Iranian journal of food science and industry, Number 154, volume 21, Decamber2024



Journal of Food Science and Technology (Iran)

Homepage:<u>www.fsct.modares.ir</u>

Scientific Research

Evaluation of the prevalence of *Vibrio cholerae* isolated from water and vegetables and the presence of virulence genes and antibiotic resistance pattern in Qom province Somayeh Kermani¹, Mojtaba Bonyadian^{*2}, Saeed Shams^{*3}, Hamdollah Moshtaghi⁴

1-Ph.D. Candidate in Health and Food Quality Control, Faculty of Veterinary, Shahrekord University, Shahrekord, Iran.

2*-Professor, Department of Health and Food Quality Control, Faculty of Veterinary, Shahrekord University, Shahrekord, Iran. (Corresponding Author 1).

3*-Assistant Professor, Cellular and Molecular Research Center, Qom University of Medical Sciences, Qom, Iran., (Corresponding Author 2).

4-Professor, Department of Health and Food Quality Control, Faculty of Veterinary, Shahrekord University, Shahrekord, Iran.

ARTICLE INFO

ABSTRACT

Article History: Received:2024/3/25 Accepted:2024/6/12	Vibrio cholerae is one of the important human pathogens that is transmitted through contaminated water and food. In Qom province, due to special weather conditions, diseases caused by V. cholerae are endemic. The aim of this study was the prevalence of V. cholerae in
Keywords: <i>Vibrio cholerae</i> non-O1, virulence genes, antibiotic resistance, water, vegetables	water and vegetables of Qom province and the presence of virulence genes. During two years (2020-2021), 120 samples of agricultural water (70) and vegetables (50) in Qom province were collected. The samples were cultured on specific media. Suspicious colonies were evaluated by Gram staining and biochemical tests and the serotype V. cholerae was identified by serology test. Finally, Then, the presence of virulence genes was investigated by PCR method and also the antibiotic resistance pattern by disk diffusion method was evaluated in the isolates. V. cholerae bacteria were isolated from 17 samples
DOI: 10.22034/FSCT.21.154.128. *Corresponding Author E- boniadian@sku.ac.ir sshams@muq.ac.ir	(16.14%), all of which were non-O1. The rate of contamination of water and vegetables was 28.14% (10 cases) and 14.00% (7 cases), respectively. In molecular evaluation, the abundance of virulence genes including: toxR (88.32%), rtxA (58.82%), hlyA (47.05%), chxA (5.88%), and 100% of isolates did not have ctxA, ace and tcpA genes. The most antibiotic resistance is related to ampicillin and amoxicillin (34.29%), followed by cefuroxime (17.46%), imipenem (11.76%), and cefoxitin and trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole (5.88%). The results of this study showed that V. cholerae non-O1 is present in water and vegetables of Qom province, and as an important source of disease for humans therefore, continuous health monitoring of water and vegetables and proper disinfection of these foods is very important.

1. Introduction

Vibrio cholerae is a Gram-negative, curved, facultative anaerobic bacterium that exists primarily in aquatic ecosystems and could cause cholera through ingestion of contaminated food and water. To date, seven cholera epidemics have been recorded in the world [1]. According to reports published by the World Health Organization (WHO), about 3 to 5 million cholera cases and more than 140,000 deaths from this disease are annually recorded worldwide [1-3].

V. cholerae could be divided into more than 200 different serotypes based on the variation in the O antigen structure of the cell wall lipopolysaccharide. Serotype O1 is classified into two biotypes (classical and Eltor) and three serogroups (Inaba, Ogawa, and Hikojima). Strains belonging to other serogroups are classified as non-O1, non-O139 *V. cholerae* (NOVC). Initially, these strains were non-toxic and unimportant due to the absence of pathogenic toxin genes *ctx* and *tcpA* [4]. Non-toxigenic strains are unable to cause epidemic diseases, although they have caused small and sporadic epidemics in the past [5].

Bacteria and viruses are known to be the main causes of diarrhea, and many diarrhea cases caused by these pathogens have been reported so far [6-9]. During the last two decades, there have been reports about the presence of non-O1, non-O139 *V. cholerae* strains toxinproducing genes in patients with diarrhea and other invasive infections [10, 11]. Recent studies have shown that virulence genes and their homologues are distributed among *V. cholera* environmental strains in addition to clinical strains [12, 13]. Although the reason for the greater survival of environmental vibrios containing virulence genes compared to other environmental strains is not well known, these virulence gene-containing environmental strains may be the origin of pathogenic strains; in other words, they may be involved in the gene transfer process that leads to the emergence of pathogenic strains [14]. NOVCs often carry genes that cause mild to severe gastroenteritis [15]. There are pathogenic and non-pathogenic strains of non-O1, non-O139 V. cholera in aquatic ecosystems, but cholera endemicity in a region depends on the environmental resources of that region [16]. NOVC strains mainly lack cholera toxin (CT) and toxin-coregulated pilus (TCP) and cause disease by a mechanism different from those of V. cholerae O1 or O139. In addition to these two main virulence factors, other virulence factors in V. cholerae include: regulatory protein ToxR (activator of transcription of genes related to CT and TCP), accessory cholera enterotoxin (ace), repeats in toxins (rtx CABD), and hemolysin (*hlvA*), which lead to diarrheal disease. In non-O1, non-O139 V. cholera, extracellular pore-forming toxins hemolysin heat-stable (RtxA), (hlyA), enterotoxin (stn), and cholix toxin (chxA) play important roles in the pathogenesis of these strains [17].

