCR for the detection and differentiation of Vibrio parahaemolyticus strains using the groEL, tdh and trh genes. Mol Cell Probe. 2013;27(5-6):171-75.
- 20. Chatterjee BD, Neogy KN, Gorbach SL. Study of V. parahaemolyticus from cases of diarrhea in Calcutta. Indian J Med Res. 1970;58:234-38.

*Correspondence to:

Mahendra Pal

Founder of Narayan Consultancy on Veterinary Public Health and Microbiology, Anand, India

E-mail: palmahendra2@gmail.com