

Sources and contamination routes of seafood with human pathogenic Vibrio spp.: A Farm-to-Fork approach

Thomas Brauge, Julia Mougin, Timothy Ells, Graziella Midelet

▶ To cite this version:

Thomas Brauge, Julia Mougin, Timothy Ells, Graziella Midelet. Sources and contamination routes of seafood with human pathogenic Vibrio spp.: A Farm-to-Fork approach. Comprehensive Reviews in Food Science and Food Safety, 2024, 23 (1), pp.e13283. 10.1111/1541-4337.13283. hal-04353943

HAL Id: hal-04353943 https://hal.science/hal-04353943v1

Submitted on 3 Jan 2024

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



COMPREHENSIVE REVIEW



Check for updates

Sources and contamination routes of seafood with human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp.: A *Farm-to-Fork* approach

Thomas Brauge¹ D | Julia Mougin² | Timothy Ells³ D | Graziella Midelet¹ D

Correspondence

Thomas Brauge, ANSES, Laboratory for Food Safety, Bacteriology and Parasitology of Fishery and Aquaculture Products Unit, Boulogne sur Mer, France. Email: thomas.brauge@anses.fr

Funding information

Haut de France region; OECD Co-operative Research Programme: Sustainable Agricultural and Food Systems, Grant/Award Number: TAD/CRP PO 500120218; The Structure Fédérative de Recherche; Campus de la Mer; Embassy of France in Canada

Abstract

Vibrio spp., known human foodborne pathogens, thrive in freshwater, estuaries, and marine settings, causing vibriosis upon ingestion. The rising global vibriosis cases due to climate change necessitate a deeper understanding of Vibrio epidemiology and human transmission. This review delves into Vibrio contamination in seafood, scrutinizing its sources and pathways. We comprehensively assess the contamination of human-pathogenic Vibrio in the seafood chain, covering raw materials to processed products. A "Farm-to-Fork" approach, aligned with the One Health concept, is essential for grasping the complex nature of Vibrio contamination. Vibrio's widespread presence in natural and farmed aquatic environments establishes them as potential entry points into the seafood chain. Environmental factors, including climate, human activities, and wildlife, influence contamination sources and routes, underscoring the need to understand the origin and transmission of pathogens in raw seafood. Once within the seafood chain, the formation of protective biofilms on various surfaces in production and processing poses significant food safety risks, necessitating proper cleaning and disinfection to prevent microbial residue. In addition, inadequate seafood handling, from inappropriate processing procedures to cross-contamination via pests or seafood handlers, significantly contributes to Vibrio food contamination, thus warranting attention to reduce risks. Information presented here support the imperative for proactive measures, robust research, and interdisciplinary collaboration in order to effectively mitigate the risks posed by human pathogenic Vibrio contamination, safeguarding public health and global food security. This review serves as a crucial resource for researchers, industrials, and policymakers, equipping them with the knowledge to develop biosecurity measures associated with Vibrio-contaminated seafood.

KEYWORDS

foodborne pathogens, One Health, seafood safety, Vibrio

This is an open access article under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs License, which permits use and distribution in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited, the use is non-commercial and no modifications or adaptations are made.

© 2023 The Authors. Comprehensive Reviews in Food Science and Food Safety published by Wiley Periodicals LLC on behalf of Institute of Food Technologists.

¹ANSES, Laboratory for Food Safety, Bacteriology and Parasitology of Fishery and Aquaculture Products Unit, Boulogne sur Mer, France

²Department of Marine Sciences, University of Gothenburg, Gothenburg, Sweden

³Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada, Kentville Research and Development Centre, Kentville, Nova Scotia, Canada

1 | INTRODUCTION

Vibrio spp. are highly human pathogenic bacteria that naturally inhabit freshwater, estuaries, and marine environments. Consumption of contaminated water or seafood can lead to severe human outbreaks, causing diseases collectively referred to as vibriosis. Although strains of Vibrio cholerae O1 or O139 are responsible for cholera, a severe diarrheal illness that can rapidly progress to dehydration and death without timely intervention, there are three main non-cholera pathogenic Vibrio species. These include strains of V. cholerae non-O1/non-O139, as well as Vibrio parahaemolyticus, which carries the gene for at least one of the two hemolysins: TDH (thermostable direct hemolysin) or TRH (TDH-related hemolysin). Another significant pathogen is Vibrio vulnificus. Although the specific major pathogenic factors of V. vulnificus have not been definitively identified, all strains are considered pathogenic. Infections with non-cholera Vibrio spp. result in vibriosis, characterized by gastrointestinal symptoms such as nausea, vomiting, abdominal pain, and diarrhea. In addition, V. vulnificus can also cause cutaneous infections that rapidly progress to necrotic ulcers (Bonnin-Jusserand et al., 2019; Robert-Pillot et al., 2014; Sampaio et al., 2022). It is important to exercise caution with the term "pathogenic Vibrio spp.," which should primarily refer to Vibrio species or strains isolated after clinical cases of human illness. Although the characterization and prediction of pathogenicity and virulence are commonly based on the detection of a few virulence associated genes, such as tdh and trh for V. parahaemolyticus, other evidences propose a more complex mechanism, bringing difficulties in the characterization of pathogenicity based on few genetic traits. Indeed, several authors have found that V. parahaemolyticus lacking tdh and trh genes remained pathogenic, suggesting the existence of different virulence factors at play (Ottaviani et al., 2012; Xu et al., 1994). Recently, a novel hemolysin (α-hemolysin) was discovered in a pathogenic strain of V. parahaemolyticus lacking both tdh and trh genes (Zha et al., 2023). Given this discovery, it would be appropriate to include tdh-, trh-, and α -hemolysin+ V. parahaemolyticus strains in the category of potentially pathogenic strains, even if their pathogenicity might be lower than that of strains carrying these genes. Furthermore, the pathogenicity of Vibrio spp. can vary depending on various factors, including the host's susceptibility and the specific strain involved, bringing further complexity to the characterization of pathogenicity and virulence (Baker-Austin et al., 2018; Igbinosa & Okoh, 2008).

Incidences of such bacterial pathogens are particularly alarming in regions of the globes with high water temperatures, in particular in the Southern Hemisphere. However,

today occurrence rates in several countries in the Northern Hemisphere are increasing due to climate changes and its related consequences, including acidification, increasing temperature, and salinity (Le Roux et al., 2015; Trinanes & Martinez-Urtaza, 2021; Vezzulli et al., 2015). In the United States, the annual incidence of reported vibriosis per 100,000 population has increased significantly, from 0.09 in 1996 to 0.28 in 2010 under COVIS (cholera and other Vibrio illness surveillance), and from 0.15 in 1996 to 0.42 in 2010 under foodborne diseases active surveillance network (Newton et al., 2012). In France, since 2016, an increase in the number of clinical cases of infections with human pathogenic Vibrio spp. has been observed, with a total of 26 cases in 2017, 60 in 2018, and 69 in 2019, mainly represented by the species V. cholerae and V. parahaemolyticus (Centre National de Référence des Vibrions et du Choléra [CNRVC], 2021). It is important to note that the average number of reported infection cases was only 10 between 1995 and 2015. Recently, a study conducted by Amato et al. (2022) provided an overview of the epidemiology of vibriosis cases in the countries bordering the North and Baltic Seas during the exceptionally warm year of 2018. This study showed that since 2014, vibriosis rates had significantly increased to reach 445 cases in 2018, including 100 cases related to V. cholerae, 89 cases related to V. parahaemolyticus, and 45 cases related to V. vulnificus. These results highlight the urgent need to develop effective prevention strategies to control the spread of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. in seafood products and minimize the risks of food contamination for consumers.

When Vibrio outbreaks occur, epidemiological investigations are conducted to confirm the diagnosis, determine the epidemiological characteristics and possible sources of the outbreak, in order to provide appropriate control measures. During a Vibrio spp. outbreak that occurred in the United States in 2018, epidemiological investigations conducted by federal, state, and local partners in public health and regulation, identified 35 cases of food poisoning, including nine hospitalizations, linked to the consumption of crab meat. The investigations were able to identify the source of contamination to Venezuelan processors that supplied various brands of crab meat. However, limitations such as in the investigation prevented precise identification of the contamination source (Seelman et al., 2023). In the same year, following a lull of over 20 years, a significant cholera epidemic broke out in northern Algeria, with 291 suspected cases of cholera, out of which 270 required hospitalization. Phylogenetic investigation revealed the involvement of an O1 isolate of V. cholerae from the El Tor pandemic sublineage, AFR14, newly introduced to Africa from South Asia. Despite the identification of numerous strains of V. cholerae in both wild and farmed seafood along the Algerian Mediterranean coast, the precise attribution of the sources of this pandemic could not be determined (Arab et al., 2020, 2021; Benamrouche et al., 2022). Despite efforts, sources of Vibrio spp. contamination are sometimes not found or the contamination scenario is not understood (Okada et al., 2023). One reason is often a lack of knowledge pertaining to the sources and contamination routes with Vibrio spp., which limits investigations. However, precise attribution of contamination scenarios during a human pathogenic Vibrio spp. outbreak is crucial to develop corrective measures to prevent the recurrence of the event. Such work is essential for public health authorities and food industry professionals, who would be able to quickly take actions to guaranty microbiological safety, prevent the spread of contamination to other foods, and spread of the disease among consumers (Greig & Ravel, 2009). Therefore, it is essential to have a good understanding of the sources and contamination routes to ensure public safety.

