# **Development of Selective Enrichment Medium for Clinical Isolates of**

# *Vibrio vulnificus* Based upon Virulence Correlating Genes

Sedat CAM<sup>1.a,\*</sup>, Robin BRINKMEYER<sup>2,b</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Biology, Harran University, Sanliurfa, Turkey <sup>2</sup>Department of Marine Biology, Texas A&M University at Galveston, Texas, USA <sup>a</sup>ORCID: 0000-0001-9030-6713, <sup>b</sup>ORCID: 0000-0001-5058-8103

#### Geliş Tarihi: 11.06.2019 Kabul Tarihi: 04.12.2019

**Abstract:** The objective of this study was to find out if different enrichment media would influence the selection of clinical and environmental strains of *Vibrio vulnificus*. Therefore, traditional enrichment and maintenance medium for *V. vulnificus* were tested for selective preference for clinical or environmental strains. In the laboratory, Alkaline Peptone Water (APW) and Brain Heart Infusion Broth (BHIB), with adjusted salinity to that of APW, were inoculated with equal concentrations of clinical and environmental strains and incubated for 20 hr at 35 °C. BHIB selected for clinical strains (85%) as indicated by percentage of *vcgC* to *vvhA* genes, enumerated with quantitative PCR. In APW, the ratio of clinical (47%) to environmental strains (53%) was roughly equal. Enrichments of seawater with BHIB, APW, and Luria Bertani broth (LB) resulted in higher percentage of clinical strains in BHIB but not in APW or LB, in most samples. However seasonal differences in predominance of clinical or environmental strains in the seawater samples influenced the enrichment process. Our study suggests that BHIB10 might be advantageous for studying virulence factors and APW10 could be suitable for isolation and MPN enumeration in *V. vulnificus*. The selective preference of the BHIB10 medium for clinical strains indicates that iron plays an important role in the infection of the human host.

Keywords: Vibrio vulnificus, Selective enrichment, vcgC, vvhA.

# Vibrio vulnificus Klinik İzolatlarının Virülens Genlerine Dayalı Olarak Selektif Zenginleştirme Ortamının Geliştirilmesi

Özet: Bu çalışmanın amacı, farklı zenginleştirme besiyerlerinin *V. vulnificus*'un klinik ve çevresel suşlarının seçimini etkileyip etkilemediğini bulmaktı. Bu nedenle, geleneksel zenginleştirme ve koruyucu besiyerlerinin selektif özellikleri, *V. vulnificus'* un klinik ve çevresel suşları için test edildi. Laboratuarda, aynı tuz konsantrasyonuna sahip Alkali Peptonlu Su (APW) ve Beyin Kalp İnfüzyon Broth (BHIB) eşit konsantrasyonlarda klinik ve çevresel suşlar ile ekimi yapıldı ve 35 °C' de 20 saat boyunca inkübe edildi. Kantitatif Polimeraz Zincir Reaksiyon (PZR) sayım sonuçları; BHIB' de geliştirilen suşların %85' ini klinik suşlar olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu oran *vcgC* geninin *vvhA* genine yüzdelik hesaplamalarıyla belirlenmiştir. APW' de klinik suşların (47%) çevresel suşlara (53%) oranı neredeyse eşitti. BHIB, APW ve Luria Bertani (LB) broth ile zenginleştirilen deniz suyu numunelerinin büyük kısmında, klinik suşlarının toplam suşlara oranı BHIB'de yüksek çıkarken, APW ve LB'de çıkmamıştır. Ancak, deniz suyu örneklerinde klinik veya çevresel suşların birbirine oranında mevsimsel farklılıklar zenginleşme sürecini etkilemiştir. Çalışmamız BHIB10'un virülans faktörlerini çalışmak için avantajlı olabileceğini ve APW10'un *V. vulnificus*'ta izolasyon ve MPN sayımı için uygun olabileceğini göstermektedir. Tuzluluk oranı %10 olan BHIB besiyerinin klinik suşlar için selektif özelliği, demirin insanlarda oluşturduğu infeksiyonlarda önemli bir rol oynadığını gösterir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Vibrio vulnificus, Selektif zenginleştirme, vcgC, vvhA.