Hydration therapy is the primary treatment for cholera, although antibiotics are recommended in the treatment of severe cholera cases and extra-intestinal infections. The emergence of antibiotic-resistant pathogens has become a serious global health issue. Although *V. cholera* antibiotic susceptibility testing (AST) was not suggested in the past due to the low resistance of *V. cholerae* to common antibiotics, today there are reports of resistance of non-O1, nonO139 *V. cholerae* to aminoglycosides, tetracycline, chloramphenicol, trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole, ampicillin, and carbapenems, necessitating antibiotic sensitivity testing [18].

In order to detect and track the path of creation of pathogenic V. cholerae from non-pathogenic types, it is necessary to identify intermediate strains with less pathogenicity compared to epidemic strains. Since cholera is a water-borne disease, it is important to investigate environmental strains and their virulence genes and antibiotic resistance patterns in order to cholera epidemics prevent or sporadic gastroenteritis. Every year, several V. cholerae infected cases are reported in the southern and central regions of Iran, especially in Qom province and during hot seasons. For this reason, in this study, the presence of virulence and antibiotic resistance genes was investigated in V. cholerae environmental strains isolated from water and vegetables in Oom city and surrounding rural areas.

2. Materials and methods

This study was reviewed and approved by the Research Ethics Committee of Shahrekord University of Medical Sciences (code: IR.SKU.REC.1401.029).

2.1. Sample collection

In this study, a total of 120 samples, including 70 samples of surface and agricultural water and 30 samples of vegetables, were collected from Qom city and surrounding rural areas in the spring and summer seasons of 2020 to 2021 (where a large number of *V. cholera*e non-O1 positive samples were previously collected). To

collect the samples, 1 to 2 L of each water sample was collected in a sterile glass container, and 100 g of each vegetable sample was collected in a sterile polyethylene plastic. The samples were immediately transferred to the research center laboratory of Qom University of Medical Sciences.

2. 2. Isolation and identification of V. cholerae In the next step, 500 mL of washed vegetable water and collected surface water were filtered through a membrane paper with a pore size of 0.45 µm (Advantec Toyo, Ltd., Tokyo). Then the membrane filters were placed in an alkaline saline peptone water (ASPW) environment with a pH of 6.8±0.2 and kept in a greenhouse at 37 °C for 6-8 hours. This solution was then centrifuged at 4000 rpm for 5 min. About 0.5 mL of the suspension was cultured on plates containing TCBS (thiosulfate-citrate-bile saltssucrose agar) medium. After 18-24 hours of incubation at 37 °C, yellow single colonies that were morphologically similar (2-4 mm in diameter with a dark center and clear edges) to V. cholerae colonies were cultured on BHI (brain heart infusion) medium.

Bacterial culture on this medium was used for diagnostic biochemical tests and serotyping of the strains. The initial identification of the suspected bacteria was based on a series of biochemical tests, such as catalase, oxidase, triple sugar-iron (TSI) agar, Kligler iron agar (KIA), Voges-Proskauer (VP), bile esculin agar, lysine decarboxylase, arginine dihydrolase, ornithine decarboxylase, citrate, and grow in different sodium chloride concentrations tests. All media were purchased from Ibresco, Iran.

2. 3. Identification of isolates with specific antiserum

All colonies whose biochemical test results were consistent with *V. cholerae* were examined for serological grouping using polyvalent O1 antiserum (Bahar Afshan, Iran) by plate agglutination method. First, a drop of a specific antiserum was poured on a slide, then a colony from the fresh culture of the isolates was taken using a sterile ring anus and dispersed in the antiserum. The observation of agglutination was the proof of the positive reaction and led to the identification of the desired bacteria [19-20].

2. 4. DNA extraction and polymerase chain reaction (PCR)

Genomic DNA was extracted from *V. cholerae* strains using the boiling method and kept in a freezer at 20 °C until used in the PCR test [21]. PCR test was performed to confirm *V. cholerae* isolates by targeting the *ompW* gene and to check the presence of virulence genes *ctxA*, *hlyA*, *toxR*, *ace*, *chxA*, *rtxA*, and *tcpA* using specific primer pairs for each gene (Table 1). The final volume

of each PCR reaction was 25 µL, including 10 µL of master mix X1 (Amplicon, Denmark), 1 µL of each primer (10 pmol per µL), 3 µL of genomic DNA, and 10 µL of distilled water. PCR amplification was performed in a thermocycler (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany) under the following thermal cycling conditions: an initial denaturation step at 95 °C for 5 min; 25 cycles including denaturation at 95 °C for 30 s, annealing (temperature/time according to Table 1), and elongation at 72 °C for 1 min; and a final elongation step at 72 °C for 10 min. PCR products were then checked by agarose gel electrophoresis in terms of amplification or nonamplification of the desired gene. PCR products were electrophoresed on 1% (weight/volume) agarose gel in an electrophoresis machine with a voltage of 100 volts for one hour. DNA bands were observed and recorded using a gel documentation device (Thermo Fisher, USA) with ultraviolet (UV) radiation. In the last step, the size of the PCR product was estimated by comparing the position of the amplified DNA band with the size of the marker bands.