Human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. contamination in seafood is a complex and multifactorial phenomenon that can be initiated or amplified by several processes. Due to the ubiquitous nature of this pathogen, evaluating sources and pathways of contamination is a significant challenge. The multiple pathways for contamination by these bacteria, both in their natural environment and in the processing and handling environments, require the consideration of the entire seafood processing chain, within a "*Farm-to-Fork*" framework.

Current literature reviews have primarily focused on the incidence of pathogenic *Vibrio* in various contexts, including wildlife (Ma et al., 2023), humans (Ghenem et al., 2017; Letchumanan et al., 2014), or water environment (Ibangha et al., 2023; Lovell, 2017). Meanwhile, other authors have centered their work on *Vibrio* ecology (Brumfield et al., 2021) and strategies for mitigation (Ndraha et al., 2020; Spaur et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2015). However, there has been no comprehensive effort to encompass this knowledge from these different perspectives. This holistic understanding would be invaluable in unraveling the intricate and complex interplay between animal and human contamination, as well as the ecological behaviors and virulence factors that can elevate the prevalence of these zoonoses in humans.

The objective of this review is therefore to investigate and assess a better understanding of the sources and routs of human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. contamination throughout the seafood chain, from sea to fork. This review discussed the sources and contamination routes of (i) raw seafood material contamination by *Vibrio* spp., as well as (ii) cross-contamination of processed seafood products during seafood processing and in food-handling scenarios. By understanding these sources and pathways of contamination, this work benefit researchers and experts, who will

gain the necessary knowledge to develop effective biosecurity control methods to reduce microbiological hazard and public health risks associated with the consummation of *Vibrio* spp.-contaminated seafood.

2 | SOURCES AND CONTAMINATION ROUTES OF RAW SEAFOOD

As human pathogenic Vibrio spp. are ubiquitous in aquatic habitats, the natural and farm marine environments represent a possible entry point into the seafood chain for human pathogenic Vibrio spp. that are of significance to human health (Figure 1). Sources and routes of contamination vary widely for distinct fishery and aquaculture areas, harboring different combinations of environmental risk factors including climate, anthropogenic activities, or wildlife (Ndraha et al., 2020; Noorian et al., 2023). A thorough understanding of the possible origin and transmission process of key target organisms into raw seafood products, from both natural and farm marine environment, is of paramount importance to settle effective surveillance and control strategies. Although reviews conducted by Brumfield et al. (2021) and Noorian et al. (2023) have partially addressed this subject by focusing on environmental reservoirs of human pathogenic Vibrio spp., a comprehensive perspective integrating the challenges related to food safety and additional information is necessary to provide a comprehensive and in-depth understanding of the issue.

2.1 | The marine environment as a natural habitat of human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp

Members of the Vibrionaceae family are natural inhabitants of the aquatic environment, especially marine, existing in both free-living states in the water column and within biofilms attached to biotic or abiotic surfaces, including sediments and suspended particulates. The ability of human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. to survive outside the host is crucial for their successful transmission to a host (Kirn et al., 2005). The prevalence and occurrence of these pathogens in seafood are influenced by environmental conditions that favor their survival and proliferation in the surrounding environment (water column, sediments, etc.), leading to an increased presence of human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. (Brumfield et al., 2021).

Previous research has demonstrated the significant roles of water temperature and salinity in the occurrence and abundance of human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp., as confirmed by a comprehensive meta-analysis conducted by

FIGURE 1 Sources and contamination routes of seafood with human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. ① The contamination of raw seafood with human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. arises from their ubiquity in aquatic environments. This contamination is influenced by various environmental factors such as climate (temperature, salinity, and pH), anthropogenic activities (maritime activity, effluents, plastic particles, and aquaculture), and wildlife interactions (birds, aquatic mammals, parasites, plankton, microbial assemblage, algae, and insects). ② Both wild-caught and farmed seafood may serve as potential entry points of pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. into the seafood supply chain. The initial contamination of raw seafood occurs through two primary processes: direct contact with contaminated water and internalization via ingestion, filtration, or skin abrasions. Additionally, *Vibrio* adhesion to biotic elements, like the chitinous surfaces of aquatic organisms, can promote their survival in animals by forming robust and resilient biofilms. ③ Once upon the seafood chain, pathogenic *Vibrio* can survive by adhering to surfaces and forming protective biofilms, thus becoming resilient to cleaning procedures which pose a significant public health risk. Cross-contamination in seafood processing occurs through several pathways: contact with contaminated processing equipment including surface, cutting boards and knives, food packaging, wash water; or contact with carrier organisms such as insects/pest or food handlers. ④ Without effective control procedures, these contaminated seafoods will reach the food market, potentially posing significant health risks to consumers. It is imperative for the seafood industry to implement rigorous measures to minimize the chances of contamination. This could include regular monitoring of both wild and farmed seafoods, stringent hygiene practices, or thorough cleaning of processing equipment. By taking these proactive steps, we can help safeguard public health and maintain the integrity of the seafood supp

Takemura et al. (2014). This correlation between human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. and temperature has been globally observed across various sample types, including water and sediment. Numerous longitudinal studies carried out in Europe (Böer et al., 2013; Høi et al., 1998; Julie et al., 2010; Martinez-Urtaza et al., 2008; Vezzulli et al., 2016), USA (Blackwell & Oliver, 2008; Davis et al., 2017; Duan & Su, 2005; Johnson et al., 2012; Wetz et al., 2014), Middle and South America (Bacian et al., 2021), and Asian countries (Fukushima & Seki, 2004) have provided robust evidence to support this phenomenon. Although other environmental factors such as turbidity, dissolved oxygen,

chlorophyll a, inorganic nutrients, and dissolved organic carbons have been identified as additional influencers for the human pathogenic occurrence and abundance of human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. in marine environments, the findings across studies have yielded inconsistent results (Blackwell & Oliver, 2008; Johnson et al., 2012; Takemura et al., 2014).

Several studies have demonstrated that changes in water temperature have a significant impact on the prevalence of human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. in seafood, thereby posing a potential threat to seafood safety. Longitudinal investigations have revealed a consistent association between

elevated temperatures and contamination with V. parahaemolyticus in various fish species (Sebastes schlegelii; Pagrus major), shrimp (Litopenaeus vannamei) (Mok et al., 2021), and oysters (Duan & Su, 2005; Johnson et al., 2012; King et al., 2021; Sobrinho et al., 2010). The occurrence of V. vulnificus in oysters has also been linked to higher surface seawater temperatures (Johnson et al., 2012; King et al., 2021). Similarly, V. cholerae, V. parahaemolyticus, and V. vulnificus were exclusively detected in blue mussels (Mytilus edulis) during warmer months of the year (Collin & Rehnstam-Holm, 2011). Experimental immersion of oysters (Crassostrea plicatula) with V. parahaemolyticus at different temperatures demonstrated that higher temperatures led to increased pathogen accumulation in oysters (Shen et al., 2009). However, findings vary between studies, as Jones et al. (2014) found no correlation between temperature and the abundance of V. parahaemolyticus in clams (Mercenaria mercenaria) and oysters (Crassostrea virginica). These discrepancies may arise from differences in geographical locations and the range of temperature and salinity encountered during the sampling period. Importantly, fish intestines have been identified as significant sources of V. parahaemolyticus and V. vulnificus, as high abundances of these pathogens have been detected throughout both warmer and colder months of the year, with no correlation to bacterial abundance in the surrounding environment (Givens et al., 2014). Thus, it can be postulated that seafood may serve as specific reservoirs and ecological niches for human pathogenic Vibrio spp., potentially contributing to the seasonal reemergence of pathogens in the natural environment.

The strong correlations observed between high temperatures and human pathogenic Vibrio spp. from water, sediments, and seafood highlight the challenges posed by global warming, emphasizing the concept of One Health. It is anticipated that as temperatures rise, the occurrence of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. contamination may increase, affecting both human health and the environment (Deeb et al., 2018; Trinanes & Martinez-Urtaza, 2021; Vezzulli et al., 2015). In fact, alarming increases in human pathogenic Vibrio spp. contamination risk indices have been observed in regions of the globe where the presence of these pathogens was previously negligible, emphasizing the interconnectedness of human, animal, and environmental health (Baker-Austin et al., 2016; Brehm et al., 2021). These findings collectively emphasize the urgent need for effective and preventive control strategies to mitigate the potential impact of global warming and its associated effects on the occurrence of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. in different parts of the world, promoting a holistic One Health approach.

2.2 | Contamination mechanism of raw seafood

Most Vibrionaceae bacteria, including human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp., demonstrate opportunistic pathogenic behavior and naturally exist as part of the normal microflora in aquatic animals. This inherent association enables their persistence and survival within seafood products (Destoumieux-Garzón et al., 2020). The colonization and proliferation of human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. in aquaculture organisms intended for human consumption are influenced by several crucial factors. These factors encompass the specific type of infected aquatic animal, the virulence and pathogenicity characteristics of the bacteria, the physiological condition of the infected organism, and the prevailing environmental conditions.

