AQUATIC RESEARCH

E-ISSN 2618-6365

Short Communication

Aquatic Research 8(1), 60-65 (2025) • https://doi.org/10.3153/AR25006

Growth variability of selected *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* strains isolated from seafood

Deyan STRATEV¹, Rumyana FASULKOVA¹, Aelita ZABULIONE², Vasilis P. VALDRAMIDIS³

Cite this article as:

Stratev, D., Fasulkova, R., Zabulione, A., Valdramidis, V.P. (2025). Growth variability of selected *Vibrio parahaemolticus* strains isolated from seafood. *Aquatic Research*, 8(1), 60-65. https://doi.org/10.3153/AR25006

- ¹Trakia University, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Department of Food Quality and Safety and Veterinary Legislation, Stara Zagora, Bulgaria
- ²Kaunas University of Technology, Food Institute, Kaunas, Lithuania
- ³ National and Kapodistrian University of Athens, Department of Food Chemistry, Greece

ORCID IDs of the author(s):

D.S. 0000-0003-4907-1590 R.F. 0000-0003-1989-3868 A.Z. 0000-0002-3196-5599 V.P.V. 0000-0001-6486-3890

Submitted: 15.04.2024 Revision requested: 03.07.2024 Last revision received: 14.07.2024

Accepted: 22.07.2024 Published online: 15.12.2024

Correspondence: Deyan STRATEV

E-mail: deyan.stratev@trakia-uni.bg



© 2024 The Author(s)

Available online at http://aquatres.scientificwebjournals.com

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to quantify the growth and assess the variability of V. parahaemolyticus strains isolated from seafood. A total of 35 V. parahaemolyticus strains were assessed, and their maximum specific growth rate (μ_{max}) was estimated by the Time-to-Detection Method by regression analysis using the Generalized Reduced Gradient algorithm. The highest μ_{max} (h⁻¹) value was 2.33 for V. parahaemolyticus isolated from Atlantic salmon, followed by 2.30 for Mediterranean horse mackerel and European seabass, 2.26 for Mediterranean mussels, 2.20 for veined rapa whelk, 1.88 for the pandemic strain O3:K6, 1.57 for oysters, 1.43 for bluefish, and 1.29 for Gilthead bream. This study provides useful information for the quantitative characterisation of V. parahaemolyticus growth, which can be a main input for microbial exposure assessments.

Keywords: Vibrio parahaemolyticus, Seafood, Specific growth rate

Introduction

Vibrio parahaemolyticus is a Gram-negative and halophilic bacterium which causes seafood-borne gastroenteritis worldwide (Narayanan et al., 2020). It is a normal habitant in marine and estuary environments. Hence, V. parahaemolyticus dwells freely in the water body, attached to the surface or parasite in the gastrointestinal tract of hydrobionts (Tan et al., 2020). The prevalence of V. parahaemolyticus varies significantly between geographical regions or different climatic conditions (Ma et al., 2023). However, this pathogen is usually higher in warmer months (Ndraha & Hsiao, 2021). V. parahaemolyticus can be more prevalent in fish, shrimps, oysters, mussels, clams, scallops, and squid (Vu et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2022). Seafood is contaminated with V. parahaemolyticus because of improper handling, lack of hygiene and refrigeration, and cross-contamination (Stratev et al., 2023). The pathogen can accumulate in hydrobionts, but it could be at higher levels in shellfish because of their filter-feeding behavior. The main pathogenic factors of *V. parahaemolyticus* are thermostable direct hemolysin (tdh) and thermostable direct-related hemolysin genes (trh) (Flynn et al., 2019). V. parahaemolyticus-associated gastroenteritis is due to ingesting raw or undercooked seafood. They are seasonally dependent because 67% of the gastroenteritis appear in August and September (Mok et al., 2021). The main clinical symptoms are diarrhoea, abdominal cramps, nausea, vomiting, and fever (Mai et al., 2022). The first outbreak of V. parahaemolyticus gastroenteritis was reported in Japan in 1950 after consuming contaminated fish. More outbreaks of contaminated seafood consumption have been reported in the United States, China, Taiwan, Spain, Italy, Chile, and Peru (Odeyemi, 2016).