### Introduction

Life-threatening, halophilic, Gram-negative marine bacterium *Vibrio vulnificus* was first isolated by the Centers for Disease Control (CDC) in 1964 (Strom and Paranjpye, 2000), since then, tremendous threats to human health as well as seafood industry have been documented (Jones and Oliver, 2009; Strom and Paranjpye, 2000). This opportunistic human pathogen, among the most severe of all foodborne infections, causes primary septicemia and severe necrotizing wound infections with a mortality rate exceeding 50%, mostly in susceptible individuals having an underlying disease such as hemochromatosis, immune disorders, and diabetes. Infection is mainly caused by ingestion of raw or undercooked oysters but can also be the result of exposure of pre-existing wounds to seawater or seafood products (Gulig et al., 2005; Strom and Paranjpye, 2000). Death occurs in one or two days after the onset of disease unless an effective treatment can be implemented (Gholami et al., 1998; Strom and Paranjpye, 2000). *V. vulnificus* biotype 1, primarily infecting humans, has been demonstrated to have degrees of virulence. Strains isolated from hospital patients, referred to as 'clinical,' are highly virulent, whereas strains isolated from seawater, oysters, fish, and sediments, referred to as 'environmental,' are typically less virulent with some exceptions (DePaola et al., 1994; Hlady, 1997; Oliver et al., 1983; Potasman et al., 2002; Starks et al., 2000; Strom and Paranjpye, 2000; Wright et al., 1996). Human tissue appears to select for more virulent clinical strains of *V. vulnificus* while those isolated from oysters exhibit a high level of virulence diversity (Jackson et al., 1997).

Most studies of the virulence of V. vulnificus have relied upon isolate cultures. In the clinical environment V. vulnificus from tissues and blood are isolated on blood agars (Abbott et al., 2011). Isolation methods for environmental samples involve an overnight enrichment in alkaline peptone water (APW), having a salinity of 10 PSU, that selects for halophilic bacteria (Elliot et al., 1995). Enrichment is followed by streaking onto differential-selective agars. For several decades, thiosulfate-citrate-bile salts-sucrose (TCBS) agar was used to select for and isolate pathogenic Vibrio species (Kobayashi et al., 1963). Superior differential-selective media agars specific for V. vulnificus have since been developed and are now standard method. The first, cellobiose-polymyxin Bcolistin (CPC) agar utilizes the resistance of V. vulnificus to colistin and polymyxin B for selection (Masad and Oliver, 1987). Other standard agars are modifications of CPC. Tamplin et al. (1991) modified CPC (mCPC) by reducing the amount of colistin to improve isolation success from environmental samples. Høi et al. (1998) was able to significantly increase the isolation rates of V. vulnficus from seawater and sediments by removing polymyxin B from CPC to make CC agar.

Because of the discovery of clinical and environmental strains it is important to know if standard methods for isolation (i.e. enrichment in liquid media followed by selective/differential agars) select for one strain over the other. Warner and Oliver (2007) determined through genotyping of the virulence correlating gene (vcgC) that CPC and mCPC agars select preferentially for clinical strains. We were interested in knowing if the prior overnight enrichment step with liquid media could preferentially select for clinical versus environmental strains of V. vulnificus. We compared APW, the traditional enrichment broth for V. vulnificus and other Vibrios (Kaysner and DePaola, 2004), to media employed for maintenance of V. vulnificus isolate cultures in the laboratory such as brain heart infusion broth (BHIB) (Rosche et al., 2005; Warner and Oliver, 1999), and Luria Bertani broth (Campbell and Wright, 2003; Randa et al., 2004; Sanjuán et al., 2009).

Since standard isolation methods for V. vulnificus utilizes agars (i.e. CPC and mCPC) that select for clinical strains, we opted to use quantitative PCR (qPCR) assays to detect clinical strains directly in the enrichment media. QPCR allows for rapid detection of targeted sequences without the requirement of time-intensive isolation and has been used to examine V. vulnificus in the environment and in experimental settings (Campbell and Wright, 2003; Chase and Harwood, 2011; Gordon et al., 2008). Moreover, qPCR can quantify cells that might be excluded during quantified isolation methods. We the hemolysin/cytolysin gene-vvhA that is present in all V. vulnificus for total cell counts. Panicker et al. (2004), who developed the assay, found it to have absolute specificity for V. vulnificus and high correlation ( $R^2 = 0.98$ ) with plate counts. The clinical variant of the virulence correlated gene (vcgC) was used to quantify clinical strains of V. vulnificus (Han et al., 2011). The vcqC gene clinical variant has a 90% detection rate in clinical isolates (Rosche et al., 2005). Two studies observed a high correlation (R<sup>2</sup>=0.98; R<sup>2</sup>=0.99, respectively) with the 16S rRNA type B gene (Cam et al., 2019; Han et al., 2009) that is also present in clinical isolates.