The initial stage of contamination in raw seafood primarily occurs through two key processes. First, bacterial attachment takes place through direct contact with contaminated water. The ability to attach to external surfaces of marine organisms, including their skin, gills, or shells, is vital for the colonization and subsequent transmission of these bacterial pathogens. Extensive studies have demonstrated the adhesive and biofilm-forming capabilities of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. on biotic surfaces of marine organisms. Bacteria residing in biofilms are encased in a self-produced matrix of extracellular polymeric substances (EPS), composed primarily of various macromolecules such as polysaccharides, proteins, lipids, nucleic acids, and other constituents. The composition of this matrix is influenced by the specific microflora involved and the environmental conditions during biofilm development (Carrascosa et al., 2021). Particularly, the adherence and biofilm production capacities of V. parahaemolyticus and V. vulnificus, facilitated by the presence of pili or flagella on the bacterial surface, have been identified as crucial for their successful colonization and persistence in oysters (Aagesen et al., 2013; Paranjpye et al., 2007). Chitinaceous surfaces of crabs and shrimps have also been reported as optimal substrates for V. parahaemolyticus (Han et al., 2016; Roy et al., 2021), and V. cholerae (Castro-Rosas & Escartin, 2002) adhesion and biofilm formation. Once human pathogenic Vibrio spp. attach to a chitinous surface, they may produce several chitinases, which degrade chitin to N-acetyl glucosamine, providing essential carbon and nitrogen sources. Therefore, the degradation of chitin generates nutrients that are vital for the multiplication of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. and creates openings for colonizing the host, leading to internal contamination (Pruzzo et al., 2008). Interestingly, V. parahaemolyticus and V. cholerae are also capable of adhering to phytoplankton



and zooplankton, such as copepods or diatoms, which constitute the foundation of the marine food web and may be ingested as feed sources by various aquatic organisms (Frischkorn et al., 2013; Hug et al., 1983; Tamplin et al., 1990). The adherence of such pathogens to these living prey and phytoplankton, often used as aquaculture feeds, may facilitate the contamination and internalization of potential human pathogenic Vibrio spp. in raw seafood.

Second, Vibrio spp. can enter seafood organisms through ingestion, filtration, or skin aberrations. Hence, another plausible route of Vibrio spp. contamination is internationalization via the mouth, gills, or skin aberrations. Filterfeeding organisms, such as mollusks and crustaceans, can capture and concentrate various nutrients, pollutants, and bacteria, including human pathogenic Vibrio spp., from the surrounding water. Indeed, the presence of V. parahaemolyticus in the surrounding environment of oysters has been correlated with its presence and accumulation in the gills and digestive glands (Wang et al., 2010). In fish, immersion exposure of eels (Anguilla anguilla) to V. vulnificus demonstrated that this pathogen can attach to gills and subsequently reach internal organs by entering the capillaries and circulating through the bloodstream (Valiente et al., 2008). Skin lesions or microtraumas have also been identified as potential routes of entry for V. parahaemolyticus in fish (Liu et al., 2016). In fact, the increased infection rate of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. in large yellow croaker (Pseudosciaena crocea) raised in sea cages was associated with the development of skin cuts.

The retention of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. through attachment and biofilm formation on biotic surfaces and their internationalization into aquatic organisms contributes to the bioaccumulation of these bacteria in seafood intended for human consumption. As part of developing control strategies, the aforementioned tissues and organs should be further investigated as potential key samples for monitoring the contamination of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. in different organisms intended for human consumption.

2.3 **Anthropogenic vectors**

Although human pathogenic Vibrio spp. benefit from different reservoirs in the natural aquatic environment, anthropogenic activities, and related pollution from hospital, urban and industrial effluents may impact aquatic ecosystems, altering the ecology of microbial communities, and subsequently affect the prevalence and abundance of pathogens in raw seafood (Nogales et al., 2011). A close relationship with anthropogenic areas, reservoirs of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) genes, will naturally lead to increased prevalence of AMR with related therapeutic

failure threatening animal and human safety (Bourdonnais et al., 2022). Consequences and risk factors of the propagation of AMR within human pathogenic Vibrio spp. have already been assessed by Loo et al. (2020) and will not be discussed in this review.

2.3.1 | Maritime sources

Previous studies identified the significance of the role of ballast water in the spread of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. Water held in the ballast tanks of ships, used to maintain stability, can carry a wide range of microorganisms, including potential pathogens. Their discharge from ports to ports had been identified as a significant risk factor for pathogen transmission. Most studies have focused on the detection of V. cholerae in ballast water due to its pandemic potential (Cohen et al., 2012; Dobbs et al., 2013; McCarthy & Khambaty, 1994; Meena et al., 2022; Rivera et al., 2013; Ruiz et al., 2000). Several authors confirmed the presence of V. cholerae in ballast water of ships in North America (Dobbs et al., 2013; McCarthy & Khambaty, 1994; Ruiz et al., 2000), middle America (Cohen et al., 2012), South America (Rivera et al., 2013), and India (Meena et al., 2022). Importantly, the causative role of ballast water for pathogen transfer was postulated, when the toxigenic strain of V. cholerae O1, serotype Inaba, and biotype El Tor, originally detected in Latin America, was isolated in the ballast water of ships within the coastal waters of the United States in the Gulf of Mexico (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 1993; McCarthy & Khambaty, 1994). Similarly, the spread of V. parahaemolyticus O3:K6, from India to the Gulf of Mexico, was hypothetically associated with ballast water (Myers et al., 2003). More recently, along with V. cholerae, both V. parahaemolyticus and V. vulnificus were also detected in the ballast water of ships in Asia (Ng et al., 2018). As a result, today, the International Maritime Organization (IMO) has provided regulations to manage the impact of ballast water-mediated transfer of microorganisms and especially to regulate the spread of toxigenic *V. cholerae*. Another risk factor associated with the maritime transfer is the presence of pathogenic bacteria on the surface of vessels and harbor structures (Georgiades et al., 2021). Indeed, biofouling from vessels have been identified as potential reservoirs of V. parahaemolyticus (Revilla-Castellanos et al., 2015) or V. cholerae (Shikuma & Hadfield, 2010), which can promote their dissemination.

15414337, 2024, 1, Downloaded from https://fit.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/1541-4337.13283 by Thomas Brauge - Anses, Wiley Online Library on [19/12/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/cerms-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License

Despite a solid body of evidence regarding the role of maritime activities as reservoirs and vectors of human pathogenic Vibrio spp., these pathways have been largely neglected, and no study has formally implicated these factors as responsible for the contamination of marine

organisms intended for human consumption. These transmission routes deserve particular attention to prevent the spread of human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. through the science-based application of appropriate regulations and guidelines.

2.3.2 | Urban and industrial impact

As discussed earlier, the microbiological status of the surrounding environment naturally affects the proliferation and contamination of raw seafood. Urban and industrial effluents are usually poor in microbiological quality, harboring an array of different enteric bacteria, as well as an overabundance of nutrients, heavy metals, AMR genes and bacteria, or pharmaceutical products, responsible for eutrophication. Their discharge into the aquatic environment represents a determinant risk of seafood contamination. Indeed, in different regions of the globe, it has been shown that pollution through discharge of untreated wastewater effluents was associated with increased occurrence of V. cholerae (Chávez et al., 2005) and V. parahaemolyticus (Watkins & Cabelli, 1985) within the surrounding environment and/or aquatic animals. For example, during an epidemic in Algeria, the presence of V. cholerae in both wild and farmed mussels was correlated with untreated urban wastewater (Arab et al., 2020). Similarly, an experiment performed by Conrad and Harwood (2022) demonstrated that the addition of only 1% sewage to estuarine water resulted in a significant increase in V. vulnificus densities in seawater. Due to the water eutrophication, areas subject to urban and industrial effluents are more vulnerable to phytoplankton blooms (Heisler et al., 2008; Michael Beman et al., 2005), which indirectly affect the proliferation of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. Indeed, V. parahaemolyticus was associated with an enrichment of seawater with phytoplankton-derived dissolved organic matter related to increased surface runoff (Thickman & Gobler, 2017). This correlation is particularly observed after rainfalls or storms which not only lead to release of sediment-bound bacteria in the aquatic environment but also nutrients, with subsequent eutrophication (Thickman & Gobler, 2017; Wetz et al., 2008).

Monitoring the biological contamination of anthropogenic areas is of concern to ensure human safety. Most regulatory agencies use the fecal indicator bacteria, including fecal coliforms, enterococci, or *Escherichia coli*, which fail in evaluating human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. pollution, such as *V. parahaemolyticus* (Chahouri et al., 2022). Therefore, the developments of standard and effective human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. contamination indices are urgently needed for efficient surveillance and control strategies.

2.3.3 | Aquaculture

Aquaculture farming generates complex ecosystems where the ecology and evolution of pathogens contrast with nature, affecting pathogen life cycles as well as their transmission. Dynamics of bacteria, which originate from the natural environment, animals, and also humans via farm workers, are regularly perturbated through the feeding of animals, harvesting, disinfection procedures, vaccination, and so on.