Target Gene(s)	Primer Sequence($5 \rightarrow 3'$)	Product Size(bp)	Annealing Temperature (°C/s)	References
ompW	F: CACCAAGAAGGTGACTTTATTGTG R: GAACTTATAACCACCCGCG	588	55 /30	[22]
ctxA	F: CTCAGACGGGATTTGTTAGGCACG R: TCTATCTCTGTAGCCCCTATTACG	301	58 /60	[23]
toxR	F: CCTTCGATCCCCTAAGCAATAC R: AGGGTTAGCAACGATGCGTAAG	779	60/ 60	[7]
rtxA	F:CTGAATATGAGTGGGTGACTTACG R: GTGTATTGTTCGATATCCGCTACG	418	56/30	[24]
tcpA	F: CACGATAAGAAAACCGGTCAAGAG R: TTACCAAATGCAACGCCGAATG	620 420	60 /60	[25]

Table 1. Specific primer sequence used in PCR test

hlyA	F: AGATCAACTACGATCAAGCC R: AGAGGTTGCTATGCTTTCTAC	1677	40/55	[8]
chxA	F: GAAAGAGGGTTCACGCCATAA R: CGGGATGGTGAGTGACATAATC	554	58 /30	In study
ace	F: TAAGGATGTGCTTATGATGGACACCC R: CGTGATGAATAAAGATACTCATAGG	316	54 /30	[13]

2. 5. Antimicrobial sensitivity of isolates

Antibiotic susceptibility of V. cholerae isolates was determined by disc diffusion method according to the guidelines of the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI, 2018b) [10, 26]. First, isolates were cultured in sterile saline for 24 hours to obtain a turbidity equivalent to 0.5 McFarland. Then the bacterial suspension was cultivated linearly and uniformly on Mueller-Hinton agar (MHA) plates using a sterile swab. Then antibiotic discs (Podten Teb Company, Iran) suggested to check the antibiotic sensitivity of V. cholerae isolates were placed on the inoculated MHA medium. These discs included: ampicillin (10 µg), amoxicillinclavulanic acid (20/10 µg), amikacin (30 µg), chloramphenicol (30 μ g), ciprofloxacin (5 μ g), cefotaxime (30 µg), ceftazidime (30 µg), cefepime (30 µg), cefuroxime (30 µg), (10 gentamicin trimethoprimμg), sulfamethoxazole (10 µg), imipenem (10 µg), meropenem (10 µg), piperacillin (100 µg), levofloxacin (5 µg), ofloxacin (5 µg), and tetracycline (30 μ g). The plates were kept in a greenhouse at 37 °C for 48 hours. Then the growth inhibition zone diameter of each antibiotic was measured and according to the CLSI standard, V. cholerae isolates were

classified into three categories: sensitive, semisensitive, and resistant to each antibiotic. The antibiogram of the isolates was performed in three replicates.

3. Results

Based on the results, a total of 17 (14.16%) *V. cholerae* isolates were identified, of which seven (14%, 7 of 50 samples) strains were isolated from vegetables, including four (57.15%) isolates from rural and three (42.58%) isolates from urban areas, and 10 (14.28%, 10 of 70 samples) strains were isolated from agricultural water, including eight (80%) isolates from rural and two (20%) isolates from urban areas. Serotyping of the isolates using polyvalent O1 antiserum showed that all the isolates belonged to non-O1 serotype.

Based on the results, 100% of the isolates harbored the *ompW* gene and were confirmed to be *V. cholerae*. Out of 17 isolates, 88.23% had the *toxR* gene, 58.82% had the *rtxA* gene, 47.05% had *hlyA* the gene, 5.88% had the *chxA* gene, and 100% lacked *ctxA*, *ace*, and *tcpA* genes. Also, in five isolates (29.41%), all three genes *rtxA*, *toxR*, and *hlyA* were present simultaneously, and both *rtxA* and *toxR* genes were present in six isolates (35.29%) (Figures 1 and 2).

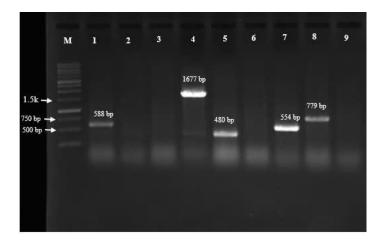


Fig. 1. Electrophoresis of PCR products of virulence genes in some environmental strains of *V. cholerae* non-O1: lane M: 1 kb DNA ladder, lane 1: positive sample for *ompW* gene (588 bp band), lanes 2, 3, 6: negative sample for *tcpA*, *ace*, and *ctxA* genes, lane 4: positive sample for *hlyA* gene (1677 bp band), lane 5: positive sample for *rtxA* gene (480 bp band), lane 7: positive sample for *chxA* gene (554 bp band), lane 8: positive sample for *toxR* gene (779 bp band), lane 9: negative control

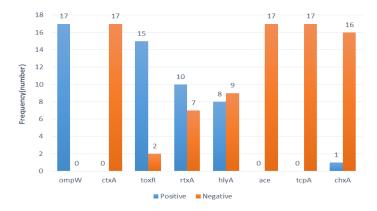


Fig. 2. Frequency of V. cholerae non-O1 virulence genes, isolated from water and vegetable samples

The antibiotic susceptibility testing results showed that 100% of *V. cholerae* non-O1 isolates were sensitive to amikacin, chloramphenicol, ciprofloxacin, cefepime, cefotaxime, gentamicin, levofloxacin, ofloxacin, and tetracycline antibiotics. The highest intermediate susceptibility was related to amoxicillin and meropenem antibiotics (47.05%), and the highest resistance was related to ampicillin and amoxicillin antibiotics (34.29%). Also, 17.46% of the isolates were resistant to cefuroxime, 11.76% to imipenem, and 5.88% to cefoxitin and trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole antibiotics (Table 2). One isolate (5.88%) showed multiple resistance to four antibiotics: ampicillin, amoxicillin, imipenem, and cefoxitin.