We hypothesized that different enrichment media will influence the selection for V. vulnificus clinical and environmental strains. Furthermore, we hypothesized that BHIB, which contains whole cells of calf brains and heart and has a higher iron concentration (24.5  $\mu$ M) than other media we tested ( $\sim$ 7  $\mu$ M) (Cam, 2016a), is most like human blood that selects for more virulent clinical strains. Normal iron concentrations of human serum are 14-32  $\mu M$  in males and 10-28  $\mu M$  in females and in persons with hemochromatosis 40 to 50 µM (Huebers et al., 1987; Nwafia et al., 2006). The purpose of the current study was to determine if the standard enrichment media APW is selective and would consequently influence the ratio of environmental versus clinical strains on differentialselective agars.

# Materials and Methods

**Isolate enrichments:** This experiment was designed to test if clinical or environmental isolates were preferentially selected in enrichment media. Ten ml (3 replicates) of APW broth having a salinity of 10 PSU ('APW10') and BHIB with an adjusted salinity of 10 PSU ('BHIB10') were inoculated with equal volumes (10  $\mu$ l) of log phase (OD<sub>600</sub> = 0.6) clinical (BUF7211) and environmental (98-640)

strains of *V. vulnificus* (obtained from the U.S. FDA Gulf Coast Seafood Laboratory) and incubated for 20 hr at 35 °C with shaking at 100 rpm. After incubation, a 2 ml aliquot was transferred into 2 ml tubes, centrifuged for 10 min at 10.000 rpm (4 °C) to obtain a bacterial cell pellet and the supernatant was removed.

Seawater enrichments: This experiment was designed to determine if enrichment media preferentially enriched clinical versus environmenttal V. vulnificus from environmental samples. Five ml (3 replicates) of APW having a salinity of 10 PSU, APW with 1/2 concentration of NaCl ('APW5'; 5 PSU), BHIB ('BHIB5'; 5 PSU), BHIB modified to a salinity of 10 PSU, and Luria Bertani broth ('LB10'; 10 PSU), were inoculated with five ml of seawater, collected from six locations in Galveston Bay (GB4 29.576801°/lon -94.934458°; lat GB6 lat 29.407004°/lon -94.806573°; GB12 lat 29.478671°/lon -94.757890°; GB17 lat 29.231857°/lon -94.989873°; GB25 lat 29.697525°/lon -94.783926°; GB29 lat

29.649323°/lon -94.811337°) in March, September, and November 2012 and vortexed then incubated for 20 hr at 35 °C with shaking at 100 rpm. After incubation, a 2 ml aliquot was transferred into 2 ml tubes, centrifuged for 10 min at 10.000 rpm (4 °C) to obtain a bacterial cell pellet and the supernatant was removed.

**DNA extraction:** CTAB (Cetyltrimethylammonium Bromide, 3%) method was followed for DNA extraction modified by Çam et al. (2019).

Quantitative PCR: To determine total V. vulnificus, we quantified V. vulnificus specific hemoylysin (VvhA) genes with a SYBR Green quantitative PCR (qPCR) assay (Panicker et al., 2004). Total volume was 25  $\mu L$  which contained 12.5  $\mu L$  SYBR green Supermix (BioRad), 1 µM vvh-L primer (5'-TTCCAACTTCAAACCGAACTATGA-3'), 1 μM vvh-R primer (5'- ATTCCAGTCGATGCGAATACGTTG-3'), 2.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 1 X BSA, and 2 µL of template DNA. The PCR reaction was performed in a SmartCycler (Cepheid) at 94 °C for 2 minutes, followed by 45 cycles of at 94 °C for 15 seconds, at 56 °C for 15 seconds and at 72 °C for 25 seconds. Melt curve analysis was conducted from 60 °C to 94°C at increments of 0.2 °C per second. PCR positive control for qPCR runs and construction of standard curve was clinical strain BUF7211 obtained from the U.S. FDA Gulf Coast Seafood Laboratory.