Pathogen transmission is a density-dependent phenomenon and, consequently, is impacted by the stocking rates in aquaculture farms (Owens, 2019). Host densities in rearing conditions are overall higher than in the natural environment. By reducing the distance between aquatic animals, as well as the total space available, the probability of bacterial transmission from water, animal, or biofilm is significantly increased. Importantly, biofilm from sediments or walls of aquaculture tanks may be a reservoir for human pathogenic Vibrio spp. (Arunkumar et al., 2020). These bacterial complexes could further bring tolerance against antibiotics and disinfectants and may result in a persistence of pathogens at farm sites. For instance, Mougin et al. (2021) identified one isolate of V. parahaemolyticus from biofilm associated with sea bass rearing tanks (Dicentrarchus labrax), whereas the bacteria were not isolated from rearing water, or water sources supplying the farm. Intensive aquaculture practices thus create favorable conditions for the propagation and persistence of pathogens. Furthermore, densely populated farmed marine organisms are subjected to constant stress due handling and competition for food, space, and resources (Ciji & Akhtar, 2021). This chronic stress weakens their immune systems, increasing their susceptibility for human pathogenic Vibrio spp. transmission. In addition, by comparing the impact of shrimp stocking densities on human pathogenic Vibrio spp. dynamics, Alfiansah et al. (2018) demonstrated that higher densities correlate with higher human pathogenic Vibrio spp. densities in aquaculture ponds. Higher bacterial densities may also favor the exchange of bacterial genetic elements, which will increase the risk for the emergence of new virulent bacterial strains and those with increased AMR. A multisite study on antibiotic resistance involving 150 strains of Vibrio spp. isolated from farmed European sea bass in Italian mariculture revealed that 96% of the strains exhibited multiple resistance to 15 tested antibiotics. Notably, four strains of V. parahaemolyticus displayed resistance to amoxicillin, cephalothin, erythromycin, and streptomycin, whereas one remaining strain of V. vulnificus exhibited resistance to oxolinic acid, flumequine, and sulfadiazine (Scarano et al., 2014). It has also been demonstrated that the transport of shellfish from one farm to another had been proven to favor the transmission and microevolution of V. parahaemolyticus populations due to genomic exchanges (Fu et al., 2021a). However, the stocking density is a critical point in industry, in which balance between productivity and operational costs is essential to ensure both animals health and welfare, as well as the economic well-being of the company. Although significant efforts have been made to characterize the dynamics of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. in aquaculture farming in order to propose better management practices, the complex and specific interplay among environment, animal, and bacteria, as well as the multifactorial nature of the transmission, make the task more challenging (Mougin et al., 2021; Prescott & Barkovskii, 2022).

Discharge of aquaculture wastewater carrying distinct communities of human pathogenic Vibrio spp., as well as an enriched concentration of chemical and organic elements, may affect the ecology of the surrounding environment. Xu et al. (2020) identified a distance-decay pattern in the abundance of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. from farms to the natural environment, indicating potential adverse effects and spread of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. to wildlife and humans. Similarly, Dowle et al. (2015) recorded different bacterial diversities with distance away from salmon farms, mostly associated with a gradient of organic matters. However, in the study of Zeng et al. (2019), only weak differences in human pathogenic bacterial communities were deciphered between areas with distinct aquaculture intensities. These results vary across studies, as a metagenomic analysis of the wastewater of an aquaculture farm and its surrounding environment demonstrated no clear evidence of alteration or increase of the surrounding human pathogenic Vibrio spp. community in China (Möller et al., 2020).

Nevertheless, caution should be made when drawing conclusions on the effect of aquaculture farms, as such impact seems to be dependent on individual on-farm management practices and systems. For example, a comparison of V. parahaemolyticus populations associated with two different types of shellfish farms (i.e., traditional farms with water exchange vs. recirculating aquaculture system [RAS] farming) indicated different dynamics (Yang et al., 2022). In particular, populations from RAS farming appeared more stable than the traditional system, which favors the introduction and renewal of V. parahaemolyticus, with an increased risk for seafood safety.

2.3.4 Plastic particles

It is now well established that plastics and microplastics can play a significant role in the contamination of

seafood by bacteria such as human pathogenic Vibrio spp., both in fishing waters and aquaculture environments. These plastic particles serve as vectors for the contamination of seafood and contribute to the contamination of the aquatic environment by facilitating the transport, dissemination, accumulation, and persistence of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. and other pathogenic bacteria. Plastic particles affords surfaces for which human pathogenic Vibrio spp. can attach, thereby creating an environment that human pathogenic facilitates biofilm formation and provides nutrients for their proliferation (Bowley et al., 2021). A study conducted by Kirstein et al. (2016) revealed the presence of V. parahaemolyticus on different types of microplastics, such as polyethylene, polypropylene, and polystyrene, originating from the North Sea and the Baltic Sea. Similarly, plastic samples collected from the surrounding waters of Guanabara Bay in Brazil showed the presence of V. cholerae and V. vulnificus, whereas the respective water samples exhibited low concentrations of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. (Silva et al., 2019). These studies clearly highlight that plastics and microplastics can serve as a vector of environmental contamination for Vibrio in marine and aquaculture environments. Therefore, it is essential to maintain clean aquatic environments free from plastic debris.

In addition to promoting the presence of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. in the environment, plastic particles, particularly microplastics, can be ingested by fish and shellfish species harvested for human consumption. A study conducted in China showed that 84% of oyster samples collected from 17 distinct cities contained microplastics, with an average concentration of 2.93 particles per individual (Teng et al., 2019). When animals consume microplastics carrying human pathogenic Vibrio spp., bacterial cells can be internalized, human pathogenic leading to the contamination of the tissues of the seafood itself, thereby increasing the risk of infection for human consumers. Few studies have investigated the ability of plastic particles to serve as vectors of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. for the contamination of seafood. However, a study by Sun et al. (2023) demonstrated the capacity of V. parahaemolyticus-carrying microplastics to contaminate Mytilus galloprovincialis mussels. In other research, the impact of microplastics on the proliferation of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. in the stomach of Clarias gariepinus catfish was studied. It was shown that the use of biodegradable polylactic acid-based microplastics led to a significant increase in the number of Vibrio sp. in the stomach of these fish, potentially due to dysbiosis caused by the release of chemical components from the microplastics (Jang et al., 2022). Despite the growing body of evidence implicating microplastics as vectors for V. parahaemolyticus contamination, no specific study has investigated the impact of microplastics as a source of contamination for *V. cholerae* or *V. vulnificus*. Furthermore, the existing studies have primarily focused on assessing the contamination levels in the stomach contents of raw seafood. It would be of interest to expand these investigations to include the evaluation of contamination levels not only in the stomach contents but also within the tissues intended for human consumption.

2.4 | Wildlife sources and contamination routes

Human pathogenic Vibrio spp. are integral components of the natural aquatic food web. As such, their growth, survival, and ability to cause contamination are influenced by trophic regulations, including the dynamics of various organisms and predation within aquatic ecosystems (Vezzulli et al., 2013; Worden et al., 2006). These bacteria interact with a diverse range of wildlife species, including marine mammals, birds, fish, and invertebrates, serving as potential reservoirs or hosts. Therefore, various wildlife species can play a crucial role in the transmission and dissemination of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. within the marine environment. For example, marine mammals, such as seals or sea lions, have been identified as carriers of human pathogenic Vibrio spp., and their excretions can contribute to the contamination of aquaculture and fishery areas. Furthermore, predation within aquatic ecosystems can influence the prevalence and distribution of Vibrio bacteria. The selective pressures exerted by higher trophic levels, such as predatory fish or crustaceans, can shape Vibrio populations by favoring certain strains or reducing their abundance. The ecological dynamics of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. in relation to predation interactions are not only relevant for understanding their natural distribution but also for comprehending the potential risks they pose to human health when contaminated seafood is consumed. The interplay among human pathogenic Vibrio spp., various wildlife species, and the wider food web is further influenced by environmental factors and interactions with other organisms. Nutrient availability, temperature fluctuations, and other environmental stressors can impact the growth and persistence of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. populations. Additionally, the interactions between Vibrio bacteria and other microorganisms, such as bacteriophages or competing bacterial species, can shape their ecological niche and influence their potential to cause contamination. Understanding the wildlife sources and routes of contamination by human pathogenic Vibrio spp. in the marine environment is essential for assessing and managing the risks of raw seafood contamination associated with these bacteria.

2.4.1 | Parasites

The contribution of parasites to human pathogenic Vibrio spp. contamination of seafood is a critical topic that warrants attention, as it has been overlooked thus far. Parasites can act as both vectors for human pathogenic Vibrio spp. and as factors that facilitate bacterial invasion in seafood. Previous studies have reported cases of co-contamination of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. with various parasites in marine organisms intended for human consumption (Bienlien et al., 2022; Dhakal et al., 2006; Elgendy et al., 2016; Amalisa et al., 2021; Ravichandran et al., 2001). Despite the recognition of these co-occurrences, no research has yet been conducted to understand the underlying mechanisms driving the proliferation of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. within parasitized marine species. For instance, a study conducted by Elgendy et al. (2016) examined the co-occurrence of the parasite Gyrodactylus anguillae and V. vulnificus in cultured eels (A. anguilla). The authors hypothesized that parasite infection weakens the host's immune defenses, thereby creating vulnerability to V. vulnificus contamination. It is also worth noting that many marine parasites, such as Anisakis, possess a chitin-rich surface, a structural polysaccharide (Chen & Peng, 2019). The presence of chitin on parasites may play a role in the adherence of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. bacteria to their surface, potentially leading to cross-contamination of seafood during parasitic infection through bacterial transfer. This hypothesis raises questions regarding the presence of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. on the parasites themselves and their potential for contaminating marine organisms intended for human consumption.

This knowledge gap makes it challenging to accurately assess the risk of seafood contamination through this potential pathway.