Maximum specific growth rate (μ_{max}) is considered a universal indicator, relating kinetic information to food-borne pathogens' proliferation. Mathematical models based on μ_{max} allow predicting the behaviour of bacteria in different conditions while having a quantitative assessment at a population level. The maximum specific growth rate is a crucial parameter for developing predictive models which show the practical meaning of strain variability and provide key information for quantitative risk assessment (McMeekin, 1997).

Considering the scarce information and importance of μ_{max} for microbial exposure assessments of V. parahaemolyticus, we designed this study to fill these gaps and provide deeper knowledge.

Materials and Methods

Strains Used

In total, 35 *V. parahaemolyticus* strains previously isolated from Mediterranean mussel (*Mytilus galloprovincialis*) (M) (n=12), veined rapa whelk (*Rapana venosa*) (R) (n=7), Mediterranean horse mackerel (*Trachurus mediterraneus*) (SF) (n=5), oysters (*Ostreidae*) (OST) (n=3), Gilthead bream (*Sparus aurata*) (CP) (n=3), Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) (SAL) (n=2), bluefish (*Pomatomus saltatrix*) (CH) (n=1), and European seabass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*) (LAV) (n=1) were used in this study (Stratev et al., 2023). The pandemic strain *V. parahaemolyticus* O3:K6 provided by the National Bank for Industrial Microorganisms and Cell Cultures (Sofia, Bulgaria) was also used as a reference strain.

Preparation of Inoculum

All strains were kept in CASO broth (HiMedia, India) supplemented with glycerin in a fridge at -20°C. After defrosting, each strain was streaked onto Zobell Marine Agar (HiMedia, India) and incubated overnight at 37°C. After that, a single colony was inoculated in alkaline saline peptone water (HiMedia, India) with 2% NaCl and pH 8.6 and incubated at 37°C for 24h to achieve an enriched broth culture of at least log 7 CFU/mL. The enriched broth was centrifuged at 6450 rcf for 5 min. Moreover, decanted, the cell pellet was washed twice, and the bacterial suspension was recovered in alkaline saline peptone water (HiMedia, India).

Determination of Maximum Specific Growth Rate (μ_{max})

A standard 96-well flat-bottom microplates were inoculated with 2-fold serial diluted bacterial cultures, and the optical density was measured every 30 min for 10 hours at 630 nm (Microplate Reader Rayto RT-2100C, China). The method of Cuppers & Smelt (1993) and Membre et al. (2002) was applied for computing the $\mu_{\rm max}$ by regression analysis using the Generalized Reduced Gradient algorithm (Excel solver). Each isolate was assessed in triplicate, and the mean values of $\mu_{\rm max}$ were calculated using the following basic formula:

$$Mean \ value = \frac{a+b+c}{3}$$

where **a** is the value of μ_{max} from the first assessment, **b** is the value of μ_{max} from the second assessment, and **c** is the value of μ_{max} from the third assessment.

Statistical Analysis

GraphPad Prism (ver. 8.0.1) was used for statistical data processing. Two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test was performed to show significant differences in the specific growth rate between the investigated strains. The results are presented as mean values. The statistical significance was determined at p<0.05.

Results and Discussion

The mean μ_{max} (h⁻¹) of *V. parahaemolyticus* ranged from 0.73 to 2.26 for Mediterranean mussels, 1.63 to 2.20 for veined rapa whelk, 1.67 to 2.30 for Mediterranean horse mackerel, 1.19 to 1.57 for oysters, 0.99 to 1.29 for Gilthead bream, 2.01 to 2.33 for Atlantic salmon, while it was 1.43 for bluefish, 2.30 for European seabass, and 1.88 for the pandemic strain O3:K6. The strain with the highest growth was isolated from Atlantic salmon, i.e. SAL9 - 2.33, and the slowest grower was isolated from Mediterranean mussels, i.e. M5 - 0.73. There was a significant difference (p<0.05) in the growth characteristics between the investigated strains from Mediterranean mussels (Figure 1), Mediterranean horse mackerel (Figure 2), Gilthead bream (Figure 3), and between the strains isolated from oysters (Figure 4). No significant difference (p>0.05) in the growth characteristics between the strains from veined rapa whelk was found.