To determine clinical strains, we used a SYBR Green qPCR assay that quantifies the clinical variant of the virulence correlating gene (vcg) (Han et al., 2011). Total volume was 20 µL which contained 10 µL SYBR green Supermix (BioRad), 1 µM of each primers; VCGF3 (5'-CGCCTTTGTCAGTGTTGCA-3') and VCGB3 (5'-TAACGCGAGTAGTGAGCCG-3'), 2.5

mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 1 X BSA, and 2  $\mu$ L of DNA template. The PCR reaction was performed in a SmartCycler (Cepheid) at 95 °C for 2 minutes for initial denaturation, followed by 45 cycles at 95 °C for 20 seconds and 60 °C for 30 seconds and 72 °C for 25 seconds. Melt curve analysis was conducted from 60 °C to 94°C at increments of 0.2 °C per second. PCR positive control for qPCR and for construction of standard curve was clinical strain BUF7211 obtained from the U.S. FDA Gulf Coast Seafood Laboratory.

Two sample T-test and One-way ANOVA (P<0.05) was conducted with STATA 13.1 (StataCorp). For ANOVA Bartlett's test was conducted *a priori* to ensure equal variances. Bonferroni *post hoc* test was used to determine differences in means (P<0.05).

# Results

**Isolate enrichments:** *VvhA* concentration, as a proxy for *V. vulnificus* cells, was the same in enrichment media APW10  $(1.5 \times 10^6 \pm 3.7 \times 10^5$  CFU/ml) and BHIB10  $(1.6 \times 10^6 \pm 3.6 \times 10^5)$  (Figure 1) (Two-sample T-test; P=0.8695). Percent *vcgC* genes were higher in the BHIB10 medium (85.6±3.4%) than in the APW10 medium (47.3±7.6%) (Two-sample T-test; P=0.0234) (Figure 1).



Figure 1. Concentration of vvhA (CFU/ml) and % vcgC genes in enrichment media APW10 and BHIB10. Asterisk denotes significant difference P<0.05.

**Seawater enrichments:** *VvhA* concentrations (CFU/ml) are presented in Figure 2 according to sampling date and station numbers. For samples collected on 3.22.12, no significant differences were observed between enrichments in samples GB12 and GB25 (ANOVA; P=0.748, P=0.245, respectively). Concentrations in sample GB17 enrichments APW5 and BHIB5 were significantly lower than APW10, BHIB10, and LB10 (ANOVA; P=0.0097). Total *V. vulnificus* (i.e. *vvhA* CFU/ml) in all samples ranged from 76±11 to 275±44 CFU/ml.



Figure 2. VvhA CFU/ml in seawater enriched with APW10, APW5, BHIB10, BHIB5, and LB10 for samples collected 3.22.12, 9.4.12, and 11.4.12 analyzed with one-way ANOVA, P<0.05. Asterisk denotes significance of P<0.05 in Bonferroni *post hoc* test.







Figure 3. Percent vcgC in seawater enriched with APW10, APW5, BHIB10, BHIB5, and LB10 for samples collected 3.22.12, 9.4.12, and 11.4.12 analyzed with one-way ANOVA, P<0.05. Asterisk denotes significance of P<0.01 and double asterisk P<0.05 in Bonferroni post hoc test.

For sample GB25, collected on 9.4.12, *vvhA* concentrations in enrichments APW10 (1,335±133 CFU/ml), BHIB10 (1,469±376 CFU/ml) and LB10 (1,026±145 CFU/ml) were not significantly different

from each other however they were approximately 4 to 6 fold higher (ANOVA; P=0.0026) than the other enrichments with APW5 and BHIB5. Enrichments APW10 (1,747±134 CFU/mI) and BHIB10

(1,920±158) in sample GB29, collected on the same day, had significantly higher *vvhA* concentrations than all other enrichments (ANOVA; P=0.0001). Enrichment LB10 (1,076±81) had significantly higher concentrations than APW5 (435±32 CFU/ml) and BHIB5 (422±92 CFU/ml) (Bonferroni *post hoc* test; P=0.020 and P=0.018, respectively).