2.4.2 | Plankton and algae

The plankton, composed of phytoplankton and zooplankton, along with algae (including macroalgae and microalgae), plays a crucial role in marine ecosystems. However, it is important to recognize that they can also act as reservoirs and vectors for human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp., which poses potential risks to seafood safety. Numerous studies have demonstrated that these organisms harbor human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. and facilitate their adhesion or association with their tissues, thus promoting the formation of aggregates or biofilms that provide protected niches for *Vibrio* survival and proliferation (Noorian et al., 2023). These associations have been closely correlated with

15414337, 2024, 1, Downloaded from https://ift.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/1541-4337.13283 by Thomas Brauge - Anses , Wiley Online Library on [19/12/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/term

md-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License

excessive proliferation of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. during plankton and algal blooms (Epstein, 1993; Xu et al., 2022). In the context of aquaculture and fisheries systems, it is crucial to consider that plankton and algae can represent a potential source of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. contamination for marine organisms intended for human consumption. When plankton or algae are contaminated with Vibrio, they can be ingested or come into contact with marine organisms. This process can lead to the transfer of Vibrio to higher trophic levels of the food chain, including marine organisms consumed by humans. A study conducted by Sathiyamurthy et al. (2013) evaluated the prevalence of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. in various environmental samples and seafood products in the Tamil Nadu region, India. The results revealed the exclusive presence of V. cholerae and V. parahaemolyticus in phytoplankton and seafood samples, whereas these pathogens were absent from samples obtained from freshwater sources and coastal water bodies. Similarly, research conducted by Wright et al. (1996) provided compelling evidence of co-contamination of plankton and oysters, which are commonly consumed, by V. vulnificus originating from the Chesapeake Bay. However, to our knowledge, no study has yet established a link between the contamination of zooplankton and algae and the contamination of marine organisms intended for human consumption by Vibrio. Additionally, it is worth noting that the study by Worden et al. (2006) revealed that populations of V. cholerae can experience mortality due to predation by protozoan grazers. This grazing-induced mortality helps balance the growth of V. cholerae populations, thus keeping their levels under control. Net population gains have been observed under particularly intense bloom conditions, where V. cholerae has managed to overcome grazing pressure through rapid growth (more than 4 days for doubling time). Therefore, it is crucial to understand the role of plankton and algae in the spread of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. in marine ecosystems, as well as within the human food chain.

Aquatic birds and mammals 2.4.3

Birds and marine mammals play a significant role in coastal and marine ecosystems as predators and scavengers. However, these organisms can also contribute to the dissemination of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. in fishing and aquaculture areas. Studies conducted in the United States (Ogg et al., 1989) and England (Lee et al., 1982) have revealed the presence of V. cholerae in fecal samples and cloacal swabs taken from wild aquatic birds. Similarly, a subsequent study conducted in Japan by Miyasaka et al. (2006) demonstrated that wild aquatic

birds carried V. parahaemolyticus and V. vulnificus during the winter season. Research on marine mammals has also clearly demonstrated their ability to carry V. parahaemolyticus (Goertz et al., 2013) and V. vulnificus (Li et al., 2018), as well as V. cholerae (Buck & McCarthy, 1994). Although it is evident that these bacteria may be present in the intestines of birds and marine mammals, it is also reasonable to assume that they may be present on their external surfaces. Thus, when these organisms move within fishing or aquaculture areas, they can contaminate these zones with bacteria present on their surface or excreted in their feces. Seafood located near these contaminated areas can come into contact with these bacteria and become contaminated. Despite tangible evidence of the transportation of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. by seabirds and marine mammals, few studies have evaluated the impact of these vectors on seafood contamination in the marine environment. In 2004, an epidemiological study was conducted in Alaska following an outbreak of V. parahaemolyticus associated with the consumption of oysters cultivated in farms located in Prince William Sound and southeast Alaska. Restriction fragment length polymorphism-electrophoresis profiles of the implicated V. parahaemolyticus strains revealed genetic similarities with strains previously isolated in Puget Sound, located 2100 km away from the contaminated farms in Alaska. Although hypotheses were put forth by the coauthors, the possibility of these strains being spread through avenues such as seabirds was suggested (McLaughlin et al., 2005). Therefore, it is essential to deepen our understanding of the role of seabirds and marine mammals as sources and vectors of contamination by human pathogenic Vibrio spp.

Insects 2.4.4

The contamination of seafood by human pathogenic Vibrio spp. through insects represents a significant concern in terms of food safety and public health. These insects play a significant role in the transmission of pathogenic bacteria to marine organisms. Several insects have been identified as potential reservoirs of V. cholerae or V. parahaemolyticus, including marine and terrestrial insects such as chironomids (Halpern et al., 2004), house flies (Yap et al., 2008), mosquito larvae (Fukuda et al., 1997), cockroaches, and ants (Barber, 1914; Cao et al., 2010). These insects can feed on food waste and/or fecal matter contaminated with human pathogenic Vibrio spp. or land on surfaces already contaminated with these bacteria, subsequently moving into marine environments such as fishing or aquaculture areas. Consequently, they can transmit these bacteria to marine organisms when they alight or come into direct contact with them, notably through feeding.



Regrettably, despite evidence of human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. carriage by several insects, no study has assessed the cross-contamination of marine organisms intended for human consumption. It is therefore crucial to conduct comprehensive studies to better understand the extent of this risk and to implement appropriate preventive measures.

3 | CONTAMINATION ROUTES OF PROCESSED SEAFOOD

3.1 | Inappropriate handling scenarios in seafood industry

Poor handling of seafood plays a crucial role in *Vibrio* food contamination. A 2007 examination found that improper food handling may have been a factor in 97% of all foodborne illnesses associated with the food service industry (Egan et al., 2007). In fact, according to World Health Organization (WHO), global epidemiological studies show that, in most cases, outbreaks of foodborne disease can be attributed to improper food handling by food handlers (WHO, 2008). The role of food workers in human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. foodborne outbreaks has been clearly demonstrated by several authors (Jung, 2018; Liu et al., 2015; Merson et al., 1976; Taha & Mohamed, 2020).

3.1.1 | Slicing scenarios: equipment usage

Cross-contamination scenarios involving the use of equipment and utensils, such as cutting boards, knives, and slicers, are likely to occur when good hygiene practices are not applied by personnel and are probably underreported. Slicing food such as ready-to-eat (RTE) seafood can increase the risk of cross-contamination by contact with contaminated surfaces. Not only slicing, but also cutting, handling, or packaging operations contribute to increasing the risk of cross-contamination. For example, investigations carried out during a vibriosis outbreak in September 2017 in Korea strongly suggested that the infection vehicle was a knife and a cutting board (Jung, 2018). It was determined that contaminated squid was sliced using a knife and a cutting board, which were then used to slice egg sheets, spreading the contamination to V. parahaemolyticus. The potential risk for the transfer of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. in slicing scenarios has not been well evaluated so far. However, the study of such situations would provide empirical data to develop guidelines for the industry and retailers on good slicing practices and cleaning and disinfection procedures to prevent transfer and survival of these enteric pathogens. In a survey conducted by Asmawi et al. (2018) in Malaysia (the eighth largest shrimp producer in 2010; Chowdhury et al., 2012), on food handlers' knowledge, attitudes, and practices regarding food hygiene, 5.5% of respondents were reported to be uncertain or not at all agreeable to changing gloves after handling raw food and before handling RTE food.

3.1.2 | Hygiene and glove usage

Direct handling of food with contaminated gloves represents a critical source of cross-contamination and dissemination of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. A study conducted by Xiao et al. (2018) aimed to quantify the transfer of *V. parahaemolyticus* during the shrimp peeling process via gloves in three different scenarios. The first two scenarios provided quantitative information on the probability distribution of bacterial transfer rates, from (i) contaminated shrimp (6 log CFU/g) to non-contaminated gloves (scenario 1) and from (ii) contaminated gloves (6 log CFU/pair) to non-contaminated shrimp (scenario 2). In scenario 3, bacterial transfer from contaminated shrimp to non-contaminated shrimp during the peeling process via gloves was studied to develop a predictive model to describe successive bacterial transfer. The results showed that V. parahaemolyticus could not only be transferred from shrimp to gloves and from gloves to shrimp, but also that successive shrimp contamination could also occur easily without changing gloves. On the other hand, it was shown that 18% of seafood warehouse workers cleaned seafood with seawater after unloading in the warehouse (Zanin et al., 2015).

3.1.3 | Contaminated seawater

Seawater is a major source of human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. contamination and therefore represents a significant risk for the cross-contamination of surfaces in contact with food, especially RTE products (Collin & Rehnstam-Holm, 2011; Tey et al., 2015). Between December 1974 and February 1975, two outbreaks of *V. parahaemolyticus* linked to the consumption of seafood cocktails, shrimp, and lobster led to 697 cases of vibriosis on two cruise ships. The investigation revealed the use of seawater in the kitchen from the ships' fire system, which was contaminated with *V. parahaemolyticus* (Merson et al., 1976). A study on the use of *V. parahaemolyticus* contaminated seawater for washing naturally contaminated fish clearly showed that contaminated wash water significantly increased the *V. parahaemolyticus* load on the fish (Hara-Kudo et al., 2013).