V. parahaemolyticus has been reported to be a major seafoodborne pathogen in Asia and the USA responsible for severe infections (Wang et al., 2020a). In China, 322 V. parahaemolyticus-associated gastroenteritis outbreaks were recorded, resulting in 9041 illnesses and 3948 hospitalisations between 2003 and 2008 (Wu et al., 2014), while vibrions cause 80000 illnesses and 100 deaths in the United States each year (Hanna et al., 2022). From the above, it is evident that V. parahaemolyticus is the most common pathogen in seafood, and the development of a predictive model has market importance for providing safe aquatic products (Wang et al., 2020b). Quantitative risk assessment can be applied to develop effective and efficient risk-based food safety programs. It comprises hazard identification, dose-response assessment, exposure assessment, and risk characterisation (Potter & Brudney, 1994). The exposure assessment step includes determining a few indicators, including the maximum specific growth rate or briefly μ_{max} (Hu et al., 2017). In this study, we determined the μ_{max} of 35 V. parahaemolyticus strains using a turbidimetric assay. This method is reliable for estimating bacterial growth under various conditions (Cuppers & Smelt, 1993). It is also rapid, non-destructive, inexpensive, and easily automated (Dalgaard & Koutsoumanis, 2001). Lianou & Koutsoumanis (2011) found higher intra-specific variability

of μ_{max} among S. enterica strains compared to that observed among the different replicates of one strain. Our results align with this finding as we computed a high range of μ_{max} values, between 0.73 and 2.33, in the investigated strains. Whiting and Golden (2002) stated that this point is important for properly interpreting experimental results because some food microbiologists incorrectly assume that strain-to-strain variation is equal. It is not necessary to be estimated. Moreover, research data generated in this study should be useful in strain selection for food safety challenge tests, assessing the effect of hurdles, and the development of quantitative risk assessment models (Lianou & Koutsoumanis, 2013). Shi et al. (2021) calculated μ_{max} of 18 V. parahaemolyticus strains isolated from shrimps by the modified Gompertz model and found values ranging from 0.16 to 0.64 in 2-fold dilution broth culture. Similarly, Wang et al. (2020b) also applied the modified Gompertz model for the $\mu_{\rm max}$ calculation of 27 V. parahaemolyticus strains isolated from shrimps, and the values ranged from 0.45 to 1.00. At 37°C, Liu et al. (2016) found that μ_{max} ranged from 0.03 to 0.24 at 0.5% NaCl, from 0.02 to 0.44 at 3% NaCl, from 0.01 to 0.26 at 5% NaCl, from 0 to 0.15 at 7% NaCl, and from 0 to 0.12 at 9% NaCl among 50 V. parahaemolyticus strains isolated from shrimps. When these results were compared with those of our strains, the higher μ_{max} estimates were evident.

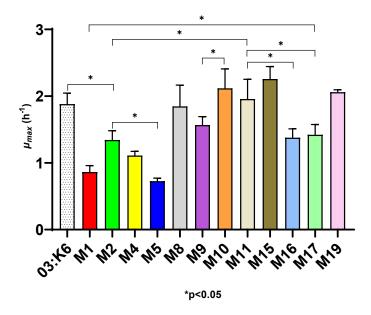


Figure 1. Significant differences between *V. parahae-molyticus* strains from Mediterranean mussels

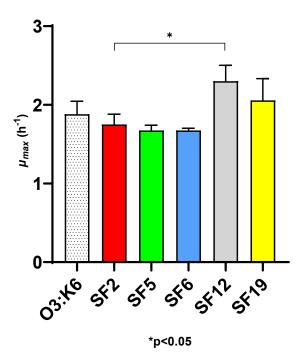


Figure 2. Significant differences between *V. parahae-molyticus* strains from Mediterranean horse mackerel

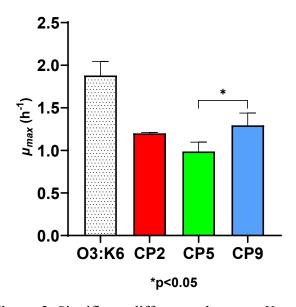


Figure 3. Significant differences between *V. parahae-molyticus* strains from Gilthead bream