For samples collected on 11.4.12, GB4, GB6, and GB12, vvhA concentrations in the APW10 (183±23, 335±66, 478±45 CFU/ml, respectively), BHIB10 (150±10, 368±57, 324±46 CFU/ml, respectively), and LB10 (132±14, 242±27, and 321±13 CFU/ml, respectively) enrichments were not significantly different from each other but were approximately 3 to 4 fold higher (P=0.0002, P=0.0107, and P=0.0008, respectively) than the other enrichments. APW5 and BHIB5. The percentage of vcgC gene counts out of total V. vulnificus cell counts (i.e. vvhA) are presented in Figure 3. according to sampling date and station numbers. All samples collected on 3.22.12 had low percentages (<20%) of the vcgC gene with no significant differences between enrichments.

Sample GB25 collected on 9.4.12 had significantly higher *vcgC* percentages in enrichment BHIB10 (68±6; P<0.01 Bonferroni *post hoc* test) than APW10 and LB10 (49±6 and 33±9%, respectively), that were higher (P<0.05, Bonferroni *post hoc* test) than the other enrichments having ~10% (ANOVA; P=0.0006). Percent *vcgC* genes in the BHIB10 enrichment (70±3%; P<0.01 Bonferroni *post hoc* test) from sample GB29 was significantly greater than all other enrichments APW10 (52±3%), APW5 (9±3%), BHIB5 (8±2%) and LB10 (46±2%) (ANOVA; P<0.0001).

Percent *vcgC* genes in enrichment BHIB5 from sample GB12 collected on 11.4.12 were significantly lower (ANOVA; P=0.03) than the other enrichments, which were equal to each other (P<0.05 Bonferroni *post hoc* test). While in samples GB4 and GB6, no differences in % *vcgC* was determined between enrichments APW10 and BHIB10 (P<0.01 Bonferroni *post hoc* test), but they were significantly greater than LB10 (P<0.05) that was higher than APW5 and BHIB5 (ANOVA; P=0.0002 and P=0.0007, respectively).

# **Discussion and Conclusions**

In literature, liquid media typically used to maintain *V. vulnificus* isolate cultures or to enrich for *V. vulnificus* prior to plating on selective-differential agars for selective enrichment of clinical versus environmental strains. Standard isolation methods for *V. vulnificus* involve a prior enrichment step with Alkaline Peptone Water (APW) followed by streaking onto selective-differential agars. The

question is whether APW selects preferentially for clinical or environmental strains and whether Brain Heart Infusion Broth with its high iron content selects preferentially for clinical strains similar to the human host. As hypothesized, the BHIB10 medium selected for clinical strains of V. vulnificus likely due to the high iron content. Percent vcgC genes were higher in the BHIB10 medium (85%) in isolate enrichments as well as in seawater enrichments up to 70%. This selection could be advantageous for studying virulence factors in V. vulnificus. Similar to our findings, selectivedifferential agars have also been found to enrich clinical over environmental strains. Warner and Oliver (2007) determined through genotyping of the virulence correlating gene (vcqC) that CPC and mCPC preferentially select for clinical strains. But, there has been no study stating the preference of clinical over environmental strains in liquid media until the current study. The ratio of clinical (47%) to environmental strains (53%) in APW10 was roughly equal in isolate enrichments. Similar results were also obtained from seawater enrichments, indicating that APW10 could be suitable for isolation and MPN enumeration. Based upon the isolate enrichment results (Figure 1), we can conclude that ratios of clinical to environmental strains in the seawater enrichments were reflective of the actual starting concentrations when using the APW10 medium.