3.1.4 | Food packaging

The contribution of food containers and transport bags to food contamination is an important topic to address. Reusable bags, when not properly washed between uses, pose a risk for cross-contamination of food. For example, when raw seafood and RTE foods are transported together in the same bag, or among different uses of the bag, this increases the opportunity for cross-contamination. In a study conducted by Barbosa et al. (2019), the cultivable bacterial flora of 30 reusable plastic bags was analyzed. Results showed the presence of numerous Enterobacteriaceae and staphylococci in all bags, as well as one bag contaminated with the foodborne pathogen Listeria monocytogenes. The study suggested that raw seafood or other uncooked food products had contaminated the bags. Although human pathogenic Vibrio spp. were not isolated, the presence of other enteric bacteria demonstrates that food containers and reusable bags can be contaminated by enteric microorganisms, posing a potential danger, especially if leaked food residues on the internal surfaces permit the growth of pathogens. It is also important to note that once contaminated, bags are often used for purposes other than transporting seafood, which increases the risk of cross-contamination. The aforementioned study by Barbosa et al. (2019) also revealed that consumers rarely wash reusable bags, which allows bacteria to grow when stored under appropriate conditions. This highlights the need for targeted recommendations to consumers and professionals to reduce the risk of cross-contamination when using reusable shopping bags.

Carrier organisms 3.2

3.2.1 | Food handlers

Aside from poor handling practices, seafood handlers themselves can represent a source of contamination due to their health status and asymptomatic carriage of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. (Chonsin et al., 2021). In May 2013, 99 employees of a company in Guangdong, China, contracted a co-infection with V. parahaemolyticus and norovirus after consuming roast duck, an uncommon vector for these two pathogens. Epidemiological and laboratory investigations, including similarity analyses of serotypes, sequence types, and PFGE results, indicated that a single asymptomatic food handler was the source of the infection (Liu et al., 2015). It is difficult to assess the percentage of asymptomatic carriers of human pathogenic Vibrio spp., as this is poorly investigated and varies depending on regions, populations, and environmental conditions. In Japan, the prevalence of V. parahaemolyticus in

food handlers was reported to be 0.3% (17/450), with three isolates being Kanagawa phenomenon positive (Nishlo et al., 1969). In 2002-2003, the presence of pathogenic strains of V. parahaemolyticus among asymptomatic workers in shrimp processing plants in Thailand was nearly 35% (25.8% tdh+ trh-; 4.8% tdh- trh+; 4.8% tdh+ trh+) (Chonsin et al., 2021). Additionally, a phylogenetic study using multilocus sequencing typing analyzed strains of V. parahaemolyticus from Thailand recovered from various sources associated with the seafood industry, including clinical samples, healthy workers, fresh seafood, frozen shrimp, farmed shrimp tissues, and pond water for shrimp culture. It showed that human carrier isolates carrying virulence factors were closely related to clinical isolates, but not to those of environmental origin (Theethakaew et al., 2013). Recently, Chonsin et al. (2021) aimed to evaluate the potential role of fish handlers in seafood processing plants as probable sources of V. parahaemolyticus contamination. They found 12 V. parahaemolyticus isolates from asymptomatic workers to be toxigenic strains (tdh+ or trh+ genotype) along with 49 other non-toxigenic isolates (tdhtrh- genotype), confirming the major danger posed by fish handlers as a source of foodborne Vibrio contamination. The involvement of seafood handlers as carriers of V. cholerae has also been demonstrated in foodborne outbreaks implicating this pathogen (Lalitha et al., 2008), but the same has not been shown in outbreaks involving V. vulnificus.

3.2.2 Pests

Attention must also be given to pests that can be responsible for cross-contamination by human pathogenic Vibrio spp. As previously mentioned (Section 2.4.4), insects can act as potential reservoirs of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. (Barber, 1914; Cao et al., 2010; Echeverria et al., 1983; Halpern et al., 2004; Lee et al., 1982; Miyasaka et al., 2006; Ogg et al., 1989). They can come into contact with Vibriocontaminated food human pathogenic and then move to other food preparation or storage areas, thereby facilitating the spread of these bacteria to food contact surfaces and/or directly to food items that were previously free of pathogens. The potential for such transfer of Vibrio was demonstrated in experiments carried out by Yap et al. (2008), where domestic flies were placed in a room containing V. cholerae-contaminated liquid bait. After 2 h, 10 flies were sequentially removed and cultured for the presence of V. cholerae. The results revealed that the pathogen was isolated from four domestic flies; specifically, two were obtained from the legs of the flies and two from the bodies with the legs or wings removed. These observations underscore the potential role of insects in the dissemination of human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. and cross-contamination to food. To mitigate these risks, it is imperative to implement effective pest control measures in food handling and storage areas. Additionally, gaining a better understanding of the role of insects and birds in the cross-contamination of processed seafood is crucial for implementing targeted prevention strategies. Further studies are necessary to assess the extent of their impact and develop appropriate preventive measures.

3.3 | Biofilms: catalyzing contamination pathways

3.3.1 | A catalyzer of cross-contamination in seafood industry

The colonization and persistence of enteric pathogens, such as human pathogenic Vibrio spp., on food processing and preparation surfaces represent a major risk to food safety. Cross-contamination can occur among food handlers, food products, and surfaces in contact with raw and/or processed foods when these pathogens adhere to surfaces (Mungai et al., 2002). Once attached to surfaces, Vibrio cells have the ability to form protective biofilms. Biofilms are of high importance across the entire food industry as they can form on food products or on any abiotic surface associated with food production/processing chains (Figure 1). Human pathogenic Vibrio spp. are able to form biofilms on biotic surfaces such as crustacean shells, fish opercula, or mollusk shells (Wang et al., 2022; Yu & Rhee, 2023), and this may enhance their survival through the processing chain and represent a significant risk of cross-contamination, especially during the processing of seafood products. In addition, numerous studies have shown that these pathogens are capable of adhering to and/or forming biofilms on several types of materials commonly found in food processing plants, such as plastic or glass (Drescher et al., 2016; Gallego-Hernandez et al., 2020; Leighton et al., 2022; Rosa et al., 2018). In the food industry, the most widely used material for the fabrication of processing equipment, pipelines, and work surfaces is stainless steel. This material is traditionally chosen in seafood processing plants for food preparation due to its mechanical strength, corrosion resistance, and longevity (Awad et al., 2018). Biofilms also form at liquid-air interfaces as would be the case of pellicles formed at a liquid surface (McLandsborough et al., 2006). More recently, the definition has expanded to include aggregates or flocs of cells, a phenomenon relevant to V. cholerae survival in aquatic environments and virulence (Yildiz & Visick, 2009). Regardless of the substratum used for attachment, this preferred sessile mode of life offers many advan-

tages for resident bacteria and enables them to grow and survive under stressful environmental conditions, such as food and environmental surface cleaning and drying procedures. Consequently, pathogenic cells can persist in biofilms on food contact surfaces for extended periods, thereby increasing the risk of cross-contamination (Ashrafudoulla et al., 2021; Han et al., 2016). There is very little research on the occurrence of V. vulnificus, V. cholerae, and V. parahaemolyticus on surfaces in seafood production, processing, or distribution environments. Some authors have reported the natural presence of *V. cholerae* on different pipes made of stainless steel in a metropolitan drinking water distribution system (Fu et al., 2021b). An unpublished study by Hossain et al. (2016, 2018) also investigated household contamination of V. cholerae in Bangladesh. In this survey, 39.6% of samples among a collection of 660 hot spot swabs from various surfaces (door knobs, cutting knives, drinking water pots, food plates, and leftover foods) tested positive for V. cholerae. To our knowledge, the only published study is that of Ngan et al. (2020), who analyzed the microbial profiles of biofilms on wooden cutting boards from 11 wet markets in Hong Kong and found natural surface presence of V. parahaemolyticus and V. vulnificus, which was later confirmed by Rao et al. (2021). Cutting boards represent hotspots for cross-contamination ranging from food processing plants to the kitchens of consumers. These surfaces have porous surfaces that provide a favorable environment for the proliferation and persistence of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. In addition, the nicks and cracks that form on the surface of cutting boards over time can provide growth niches for bacteria, making them difficult to eliminate even with thorough cleaning. To our knowledge, only Chiu et al. (2006) have evaluated the colonization ability of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. on cutting boards. They showed that V. parahaemolyticus could adhere in just 10 min to bamboo, wood, and plastic cutting boards, as well as to other surfaces in contact with food (stainless steel and glazed ceramic tiles). If cutting boards are used for the preparation of different types of food, such as raw and cooked seafood, this can lead to cross-contamination of RTE foods, thus increasing the risk of foodborne Vibrio infections. Malcolm et al. (2018) showed that V. parahaemolyticus could be transferred to lettuce when it came into contact with cutting boards and stainless steel knives used previously on contaminated bloody clams (Anadara granosa). To do this, they evaluated the potential for transfer and crosscontamination of V. parahaemolyticus from bloody clams to RTE foods (lettuce) according to three scenarios: (i) direct cross-contamination of V. parahaemolyticus from bloody clams to surfaces that do not come into contact with lettuce; (ii) effectiveness of superficial cleaning with water or wiping with a paper towel; and (iii) secondary

15414337, 2024, 1, Downloaded from https://fit.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/1541-4337.13283 by Thomas Brauge - Anses, Wiley Online Library on [19/12/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.

and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons Licenso

cross-contamination by the transfer of Vibrio from cleaning residues to lettuce. These studies demonstrated significant direct and indirect transfer of V. parahaemolyticus to lettuce and inefficiency of superficial cleaning in combating cross-contamination.