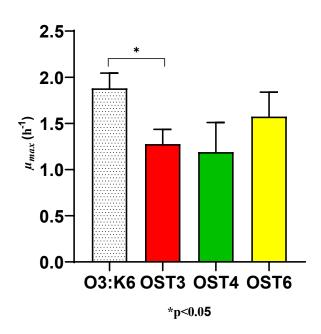


Figure 4. Significant differences between *V. parahae-molyticus* strains from oysters

Conclusion

The results showed that the highest μ_{max} value was for V. parahaemolyticus isolated from Atlantic salmon, followed by the values for Mediterranean horse mackerel, European seabass, Mediterranean mussels, veined rapa whelk, oysters, bluefish, and Gilthead bream. This study provides useful information for the quantitative characterisation of V. parahaemolyticus growth, which can be a main input for microbial exposure assessments as part of risk analysis of food-borne pathogens.

Compliance with Ethical Standards

Conflict of interest: The author(s) declare no actual, potential, or perceived conflict of interest for this article.

Ethics committee approval: This study does not require an ethics committee or special permission.

Data availability: Data will be made available on request.

Funding disclosure: This research received no specific fund/grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

Acknowledgements: -

Disclosure: -

References

Cuppers, H.G.A.M., & Smelt, J.P.P.M. (1993). Time to turbidity measurement as a tool for modeling spoilage by Lactobacillus. *Journal of Industrial Microbiology*, 12(3–5), 168–171.

https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01584186

Dalgaard, P., & Koutsoumanis, K. (2001). Comparison of maximum specific growth rates and lag times estimated from absorbance and viable count data by different mathematical models. Journal of Microbiological Methods, 43(3), 183–196.

https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-7012(00)00219-0

Flynn, A., Davis, B.J.K., Atherly, E., Olson, G., Bowers, J. C., DePaola, A., & Curriero, F.C. (2019). Associations of environmental conditions and *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* genetic markers in Washington State Pacific Oysters. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 10, 2797.

https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2019.02797

Hanna, S., Carpenter, A., Garman, K., & Dunn, J.R. (2022). Comparison of confirmed and probable cases of vibriosis, Tennessee, 2017–2021. *Open Forum Infectious Diseases*, 9(Supplement_2), ofac492.1628. https://doi.org/10.1093/ofid/ofac492.1628

Hu, H., Wu, Y., Jin, X., Shu, T., & Ruan, H. (2017). Quantitative Risk Assessment of Vibrio parahaemolyticus in *Mytilus edulis* in China. *Advance Journal of Food Science and Technology*, 13(2), 72–76.

https://doi.org/10.19026/ajfst.13.3768

Lianou, A., & Koutsoumanis, K.P. (2011). Effect of the growth environment on the strain variability of *Salmonella enterica* kinetic behavior. *Food Microbiology*, 28(4), 828–837.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fm.2010.04.006

Lianou, A., & Koutsoumanis, K.P. (2013). Evaluation of the strain variability of Salmonella enterica acid and heat resistance. *Food Microbiology*, 34(2), 259–267. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fm.2012.10.009

Liu, B., Liu, H., Pan, Y., Xie, J., & Zhao, Y. (2016). Comparison of the effects of environmental parameters on the growth variability of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* coupled with strain sources and genotypes analyses. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 7.

https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2016.00994

Ma, J.-Y., Zhu, X.-K., Hu, R.-G., Qi, Z.-Z., Sun, W.-C., Hao, Z.-P., Cong, W., & Kang, Y.-H. (2023). A systematic review, meta-analysis and meta-regression of the global prevalence of foodborne *Vibrio* spp. infection in fishes: A persistent public health concern. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 187, 114521.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2022.114521

Mai, A.T., Chung, D., Ngo, L., Huynh, K.H., & Dinh, L.T. (2022). Multiorgan dysfunction with severe cardiac injury secondary to septic cellulitis due to *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*. *Cureus*, 14(11), e31673.

https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.31673

McMeekin, T.A. (1997). Quantitative microbiology: A Basis for food safety. *Emerging Infectious Diseases*, 3(4), 541–549. https://doi.org/10.3201/eid0304.970419

Membre, J.M., Leporq, B., Vialette, M., Mettler, E., Perrier, L., & Zwietering, M. (2002). Experimental protocols and strain variability of cardinal values (pH and aw) of bacteria using Bioscreen C: Microbial and statistical aspects. Conference Proceedings. *Matforsk Norwegian Food Research Institute*, 143–146.