Table 2. Antibiotic susceptibility of 17 V. cholerae non-O1 isolates from water and vegetable samples

Antibiotic	Vibrio cholerae N (%)		
	S	Ι	R
Ampicillin (AM)	7 (41.17)	4 (23.52)	6 (35.29)
Amoxicillin-clavulanic acid (AMC)	3 (17.64)	8 (47.05)	6 (35.29)
Amikacin (AN)	17 (100)	0 (00)	0 (00)

Chloramphenicol (C)	17 (100)	0 (00)	0 (00)
Ciprofloxacin (CP)	17 (100)	0 (00)	0 (00)
Cephothaxim (CTX)	17 (100)	0 (00)	0 (00)
Ceftazidime (CAZ)	13 (76.47)	4 (23.52)	0 (00)
Cefoxitin (FOX)	15 (88.23)	1 (5.88)	1 (5.88)
Cefepim (PEP)	17 (100)	0 (00)	0 (00)
Gentamycin (G)	17 (100)	0 (00)	0 (00)
Trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole (SXT)	16 (94.11)	0 (00)	1 (5.88)
Imipenem (IPM)	14 (82.35)	1 (5.88)	2 (11.76)
Piperacillin (PIP)	12 (70.58)	5 (29.41)	0 (00)
Levofloxacin (LEV)	17 (100)	0 (00)	0 (00)
Meropenem (MEN)	9 (52.94)	8 (47.05)	0 (00)
Ofloxacin (OFX)	17 (100)	0 (00)	0 (00)
Tetracycline (TE)	17 (100)	0 (00)	0 (00%)
Cefuroxime (X)	10 (58.82)	4 (23.52)	3 (17.64)

S: Susceptible, I: inter susceptible, R: resistant

4. Discussion and conclusion

Diarrhea caused by microorganisms is the most common infectious disease among people, especially among children. This disease is the second leading cause of death, accounting for about 10% of all deaths worldwide. Among infectious agents, bacteria and viruses are responsible for a significant proportion of acute diarrhea cases, and various reports have been published on the prevalence of diarrheal diseases in developing and developed countries [19, 27-30]. Therefore, in this study, the prevalence of V. cholerae bacteria in agricultural water and vegetables and their virulence genes and antibiotic resistance patterns were investigated for the first time in Qom province. Different methods are used to detect bacterial infections [31-33]. In this study, in addition to biochemical investigation, PCR method was also performed to confirm the isolated strains.

Diarrhea caused by *Vibrio* species has increased as an important disease in recent decades in developed and developing countries [8, 34, 35]. *V. cholerae* is known as a faecal-oral pathogen, and surface water and raw food are the most important habitats and sources of transmission of this bacterium to humans [36]. Considering that in Iran, sewage water is usually used to irrigate vegetables, consumers are potentially exposed to infections caused by this bacterium. The quality and quantity of drinking water, agricultural water, and environmental or recreational water could be affected by climate changes. Evidence shows that the prevalence rate of this infection is significantly higher in naturally hot areas with salty soils, and the presence of this bacterium is mainly reported in warmer months and areas with poor hygiene [37, 38]. Qom province is also one of the endemic areas of *V. cholerae* bacteria due to its hot climate and presence of salty waters [19].

V. cholerae O1 in cholera endemic areas is difficult to identify for two reasons: the larger number of *V. cholerae* non-O1 strains and the hypothesis that *V. cholerae* is viable but non-Culturable (VBNC). Therefore, *V. cholerae* non-O1 is easily isolated from environmental samples [39, 40]. In this study, the prevalence of this bacterium was 14.16%, and all the strains isolated from water and vegetable samples belonged to non-O1 serotype, which confirm the above hypotheses.

Various studies have been conducted in Iran and the world to identify V. cholerae in different waters. In a study by Momtaz et al. (2013), the prevalence of V. cholerae, Escherichia coli, and Salmonella detected in mineral and tap water in Isfahan province was 0.66, 4.58, and 0.89%, respectively [41]. In another study by Fraga et al. (2007), the prevalence rate of V. cholerae non-O1, non-O139 in water and plankton isolated from freshwater and saltwater was 36.10% [42], which is much higher compared to the prevalence rate obtained in the present study for this bacterium in water samples (14.28%). There is little research in the world and Iran on the prevalence of V. cholerae non-O1 in vegetables. Azimi Rad et al. (2021) examined different types of raw and fresh vegetables collected from agricultural lands, supermarkets, hypermarkets, and greengrocers in different areas of Tehran for the presence of foodborne pathogens, including V. cholerae, and V. cholerae was found in none of the samples [43]. However, in the present study, seven (14%) vegetable samples were contaminated with this bacterium. In a study in 2022 in Indonesia, the presence of V. cholerae in fruits and vegetables offered in stores was investigated, and the prevalence of V. cholerae O1 and non-O1 among the investigated vegetables was found to be 11.84 and 0.00%, respectively [44]. Hounmanou et al. (2016) in Tanzania reported the prevalence of V. cholerae O1 in fish, sewage, and vegetables irrigated with sewage as 36.70, 21.70, and 23.30%, respectively [45].