For seawater, the lack of significant differences between enrichments having different salinities observed in samples collected in March (Figure 1) explained by seasonal might be strain predominance differences (i.e. clinical versus environmental). Previous studies of Galveston Bay (Lin and Schwarz, 2003) have found that 'environmental' strains (i.e. 16S rRNA type A) predominate (up to 100%) in seawater and oysters from the early spring (March) to early summer (June) as water temperatures rise from below 10 °C up to  $\sim$ 25 °C and salinities are low (<10 PSU). Concentrations of V. vulnificus are also low in March (non-detectable to <10) and increase gradually with increasing water temperatures. Between late June and October, as temperatures increase to >25 °C and salinities increase up to 30 PSU, there is a shift to a predominance (>70%) of 'clinical' strains (i.e. 16S rRNA type B, vgcC positive). Concentrations of V. vulnificus are also highest in oysters  $(10^3-10^4 \text{ CFU/g})$  and seawater  $(\sim 10^2 \text{ cFU/g})$ CFU/ml) during this time. Then as temperatures begin to decrease again in early November (<20 °C) but salinities are still >20 PSU, the ratio of clinical to environmental strains is roughly even. In November, concentrations of V. vulnificus also decline rapidly with decreasing temperatures. The low concentration of *V. vulnificus* and the low percentage of clinical strains (i.e. % *vcgC*) in the March enrichments agree with the findings of these studies and we detected <20% *vcgC* genes for all enrichment types (Figure 3) indicating a predominance (>80%) of environmental strains.

Salinity appeared to be the key factor that influenced the concentration of V. vulnificus in the enrichments from seawater samples collected in September and November. These samples when enriched with the higher salinity broths (APW10, BHIB10, and LB10), had higher vcgC gene percentages than the broths having 5 PSU. The question is whether salinity is selecting for clinical strains or if clinical strains were already predominant in the original sample. The answer may be both. Ambient salinities in the seawater used for these enrichments were 10 to 18 PSU higher than in the March samples (~10 PSU). Moreover, Lin and Schwarz (2003), who examined 16S rRNA types (A/B) in Galveston Bay seawater and oysters, found a predominance of 16S rRNA type B strains in August to November with salinities ranging from 21 to 29 PSU and temperatures ranging from 23 °C to 30 °C. Similar observations were also made when examining clinical versus environmental strains in Galveston Bay oysters (Cam et al., 2019). The 5 PSU salinity in the enrichment broths APW5 and BHIB5 may have selected for environmental strains (i.e. 16S rRNA type A) or may have limited growth of clinical strains as percent vcgC genes were lower in these treatments. Chase and Harwood (2011), who examined the influence of temperature and salinity on clinical strains of V. vulnificus, found that highest growth rate (3.97 generations/hr) was achieved at temperature of 37 °C and salinity of 25 PSU. Growth rate at the same temperature but at a lower salinity of 5 PSU was significantly lower (2.03 generations/hr). At 10 PSU, growth rate (3.24 generations/hr) was still significantly higher than at 5 PSU.

Enrichment with BHIB10 selected for a higher percentage of virulent clinical strains (i.e. *vcgC* positive) than the other enrichment media in the September samples. Percent clinical strains in the BHIB10 medium was ~20% higher than in the APW10 medium and ~30% higher than in the LB10 medium. All of these media contain 1% oligopeptides derived from digests of protein, but BHIB also contains 50% infusions of calf brains and beef hearts that increase the iron content by 17.5  $\mu$ M. The high iron content in BHIB stimulates cytolysin/hemolysin activity of *V. vulnificus* (Kim et al., 2009; Tison and Kelly, 1984) and induces production of flagellar proteins that are integral for adhesion and biofilm formation in *V. vulnificus* (Alice et al., 2008). This trend was weakly continued in the November samples with only one sample (GB6; Figure 2) having significantly higher percent clinical strains in the BHIB10 medium. It is apparent that salinity also plays a role in selecting for clinical strains since the BHIB5 medium with lower salinity had 50-60% lower percent clinical strains than BHIB10.

Different enrichment media selected for different ratios of clinical to environmental strains. Seasonality of *Vibrio vulnificus* clinical and environmental isolates influenced the starting inoculum and ultimately the selective enrichment for clinical strains in all media tested. The enrichment of seawater results indicated that not only does the starting ratio matter, so does the salinity of the seawater inoculum. In other words, seasonal differences in predominance of clinical or environmental strains in seawater influence the enrichment process. The selective preference of the BHIB10 medium for clinical strains indicates that iron plays an important role in the infection of the human host.

# Acknowledgements

This study was supported by Texas A&M University at Galveston, Galveston, TX, USA.