Mok, J.S., Cho, S.R., Park, Y.J., Jo, M.R., Ha, K.S., Kim, P.H., & Kim, M.J. (2021). Distribution and antimicrobial resistance of Vibrio parahaemolyticus isolated from fish and shrimp aquaculture farms along the Korean coast. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 171, 112785.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2021.112785

Narayanan, S.V., Joseph, T.C., Peeralil, S., Mothadaka, M.P., & Lalitha, K.V. (2020). Prevalence, virulence characterization, amr pattern and genetic relatedness of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* isolates from retail *seafood of Kerala, India*. Frontiers in Microbiology, 11, 592.

https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2020.00592

Ndraha, N., & Hsiao, H.-I. (2021). Influence of climatic factors on the temporal occurrence and distribution of total and pathogenic *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in oyster culture environments in Taiwan. *Food Microbiology*, 98, 103765. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fm.2021.103765

Odeyemi, O.A. (2016). Incidence and prevalence of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in seafood: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *SpringerPlus*, 5(1), 464.

https://doi.org/10.1186/s40064-016-2115-7

Potter, M.E., & Brudney, J.L. (1994). Risk assessment for infectious foodborne diseases: A priority with problems. *Journal of Agromedicine*, 1(3), 11–22. https://doi.org/10.1300/J096v01n03 03

Shi, J., Zhao, W., Xie, J., Zhu, Y., Pan, Y., Ou, J., Zhao, Y., & Liu, H. (2021). Comparison on the growth heterogeneity of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* coupled with strain source and genotype analyses in different oligotrophic conditions. *Journal of Food Protection*, 84(11), 1904–1910. https://doi.org/10.4315/JFP-21-089

Stratev, D., Fasulkova, R., & Krumova-Valcheva, G. (2023). Incidence, virulence genes and antimicrobial resistance of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* isolated from seafood. Microbial Pathogenesis, 177, 106050.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.micpath.2023.106050

Tan, C.W., Rukayadi, Y., Hasan, H., Thung, T.Y., Lee, E., Rollon, W.D., Hara, H., Kayali, A.Y., Nishibuchi, M., & Radu, S. (2020). Prevalence and antibiotic resistance patterns of Vibrio parahaemolyticus isolated from different types of seafood in Selangor, *Malaysia*. Saudi Journal of Biological Sciences, 27(6), 1602–1608.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sjbs.2020.01.002

Vu, T.T.T., Hoang, T.T.H., Fleischmann, S., Pham, H.N., Lai, T.L H., Cam, T.T.H., Truong, L.O., Le Dac Cam Phung, V.P., & Alter, T. (2022). Quantification and antimicrobial resistance of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in retail seafood in Hanoi, Vietnam. *Journal of Food Protection*, 85(5), 786–791.

https://doi.org/10.4315/JFP-21-444

Wang, D., Flint, S.H., Palmer, J.S., Gagic, D., Fletcher, G.C., & On, S.L.W. (2022). Global expansion of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* threatens the seafood industry: Perspective on controlling its biofilm formation. *LWT*, 158, 113182. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2022.113182

Wang, R., Deng, Y., Deng, Q., Sun, D., Fang, Z., Sun, L., Wang, Y., & Gooneratne, R. (2020a). Vibrio parahaemolyticus infection in mice reduces protective gut microbiota, augmenting disease pathways. Frontiers in Microbiology, 11, 73.

https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2020.00073

Wang, Y., Zhao, Y., Pan, Y., & Liu, H. (2020b). Comparison on the growth variability of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* coupled with strain sources and genotypes analyses in simulated gastric digestion fluids. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 11, 212.

https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2020.00212

Whiting, R.C., & Golden, M.H. (2002). Variation among Escherichia coli O157:H7 strains relative to their growth, survival, thermal inactivation, and toxin production in broth. International Journal of Food Microbiology, 75(1–2), 127–133

https://doi.org/10.1016/S0168-1605(02)00003-X

Wu, Y., Wen, J., Ma, Y., Ma, X., & Chen, Y. (2014). Epidemiology of foodborne disease outbreaks caused by Vibrio parahaemolyticus, China, 2003–2008. *Food Control*, 46, 197–202.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2014.05.023