Several studies in Iran have investigated the causes of cholera and its relationship with the consumption of water and vegetables. In a study by Khazaei et al. (2005), it was found that 89.10 and 14.90% of infected patients consumed

surface and underground water, respectively [46]. During the cholera outbreak in Alborz city in 2016, it was found that 76.60% of cholera patients consumed vegetables in the three days before the disease [47]. Therefore, it is most likely that water and vegetables are the primary sources of these bacteria that cause cholera in people.

In general, environmental strains of V. cholerae non-O1, non-O139 are unable to cause any outbreaks and pseudo-epidemics, but there is evidence of the presence of virulence genes in these environmental strains, which has attracted attention. The emergence of non-O1 pathogenic strains and their transformation into O1 may pose major risks to public health [48]. Many studies have been conducted on the identification of virulence genes in V. cholerae non-O1 bacteria [49-51]. In the present study, the prevalence of essential toxin gene toxR and auxiliary gene hlyA in V. cholerae non-O1 isolates was 88.23 and 47.05%, respectively. In a study by Ceccarelli et al. (2015), among 389 non-O1, non-O139 strains isolated from the sediments and waters of Chesapeake Bay (Maryland, USA), the prevalence of *hlvA*, *toxR*, *ace*, *ctxA*, and *tcpA* genes was 89, 80, 1, 1, 0%, respectively [17]. In another study in South Africa, Mavhungu et al. (2023) identified V. cholerae bacteria in 27% of sewage effluents, and 78, 44, and 44% of these strains harbored toxR, hlvA, and tcpA genes, respectively [52]. These results regarding the prevalence of toxR and hlyA genes are very similar to the results obtained in the present study. In a study in China, the prevalence of V. cholerae non-O1 isolated from two freshwater rivers in Zhejiang province was 39.10 and 47.30%, respectively; 99 and 98% of these isolates harbored toxR and hlyA genes, and the rest of the virulence genes were present in a small number of strains [53]. Schwartz et al. (2019) isolated 100 *V. cholerae* non-O1, non-O139 strains from the Baltic Sea and the North Sea of Germany, all the strains harbored the *toxR* gene, and 97% harbored the *hlyA* gene [50]. Based on the results of several studies mentioned above and the present study, it seems that a high percentage of *V. cholerae* non-O1 strains found in open water and seas harbor *toxR*, *rtxA*, and *hlyA* genes, and finding out the cause of this problem requires more research.

Antibiotic resistance among different organisms, especially V. cholerae, is an important challenge in the field of health [54, 55]. Lue et al. (2021) investigated the antibiotic resistance of 115 isolates of V. cholerae non-O1, non-O139, and the highest resistance of these isolates was against ampicillin (47.83%) and cefazolin (67.07%) [53]. Also, Chen et al. (2021) showed that most of the isolates were resistant to moxafloxacin (74.90%), and 59.10% of them were resistant to ampicillin [56]. In this research, the highest antibiotic resistance was against ampicillin and amoxicillin (35.29%). Based on the results of this study and other research, it seems that resistance to ampicillin is more common among V. cholerae isolates. In general, due to the presence of virulence genes in V. cholerae non-O1 isolates, it could be said that these bacteria in water and vegetables are an important reservoir of virulence genes, and V. cholerae non-O1 is potentially pathogenic. These findings strengthen the link between environmental reservoirs and human infections. Therefore, continuous monitoring of the healthiness of agricultural water and vegetables by public health assessment teams is very

important to prevent the spread of these pathogens.

5. Acknowledgment

This article is taken from the PhD thesis of Mrs. Somayeh Kermani in the field of food hygiene of Shahrekord University. We thank and appreciate the support and cooperation of the respected professors and the officials of the Cell and Molecular Research Center of Qom University of Medical Sciences in carrying out the steps of this study.

6. References

[1] Al-Tawfiq, J.A., et al., (2023). The cholera challenge: How should the world respond? *New Microbes and New Infections*, 51.

[2] Pal, B.B., et al., (2023). Spectrum of ctxB genotypes, antibiogram profiles and virulence genes of *Vibrio cholerae* serogroups isolated from environmental water sources from Odisha, India. *BMC microbiology*, 23(1): p. 1-13.

[3] Saberpour, M., et al., (2022). Effects of chitosan nanoparticles loaded with mesenchymal stem cell conditioned media on gene expression in *Vibrio cholerae* and Caco-2 cells. *Scientific Reports*, 12(1): p. 9781.

[4] Karaolis, D.K., R. Lan, and P.R. Reeves., (1995). The sixth and seventh cholera pandemics are due to independent clones separately derived from environmental, nontoxigenic, non-O1 *Vibrio cholerae*. *Journal of Bacteriology*, 177(11): p. 3191-3198.

[5] Singh, D., et al., (2001). Molecular analysis of *Vibrio cholerae* O1, O139, non-O1, and non-O139 strains: clonal relationships between clinical and environmental isolates. *Applied* and Environmental Microbiology, 67(2 :(p. 910-921.