### References

- Abbott SL, Janda M, Farmer JJ, 2011: *Vibrio* and related organisms. In "Manual of Clinical Microbiology", Ed; Versalaovic J, Carroll KC, Jorgensen JH, Funke G, Landry ML, Warnock DW Inc., 10th ed. Washington, D.C. ASM Press. pp. 666-76.
- Alice AF, Naka H, Crosa JH, 2008: Global gene expression as a function of the iron status of the bacterial cell: Influence of differentially expressed genes in the virulence of the human pathogen *Vibrio vulnificus*. *Infect Immun*, 76, 4019-37.
- Cam S, 2016a: Environmental Influences on Virulence Factors in *Vibrio Vulnificus*. PhD thesis, Texas A&M University, USA, pp. 67-99
- Campbell MS, Wright AC, 2003: Real-time PCR analysis of *Vibrio vulnificus* from oysters. *Appl Environ Microbiol*, 69, 7137-44.
- Chase E, Harwood VJ, 2011: Comparison of the effects of environmental parameters on growth rates of *Vibrio vulnificus* biotypes I, II, and III by culture and quantitative PCR analysis. *Appl Environ Microbiol*, 77, 4200-7.
- Çam S, Brinkmeyer R, Schwarz JR, 2019: Quantitative PCR enumeration of vcgC and 16S rRNA type A and B genes as virulence indicators for environmental and clinical strains of Vibrio vulnificus in Galveston Bay oysters. Can J Microbiol, 65, 613-621.

- DePaola A, Capers GM, Alexander D, 1994: Densities of *Vibrio vulnificus* in the intestines of fish from the U.S. Gulf Coast. *Appl Environ Microbiol*, 60, 984-8.
- Elliot EL, Kaysner CA, Jackson HJ, Tamplin ML, 1995: V. cholerae, V. vulnificus, and other Vibrio spp. FDA Bacteriological Analytical Manual. Arlington, USA.
- Gholami P, Lew SQ, Klontz KC, 1998: Raw shellfish consumption among renal disease patients. A risk factor for severe *Vibrio vulnificus* infection. *Am J Prev Med*, 15, 243-5.
- Gordon KV, Vickery MC, DePaola A, Staley C, Harwood VJ, 2008: Real-time PCR assays for quantification and differentiation of *Vibrio vulnificus* strains in oysters and water. *Appl Environ Microbiol*, 74, 1704-9.
- Gulig PA, Bourdage KL, Starks AM, 2005: Molecular pathogenesis of *Vibrio vulnificus*. J Microbiol, 43, 118-31.
- Han F, Pu S, Hou A, Ge B, 2009: Characterization of clinical and environmental types of *Vibrio vulnificus* isolates from Louisiana oysters. *Foodborne Pathog Dis,* 6, 1251-8.
- Han F, Wang F, Ge B, 2011: Detecting potentially virulent Vibrio vulnificus strains in raw oysters by quantitative loop-mediated isothermal amplification. Appl Environ Microbiol, 77, 2589-95.
- Hlady WG, 1997: *Vibrio* infections associated with raw oyster consumption in Florida, 1981–1994. *J Food Prot*, 60, 353-7.
- Huebers HA, Eng MJ, Josephson BM, Ekpoom N, Rettmer RL, Labbe RF, Pootrakul P, Finch CA, 1987: Plasma iron and transferrin iron-binding capacity evaluated by colorimetric and immunoprecipitation methods. *Clin Chem*, 33, 273-7.
- Høi L, Dalsgaard I, Dalsgaard A, 1998: Improved isolation of Vibrio vulnificus from seawater and sediment with cellobiose-colistin agar. Appl Environ Microbiol, 64, 1721-4.
- Jackson JK, Murphree RL, Tamplin ML, 1997: Evidence that mortality from *Vibrio vulnificus* infection results from single strains among heterogeneous populations in shellfish. *J Clin Microbiol*, 35, 2098-101.
- Jones MK, Oliver JD, 2009: Vibrio vulnificus: Disease and pathogenesis. Infect Immun, 77, 1723-33.
- Kaysner CA, DePaola A, 2004: Vibrio. In "Bacteriological Analytical Manual", Ed; Hammack T, Davidson MW, Feng P, Gharst G, Ge B, Jinneman K, Regan PM, Kase J, Orlandi P, Burkhardt W, U.S. Food and Drug Administration, Washington, D.C..
- Kim CM, Chung YY, Shin SH, 2009: Iron differentially regulates gene expression and extracellular secretion of *Vibrio vulnificus* cytolysin-hemolysin. *J Infect Dis*, 200, 582-9.
- Kobayashi T, Enomoto S, Sakazaki R, Kuwahara S, 1963: A new selective isolation medium for *Vibrio* group on a modified Nakanishi's medium (TCBS agar medium). *Jpn J Bacteriol*, 18, 387-92.
- Lin M, Schwarz JR, 2003: Seasonal shifts in population structure of *Vibrio vulnificus* in an estuarine environment as revealed by partial 16S ribosomal DNA sequencing. *FEMS Microbiol Ecol*, 45, 23-7.