3.3.2 | Factors enhancing biofilm formation and contamination

In addition to the nature of the surfaces, other extrinsic and intrinsic factors influence the attachment capacities and the biofilm development of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. on processing equipment. Several authors have reviewed these factors, including Wang et al. (2022) who suggest the need to understand the mechanisms of V. parahaemolyticus biofilm formation, such as the role of mobility and flagella in adhesion and biofilm structuring, as well as the identification of polysaccharides and protein components of the extracellular matrix at different stages of biofilm development. Although intrinsic molecular factors favoring the formation of biofilms by human pathogenic Vibrio spp. are beyond the reach of food industry professionals, they can easily influence extrinsic factors. Two widely recognized extrinsic factors in the formation of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. biofilms are temperature and the composition of the growth/attachment medium. Recent studies have primarily focused on these two factors. Due to multiple experimental conditions, it is difficult to reach a consensus on the effect of temperature on the formation of V. parahaemolyticus biofilms. Castro-Rosas and Escartin (2002) and Han et al. (2016) agreed that the formation of *V. parahaemolyticus* biofilms on abiotic (stainless steel) and biotic surfaces (crustaceans and shrimp) is favored by temperatures above 30°C. However, Leighton et al. (2022) showed a greater biomass of *V. parahaemolyticus* biofilms cultured on glass and plastic at 25°C compared to those cultured at 30 and 35°C. Using the crystal violet microplate assay, Song et al. (2017) also noted greater biofilm formation at 25°C relative to 15 or 37°C for a collection of both pathogenic and nonpathogenic V. parahaemolyticus strains. They also reported that, as a group, the pathogenic strains produced more biofilm at all temperatures. Mougin et al. (2019) did not observe any difference in biofilm production of V. parahaemolyticus on stainless steel between 8 and 37°C in three different media, but highlighted that V. cholerae exhibited greater survival at 8°C rather than 37°C, when cultivated in brine. Regarding V. vulnificus, it has been demonstrated that biofilm production by V. vulnificus cultured on glass and plastic is more significant at low temperatures (24–25°C) than at high temperatures (35 and 37°C) (Çam & Brinkmeyer, 2020; Leighton et al., 2022; Velez et al., 2023). In contrast, in their study of biofilms

formed in glass tubes, Hernández-Cabanyero et al. (2020) showed no significant difference in biofilm production at temperatures ranging from 20 to 37°C, although a slight increase in biofilm quantity with increasing temperature was observed. Studies on biofilm-formation by non-O1/non-O139 serotype strains of *V. cholerae* are rare. To our knowledge, the only recent study conducted is that of Mougin et al. (2019) which showed that V. cholerae biofilms cultured on stainless steel in three different media have higher viable populations at 8°C than at 37°C. However, the biofilm capacities of serotype O1 and O139 strains are well documented (Yildiz & Visick, 2009) and much is known regarding the mechanisms involved as detailed by Teschler et al. (2022). In another earlier study, Castro-Rosas and Escartin (2002) also showed that temperature impacted the attachment of V. cholerae O1 to fresh crabs (Callinectes sapidus) and shrimp (Penaeus duorarum) surfaces, whereby the adherence was found to be less than 2% at 3°C but greater than 20% at 37°C.

The composition of the fixation medium, such as seafood exudates on contaminated surfaces, also influences the adhesion and biofilm formation of V. parahaemolyticus. Recent studies have shown that a low salt concentration promotes the formation of biofilms of this pathogen. For example, maximal biofilm formation by V. parahaemolyticus was observed on black tiger shrimp (Penaeus monodon) surfaces at a NaCl concentration of 2% compared to 5% NaCl. In combination with 2% NaCl and varying concentrations of glucose, the greatest biofilm production was observed at a low glucose concentration of 0.015% compared to a concentration of 0.05%. The addition of salt and glucose, at concentrations higher than 2% and 0.015%, respectively, inhibited the formation of V. parahaemolyticus biofilms (Mizan et al., 2018). More recently, Li et al. (2022) showed better biofilm formation for V. parahaemolyticus on polystyrene at a salinity of 0.5% NaCl than at a salinity of 4%. Regarding V. cholerae, a study conducted by Castro-Rosas and Escartin (2002) showed that attachment and colonization on shrimp exoskeletons were optimal at a salinity range of 1.0%-1.5% NaCl, a pH range of 6.0-7.0, and a temperature of 37°C. Even at 3% NaCl, some bacterial attachment was observed. To our knowledge, no recent studies have evaluated the impact of salt on the adhesion and formation of biofilms by V. vulnificus. On the other hand, the study by Velez et al. (2023) showed higher biofilm production by several clinical and environmental strains of V. vulnificus and V. parahaemolyticus at acidic pH values. Çam and Brinkmeyer (2020) confirmed these observations and also demonstrated a strong correlation between the concentration of iron in the growth medium and the production of biofilms by V. vulnificus. Similar observations were also made for V. cholerae O1 where its attachment to and subsequent colonization of



shrimp exoskeletons was found to be optimal in the pH range of 6.0–7.0 (Castro-Rosas & Escartin, 2002).

3.3.3 | An increase resistance/tolerance

In order to control the spread of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. biofilms, professionals use cleaning and sanitizing procedures, relying on a range of disinfectants. A study by Wang et al. (2023) revealed that V. parahaemolyticus biofilms required sodium hypochlorite concentrations 75 times higher than those needed for planktonic cells, highlighting the importance of developing effective biofilm control strategies. The results of various studies referenced by Wang et al. (2022) have shown that although cleaning products and disinfectants remove impurities and inactivate *V. parahaemolyticus* cells within the biofilm, the use of disinfectants alone at recommended concentrations makes effective biofilm control difficult as the presence of organic matter can neutralize the effectiveness of common sanitizing agents such as quaternary ammonium compounds and sodium hypochlorite (Bridier et al., 2011; Gelinas & Goulet, 1983). Moreover, it is possible that pathogenic communities of V. parahaemolyticus with acquired resistance may persist on surfaces (Rosa et al., 2018). Furthermore, it has been observed that human pathogenic Vibrio spp. can enter a state known as viable but non-culturable (VBNC), wherein Vibrio cells are not detectable through standard culture methods (Mougin et al., 2019; Rice et al., 2000; Yoon & Lee, 2022). Nevertheless, they remain viable and capable of regrowth when environmental conditions become favorable. Disinfectants can trigger this VBNC state by altering physicochemical factors in the surrounding environment, such as ion concentrations, pH, and temperature. This phenomenon has been documented, notably in L. monocytogenes (Brauge et al., 2020). However, the induction of the VBNC state in human pathogenic Vibrio spp. by disinfectants has not yet undergone comprehensive investigation.

3.3.4 | Single-species versus consortium

The vast majority of research on biofilms of foodborne pathogenic bacteria has been carried out using pure cultures. However, in the "real world," biofilms do not exist as monocultures but instead they comprise a consortium of microbial species. The intimate interactions/associations between these microorganisms, whether be synergistic, antagonistic, or seemingly neutral, determine the overall development, structure, and function of the biofilm (Flemming et al., 2016). For example, relative to monoculture biofilms, a much greater diversity of constituents

is expected to be present in the EPS of polymicrobic biofilms. Furthermore, the amounts and combinations of these components not only depend on specific interactions between denizen microorganisms, but they also depend on when these interactions occur as well as their location within the biofilm during its development. Therefore, both the EPS matrix and composition of the community are dynamic in constant transition (Flemming et al., 2023). As such, the general architectures of multispecies biofilms are substantially different from those harboring a single species and consequently, the increased complexity can contribute to enhanced protection for the biofilm residents against external stressors. Numerous published works involving various foodborne pathogens have reported improved resistance to inimical challenges in mixed-species biofilms. For example, when cocultured with *Pseudomonas* spp. in biofilms formed on stainless-steel or plastics, the intracellular pathogen L. monocytogenes displays greater resistance to benzalkonium chloride (Haddad et al., 2021; Ibusquiza et al., 2012). Compared to their monoculture biofilms on stainlesssteel, dual-species biofilms of Shiga-toxin producing E. coli paired with Salmonella typhimurium were shown to have increased bio-volume and biomass. Upon exposure to a NaClO solution (100 μ g/mL) for 1 min, a significant decrease in the inactivation of cells was observed for those dwelling in the mixed-species biofilm versus their pure culture counterparts (Lin et al., 2022). Regarding human pathogenic Vibrio spp., Tan et al. (2021) showed that, relative to their monoculture counterparts, dual-culture biofilms formed by V. parahaemolyticus and the spoilage bacterium, Shewanella putrefaciens, displayed an altered spatial distribution of cells within the biofilm, resulting in greater EPS production and overall biomass. Ultimately, this rendered pathogen cells residing within this biofilm significantly less sensitive to photodynamic inactivation as compared to monoculture biofilm cells. In contrast, when Chen et al. (2019) examined dual-species biofilms formed by two foodborne pathogenic bacteria, V. parahaemolyticus and L. monocytogenes, they noted the overall biomass, bio-volume, and thickness of the monoculture biofilms of each bacterium was significantly greater than their biofilm in the combined culture. This modified architecture impacted the general susceptibility of these pathogens to the antibiotics ciprofloxacin and cefotaxime, whereby the minimum biofilm inhibitory concentrations were significantly reduced.