[6] Heydari, H., et al., (2024). Evaluation of the prevalence of *Aeromonas* spp., *Campylobacter* spp., and *Clostridioides difficile* in immunocompromised children with diarrhea. *BMC Infectious Diseases*, 24(1): p. 512.

[7] Shams, S., et al., (2020). Detection and characterization of rotavirus G and P types from children with acute gastroenteritis in Qom, central Iran. *Gastroenterology and Hepatology From Bed To Bench*, 13(Suppl1): p. S128.

[8] Barati, M., et al., (2021). Prevalence of intestinal parasitic infections and *Campylobacter* spp. among children with gastrointestinal disorders in Tehran, Iran. *Parasite Epidemiology and Control*, 13: p. e00207.

[9] Yasaie, S., et al., (2024). Prevalence of Human Adenovirus, Epstein - Barr virus, and Cytomegalovirus in Pediatric Hematologic Diseases in Iran. Infection Epidemiology and Microbiology, 10(1): p. 0-0

[10] Lepuschitz, S., et al., (2019). Phenotypic and genotypic antimicrobial resistance traits of *Vibrio cholerae* non-O1/non-O139 isolated from a large Austrian lake frequently associated with cases of human infection. *Frontiers in microbiology*, 1 :p. 2600

[11] Canals, A., et al., (2023). ToxR activates the *Vibrio cholerae* virulence genes by tethering DNA to the membrane through versatile binding to multiple sites. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 120(29): p. e2304378120.

[12] Singh, D ,.S.R. Isac, and R.Colwell.,(2002). Development of a hexaplexPCR assay for rapid detection of virulence and

regulatory genes in *Vibrio cholerae* and *Vibrio mimicus*. *Journal of clinical microbiology*, 40(11): p. 4321-4324.

[13] O'shea, Y.A., et al., (2004). Evolutionary genetic analysis of the emergence of epidemic *Vibrio cholerae* isolates on the basis of comparative nucleotide sequence analysis and multilocus virulence gene profiles. *Journal of clinical microbiology*, 42(10): p. 4657-4671.

[14] Faruque, S.M., et al., (2004). Genetic diversity and virulence potential of environmental *Vibrio cholerae* population in a cholera-endemic area. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 101(7): p. 2123-2128.

[15] Bakhshi, B., et al., (2009). A molecular survey on virulence associated genotypes of non-O1 non-O139 *Vibrio cholerae* in aquatic environment of Tehran, Iran. *Water research*, 43(5): p. 1441-1447.

[16] Huq, A., (1996).Vibrios in the marine and estuarine environment: tracking *Vibrio cholerae*. *Ecosyst Health*, 2: p. 198-214.

[17] Ceccarelli, D., et al., (2015). Non-O1/non-O139 *Vibrio cholerae* carrying multiple virulence factors and *V. cholerae* O1 in the Chesapeake Bay, Maryland. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 81(6): p. 1909-1918.

[18] Shah, M.M., et al., (2023). Antibiotic-Resistant *Vibrio cholerae* O1 and Its SXT Elements Associated with Two Cholera Epidemics in Kenya in 2007 to 2010 and 2015 to 2016. *Microbiology Spectrum*, p: e04140-22.
[19] Mohebi, S., R. Saboorian, and S. Shams., (2022). The first report of *Vibrio fluvialis* isolated from a clinical sample in Iran. *Iranian Journal of Microbiology*, 14(5): p. 677.

[20] Noguerola, I. and A. Blanch., (2008). Identification of *Vibrio* spp. with a set of dichotomous keys. *Journal of applied microbiology*, 105 (1) :p. 175-185.

[21] Ausubel, F.M., et al., (1992). Short protocols in molecular biology. *New York*, 275: p. 28764-28773.

[22] Huq, A., et al., (2012). Detection, isolation, and identification of *Vibrio cholerae* from the environment. *Current protocols in microbiology*, 26(1): p. 6A. 5.1-6A. 5.51.

[23] Keasler, S. and R. Hall, (1993). Detecting and biotyping *Vibrio cholerae* O1 with multiplex polymerase chain reaction.

[24] Haley, B.J., et al., (2012). Vibrio cholerae
in a historically cholera-free country.
Environmental microbiology reports, 4(4): p. 381-389.

[25] Rivera, I.N., et al., (2012). Genotypes associated with virulence in environmental isolates of *Vibrio cholerae*. *Applied and environmental microbiology*, 67(6): p. 2421-2429.

[26] Lewis, I. and S .James, (2022).Performance standards for antimicrobial susceptibility testing. (No Title).

[27] Yasaie, S., et al., (2024). Evaluation of the detection of diarrhoea-associated RNA viruses in immunocompromised children in Iran. *Infection Prevention in Practice*, (3)6: p. 100370.

[28] Moballegh Naseri, M., et al., (2020). *In* silico analysis of epitope-based CadF vaccine design against *Campylobacter jejuni*. *BMC research notes*, 13(1): p. 1-6.

[29] Shams, S., B. Bakhshi, and T. TohidiMoghadam, (2016). In Silico Analysis of thecadF Gene and Development of a DuplexPolymerase Chain Reaction for Species-

Specific Identification of *Campylobacter jejuni* and *Campylobacter coli*. Jundishapur J Microbiol, 9(2): p. e29645.

[30] Shams, S., et al., (2021). *Tropheryma whipplei* intestinal colonization in immunocompromised children in Iran: a preliminary study. *Future Microbiology*, 16(15): p. 1161-1166.