- Masad G, Oliver JD, 1987: New selective and differential medium for *Vibrio cholerae* and *Vibrio vulnificus. Appl Environ Microbiol*, 53, 2262-4.
- Nwafia WC, Aneke JO, Okonji CU, 2006: Serum iron and total iron binding capacity levels among the ABO blood groups in Enugu, South Eastern Nigeria. *Niger J Physiol Sci*, 21, 9-14.
- Oliver JD, Warner RA, Cleland DR, 1983: Distribution of *Vibrio vulnificus* and other lactose-fermenting *Vibrios* in the marine environment. *Appl Environ Microbiol*, 45, 985-98.
- Panicker G, Myers ML, Bej AK, 2004: Rapid detection of *Vibrio vulnificus* in shellfish and Gulf of Mexico water by real-time PCR. *Appl Environ Microbiol*, 70, 498-507.
- Potasman I, Paz A, Odeh M, 2002: Infectious outbreaks associated with bivalve shellfish consumption: A worldwide perspective. *Clin Infect Dis*, 35, 921-8.
- Randa MA, Polz MF, Lim E, 2004: Effects of temperature and salinity on *Vibrio vulnificus* population dynamics as assessed by quantitative PCR. *Appl Environ Microbiol*, 70, 5469-76.
- Rosche TM, Smith DJ, Parker EE, Oliver JD, 2005: A rapid and simple PCR analysis indicates there are two subgroups of *Vibrio vulnificus* which correlate with clinical or environmental isolation. *Microbiol Immunol*, 49, 381-9.
- Sanjuán E, Fouz B, Oliver JD, Amaro C, 2009: Evaluation of genotypic and phenotypic methods to distinguish clinical from environmental *Vibrio vulnificus* Strains. *Appl Environ Microbiol*, 75, 1604-13.
- Starks AM, Schoeb TR, Tamplin ML, Parveen S, Doyle TJ, Bomeisl PE, Escudero GM, Gulig PA, 2000: Pathogenesis of infection by clinical and environmental strains of *Vibrio vulnificus* in irondextran-treated mice. *Infect Immun*, 68, 5785-93.
- Strom MS, Paranjpye RN, 2000: Epidemiology and pathogenesis of *Vibrio vulnificus. Microb Infect,* 2, 177-88.
- Tamplin ML, Martin AL, Ruple AD, Cook DW, Kaspar CW, 1991: Enzyme immunoassay for identification of Vibrio vulnificus in seawater, sediment, and oysters. Appl Environ Microbiol, 57, 1235-40.
- Tison DL, Kelly MT, 1984: Factors affecting hemolysin production by *Vibrio vulnificus*. *Curr Microbiol*, 10, 181-4.
- Warner E, Oliver JD, 2007: Refined medium for direct isolation of *Vibrio vulnificus* from oyster tissue and seawater. *Appl Environ Microbiol*, 73, 3098-100.
- Warner JM, Oliver JD, 1999: Randomly amplified polymorphic DNA analysis of clinical and environmental isolates of *Vibrio vulnificus* and other *Vibrio* species. *Appl Environ Microbiol*, 65, 1141-4.
- Wright AC, Hill RT, Johnson JA, Roghman M-C, Colwell RR, Morris JG, 1996: Distribution of *Vibrio vulnificus* in the Chesapeake Bay. *Appl Environ Microbiol*, 62, 717-24.

**Corresponding author:** Sedat CAM, Department of Biology, Harran University, 63100, Şanlıurfa, Turkey. **E-mail:** sedatcam@harran.edu.tr