[31] Shams, S., et al., (2019). A sensitive goldnanorods-based nanobiosensor for specific detection of *Campylobacter jejuni* and *Campylobacter coli*. *Journal of nanobiotechnology*, 17(1): p. 1-13.

[32] Shams, S., B. Bakhshi, and B. Nikmanesh, (2016). Designing a rapid and accurate method for transportation and culture of the *Campylobacter jejuni* and *Campylobacter coli*fastidious bacteria in the children with bacterial gastrointestinal symptoms. *Koomesh*, 18(1).

[33] Bonaiuto, E., et al., (2018). Versatile nanoplatform for tailored immuno-magnetic carriers. Anal Bioanal Chem, 410(29): p. 7575-7589.

[34] Shams, S., et al., (2022). Prevalence of enteric adenovirus and co-infection with *rotavirus* in children under 15 years of age with gastroenteritis in Qom, Iran. *Gastroenterology and Hepatology From Bed to Bench*, 15(3): p. 256.

[35] Kaakoush, N.O., et al., (2015). Global epidemiology of *Campylobacter* infection. *Clinical microbiology reviews*, 28(3): p. 687-720.

[36] Ferdous, J., et al., (2018). A comparative analysis of *Vibrio cholerae* contamination in point-of-drinking and source water in a low-income urban community, Bangladesh. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 9: p. 489.

[37] Lipp, E.K., A. Huq, and R.R., (2002). Colwell, Effects of global climate on infectious disease: the cholera model *.Clinical microbiology reviews*, 15(4): p. 757-770.

[38] Farhadkhani, M., et al., (2020). *Campylobacter* risk for the consumers of wastewater-irrigated vegetables based on field experiments. *Chemosphere*, 251: p. 126408.

[39] Grim, C.J., et al., (2010). Detection of toxigenic *Vibrio cholerae* O1 in freshwater lakes of the former Soviet Republic of Georgia. *Environmental Microbiology Reports*, 2(1): p. 2-6.

[40] Martins, M.T., et al., (1991). Occurence of *V. cholerae* Non-Toxigenic in Wastewaters from São Paulo, Brazil. *Water Science and Technology*, 24(2): p. 363.

[41] Momtaz, H., et al., (2013). Detection of *Escherichia coli, Salmonella* species, and *Vibrio cholerae* in tap water and bottled drinking water in Isfahan, Iran. *BMC public health*, 13: p. 1-7.

[42] Fraga, S.G., et al., (2007). Environment and virulence factors of *Vibrio cholerae* strains isolated in Argentina. *Journal of applied microbiology*, 103(6): p. 2448-2456.

[43] Azimirad, M., et al., (2021). Microbiological survey and occurrence of bacterial foodborne pathogens in raw and ready-to-eat green leafy vegetables marketed in Tehran, Iran. *International Journal of Hygiene and Environmental Health*, 237: p. 113824.

[44] Budiman, A., K. Kurnia, and D.E. Waturangi., (2022). Prevalence and molecular characterization of *Vibrio cholerae* from fruits and salad vegetables sold in Jakarta, Indonesia, using most probable number and PCR. *BMC Research Notes*, 15(1): p. 1-9.

[45] Hounmanou, Y.M.G., et al., (2019). Surveillance and genomics of toxigenic *Vibrio cholerae* O1 from fish, phytoplankton and water in Lake Victoria, Tanzania. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 10: p. 901.

[46] Khazaei, H.-A., et al., (2005). A six-year study on *Vibrio cholerae* in southeastern Iran. *Jpn J Infect Dis*, 58(1): p. 8-10.

[47] Moradi, G., et al., (2016). A cholera outbreak in Alborz Province, Iran: a matched case-control study. *Epidemiology and health*, 38.

[48] Daboul, J., et al., (2020). Characterization of *Vibrio cholerae* isolates from freshwater sources in northwest Ohio. *PLoS One*, 15(9): p. e0238438.

[49] Ottaviani, D., et al., (2018). Molecular characterization and drug susceptibility of non-O1/O139 *V. cholerae* strains of seafood, environmental and clinical origin, Italy. *Food microbiology*, 72: p. 82-88.

[50] Schwartz, K., et al., (2019). Environmental and clinical strains of non-O1, non-O139 *Vibrio cholerae* from Germany possess similar virulence gene profiles. *Frontiers in microbiology*, 10: p. 733.

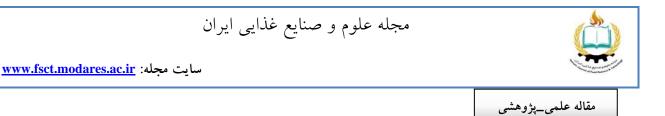
[51] Sharma, A. and A.N. Chaturvedi., (2006). Prevalence of virulence genes (*ctxA*, *stn*, *OmpW* and *tcpA*) among non-O1Vibrio *cholerae* isolated from fresh water environment. *International journal of hygiene and environmental health*, 209(6) :p. 521-526.

[52] Mavhungu, M., T.O. Digban, and U.U. Nwodo., (2023). Incidence and Virulence Factor Profiling of *Vibrio* Species: A Study on Hospital and Community Wastewater Effluents. *Microorganisms*, 11(10): p. 2449.

[53] Luo, Y., et al., (2021). Population structure and multidrug resistance of non-O1/non-O139 Vibrio cholerae in freshwater rivers in Zhejiang, China. *Microbial ecology*, 1: p. 1-15. [54] Ghorbanalizadgan, M., et al., (2019). Pulsed-field gel electrophoresis fingerprinting of *Campylobacter jejuni* and *Campylobacter coli* strains isolated from clinical specimens, *Iran. International microbiology: the official journal of the Spanish Society for Microbiology*, 22(3): p. 391.

[55] Shams, S., et al., (2018). Imipenem resistance in clinical *Escherichia coli* from Qom, Iran. *BMC Res Notes*, 1 (1) :p. 314.

[56] Chen, D., et al., (2021). First experimental evidence for the presence of potentially toxic *Vibrio cholerae* in snails, and virulence, cross-resistance and genetic diversity of the bacterium in 36 species of aquatic food animals. *Antibiotics*, 10 (4): p. 412.



ارزیابی فراوانی باکتری های *ویبریو کلرا* جدا شده از آب و سبزیجات و حضور ژن های حدّت و الگوی مقاومت آنتی بیوتیکی در استان قم سمیه کرمانی^۱، مجتبی بنیادیان^۲»، سعید شمس^۳»، حمداله مشتاقی^۲ ۱. دانشجوی دکتری تخصصی، گروه بهداشت و کنترل مواد غذایی، دانشکده دامپزشکی، دانشگاه شهر کرد، شهرکرد، ایران. نشانی پستی:استان چهارمحال بختیاری، شهرکرد، بلوار رهبر، دانشگاه شهر کرد، دانشکده دامپزشکی گروه بهداشت ۲[°]. استاد، گروه بهداشت و کنترل مواد غذایی، دانشگاه شهر کرد، دانشکده دامپزشکی گروه بهداشت شهرکرد، بلوار رهبر، دانشگاه شهر کرد، دانشکده دامپزشکی گروه بهداشت، ۲[°]. استاد، گروه بهداشت، عار محال بختیاری، موکرد، دانشگاه شهرکرد، دانشگاه شهر کرد، ایران نشانی پستی: استان جهارمحال بختیاری، مهرکرد، بلوار رهبر، دانشگاه شهرکرد، دانشگاه علوم پزشکی گروه بهداشت، مهرکرد، بلوار رهبر، دانشگاه شهرکرد، دانشگاه علوم پزشکی قره، مهرکرد، ایران

چکیدہ	اطلاعات مقاله
<i>ویبریو کلرا</i> یکی از پاتوژن های مهم انسانی است که از طریق آب و غذای آلوده منتقل می شود. بیماری های	تاریخ های مقاله :
ناشمی از <i>ویبریو کلرا</i> در استان قم به دلایل شرایط آب و هوایی خاص اندمیک است. این مطالعه با هدف	تاریخ دریافت: ۱٤٠٣/١/٦
بررسی میزان شیوع <i>ویبریو کلرا</i> در آب و سبزیجات استان قم، حضور ژن های حدّت و بررسی الگوی	تاریخ پذیرش: ۱٤۰۳/۳/۲۳
مقاومت أنتی بیوتیکی آن ها انجام شـــد. در یک دوره دو ســالـه (۱۲۰۰–۱۳۹۹) ، ۱۲۰نمونـه آب های	
کشاورزی(۷۰ نمونه) و سبزیجات (۵۰ نمونه) تولید شده در استان قم جمع آوری شدند. نمونه ها روی	
محیط اختصاصی کشت داده شدند. کلنی های مشکوک رنگ آمیزی گرم شده و آزمون های بیوشیمیایی روی	
آنها انجام شد و با آزمایش سرولوژی، سروتیپ <i>ویبریو کلرا</i> شناسایی شد. سپس بررسی حضور ژن های	
حدّت با روش PCR و همچنین ارزیابی الگوی مقاومت آنتی بیوتیکی در جدایه ها با روش انتشـار در آگار	
بررسمی شد. بطور کلی از ۱۷ نمونه (۱٤/١٦٪) باکتری <i>ویبریو کلرا</i> جدا شد که همه non-O1 بودند. میزان	
آلودگی آب و سـبزیجات به این باکتری به ترتیب ۱٤/۲۸٪ (۱۰مورد) و ۱٤/۰۰٪ (۷ مورد) بود. در ارزیابی	
ملکولی، میزان فراوانی ژن های حدّت شامل toxR (۲۳ /۸۸/)، rtxA (۲۸/۸۲)، hlyA (۵۰/۸۷/)، chxA	
(۵/۸۸٪) بود، و ۱۰۰ ٪ جدایه ها فاقد ژن های ace .ctxA و tcpA بودند. بیشـترین مقاومت آنتی بیوتیکی مربوط	
به آمپی سیلین و آموکسی سیلین (۳٤/۲۹ ٪) و سپس به ترتیب سفوروکسیم (۲۱٪/۷۱)، ایمی پنم (۱۷٪/۷۱)،	
سـفوکسـيتين و تری متوپريم-سـولفومتوکسـازول (۸۸٪/٥) بودند. نتايج اين مطالعه نشـان داد که <i>ويبريو کلرا</i>	
non-O1 در آب و سبزیجات استان قم وجود دارد. لذا به عنوان یک منشاء مهم ایجاد بیماری برای انسان،	
نظارت بهداشتی مستمر بر آب و سبزیجات و ضد عفونی مناسب این مواد غذایی دارای اهمیت زیادی است.	