Although these dual-species biofilm studies provide useful baseline insight to help expand our understanding the interspecies interactions between these bacteria within sessile multispecies communities, they still represent very simplistic models compared to the natural world. The lack of realistic multispecies models that accurately mimic

15414337, 2024, 1, Downloaded from https://fit.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/1541-4337.13283 by Thomas Brauge - Anses, Wiley Online Library on [19/12/2023]. See the Terms and Conditions (https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/cerms-and-conditions) on Wiley Online Library for rules of use; OA articles are governed by the applicable Creative Commons License

real food industry biofilms remains a major hurdle for advancing our knowledge in this area. Some researchers have carried out biofilm studies with other foodborne pathogens in tri-species (Almeida et al., 2011; Haddad et al., 2021), or quadruple-species (Iñiguez-Moreno et al., 2019) biofilms, but to our knowledge, no studies to date research have investigated Vibrio spp. biofilms cocultured with more than one other species. Going forward there is a need for research examining the behavior of human pathogenic Vibrio spp. in multispecies biofilms of greater complexity. Such work is warranted as it could provide useful information to help gain a better understanding of its persistence in seafood processing environments, thus enabling science-based strategies aimed at mitigating the risk of contamination involving these important pathogens.

4 | CONCLUSION AND FUTURE PERSPECTIVES

To culminate the holistic approach outlined in this review, which addresses Vibrio contamination from both seafood production and processing, we were able to discern and pinpoint diverse sources and routes of contamination throughout the entire seafood supply chain. Human pathogenic Vibrio spp. are ubiquitous in aquatic environments, leading to the contamination of raw seafood. As a result, both wild-caught and farmed seafood can act as potential entry points for pathogenic Vibrio spp. into the seafood supply chain. The initial contamination of raw seafood occurs through two main processes: direct contact with contaminated water and internalization via ingestion, filtration, or skin abrasions. Additionally, Vibrio can adhere to biotic elements, like the chitinous surfaces of aquatic organisms, promoting their survival by forming robust and resilient biofilms. Within the environment, we have identified various factors which can influence the contamination of raw seafood, such as climate conditions (temperature, salinity, and pH), human activities (maritime operations, effluents, plastic particles, and aquaculture), and interactions with wildlife (birds, aquatic mammals, parasites, plankton, microbial communities, algae, and insects). Once within the seafood chain, contaminations mainly occur via cross-contamination through various pathways, including contact with contaminated processing equipment like surfaces, cutting boards, and knives, as well as food packaging and wash water. It can also occur through contact with carrier organisms such as insects/pests or food handlers. Moreover, the development of robust and tolerant/resistant biofilms by pathogenic Vibrio may impede their eradication through disinfection procedures, consequently accelerating contamination pathways and heightening the likelihood of disinfection failure. In the end, without effective control measures, these contaminated seafood products may reach the food market, potentially posing significant health risks to consumers.

Today, significant issues persist in monitoring and reporting foodborne and human infections caused by Vibrio, greatly hindering our understanding of the attribution of sources of contamination by pathogenic Vibrio for humans. These gaps could be addressed by establishing an international surveillance network dedicated to pathogenic Vibrio for humans, following the model of the COVIS (cholera and other Vibrio illness surveillance) network established in the United States (Newton et al., 2012). At the European level, such infrastructure is lacking. Human vibriosis is not subject to mandatory reporting, and there are no formal regulatory microbiological criteria for Vibrio (European Food Safety Authority [EFSA], 2012; Food and Drug Administration [FDA], 2021; Hartnell et al., 2019). Therefore, microbiological surveillance of pathogenic Vibrio entailing pathogens remains voluntary and nonobligatory for each European country. It would be beneficial for Europe to establish European criteria for contamination by pathogenic Vibrio for humans, as well as a common methodology and surveillance network. This initiative would help gather crucial epidemiological data on Vibrio and conduct larger-scale investigations.

In this review, we have identified several knowledge gaps that warrant attention for future research. First, no study has been undertaken to understand the genetic evolution of Vibrio populations resulting from primary marine contamination throughout the seafood chain. It would be particularly interesting to investigate the impact of environmental factors encountered throughout this chain, such as temperature or surrounding microorganisms, on the growth of Vibrio pathogens for humans in food matrices and on the surfaces of processing facilities. This approach would help us better understand the actual health risks associated with RTE seafood products. Second, we should consider populations of VBNC flora, as demonstrated in the study by Mougin et al. (2019). VBNC florae present a significant health risk, as they are not detected by conventional microbiology methods, while remaining potentially pathogenic under favorable conditions (Oliver & Bockian, 1995). This approach would allow us to identify the environmental factors that influence the viability and growth of clinically important Vibrio in humans, thus paving the way for treatment strategies. Third, we could seek to identify potential indicators of the presence of pathogenic Vibrio in humans, such as a particular bacterial species or a specific gene. For example, the presence of Listeria sp. has been identified as an indicator of the zoonotic pathogen L. monocytogenes (Malley



et al., 2015). In addition, much like the study by Mougin and Joyce (2023), which delves into the potential of microbial dysbiosis-associated biomarkers as a means to prevent fish diseases in aquaculture, it would be intriguing to investigate biomarkers indicating an elevated risk of contamination due to the complex interplay between the microbiome and pathogen proliferation along the seafood supply chain. This approach could be useful in enhancing surveillance and early detection of pathogenic Vibrio in seafood, thereby contributing to improved food safety and public health protection. Fourth, we have highlighted studies that have genetically characterized strains of Vibrio pathogenic to humans isolated throughout the seafood supply chain. It would also be interesting to track the genetic evolution of a specific clone of pathogenic Vibrio throughout the seafood chain to better understand the acquisition or loss of resistance and/or virulence genes (such as tdh, trh, or ctx). Special attention could be given to biofilm sampling, as several studies have reported facilitated horizontal genetic exchanges within these structures (Madsen et al., 2012).

Finally, the impact of climate change and its related consequences on populations of pathogenic Vibrio for humans in marine and aquaculture environments has been extensively studied. However, a significant gap exists in the study of the impact of global warming in the seafood processing plants, from the entry of raw materials to the finished products. A promising research avenue would involve assessing the potential impact of temperature variations during seafood processing processes. This would include monitoring the phenotypic and genetic evolution of pathogenic Vibrio populations at each stage of the food supply chain. This approach would provide better insights into how environmental conditions, such as temperature fluctuations, can influence food safety and the quality of seafood products. Furthermore, this research could contribute to the establishment of early warning systems for extreme weather events, such as heat waves, to prevent potential food safety risks. Additionally, by demonstrating the impact of climate change on seafood processing plants, it could motivate governments and regulatory bodies to strengthen their environmental sustainability requirements. This could lead to the implementation of new regulations aimed at reducing the climate footprint of these seafood processing plants.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Thomas Brauge: Funding acquisition; writing—original draft; conceptualization; investigation; visualization; writing—review and editing. Julia Mougin and Timothy Ells: Writing—review and editing; investigation; writing—original draft. Graziella

Midelet: Writing—review and editing. **Julia Mougin**: Visualization.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This study was supported by Haut de France region with VIBRATO project. Thomas Brauge acknowledges the receipt of a fellowship from the OECD Co-operative Research Programme: Sustainable Agricultural and Food Systems in 2023 (TAD/CRP PO 500120218). The Structure Fédérative de Recherche (SFR) Campus de la Mer and the embassy of France in Canada have also financially supported this work.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST STATEMENTNo, there are no conflicts of interest.

ORCID

Thomas Brauge https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7649-3919

Julia Mougin https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5855-5629

Timothy Ells https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9720-5779

Graziella Midelet https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5336-0323

REFERENCES

Aagesen, A. M., Phuvasate, S., Su, Y.-C., & Häse, C. C. (2013). Persistence of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in the Pacific oyster, *Crassostrea gigas*, is a multifactorial process involving pili and flagella but not type III secretion systems or phase variation. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 79(10), 3303–3305. https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.00314-13

Alfiansah, Y. R., Hassenrück, C., Kunzmann, A., Taslihan, A., Harder, J., & Gärdes, A. (2018). Bacterial abundance and community composition in pond water from shrimp aquaculture systems with different stocking densities. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, *9*, 2457. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2018.02457

Almeida, C., Azevedo, N. F., Santos, S., Keevil, C. W., & Vieira, M. J. (2011). Discriminating multi-species populations in biofilms with peptide nucleic acid fluorescence in situ hybridization (PNA FISH). *PLoS ONE*, 6(3), e14786. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0014786

Amalisa, Mahasri, G., & Kismiyati (2021). The correlation between ectoparasite infestation and total *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* bacteria in Pacific white shrimp (*Litopenaeus vannamei*) in Super Intensive Ponds. *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science*, 888, 012003.

Amato, E., Riess, M., Thomas-Lopez, D., Linkevicius, M., Pitkänen, T., Wołkowicz, T., Rjabinina, J., Jernberg, C., Hjertqvist, M., & MacDonald, E. (2022). Epidemiological and microbiological investigation of a large increase in vibriosis, northern Europe, 2018. Eurosurveillance, 27(28), 2101088. https://doi.org/10.2807/1560-7917.es.2022.27.28.2101088

Arab, S., Nalbone, L., Giarratana, F., & Berbar, A. (2020). Occurrence of *Vibrio* spp. along the Algerian Mediterranean coast in wild and farmed *Sparus aurata* and *Dicentrarchus labrax*. *Veterinary World*, *13*(6), 1199. https://doi.org/10.14202/2Fvetworld.2020.1199-1208



- Arab, S., Nalbone, L., Giarratana, F., & Berbar, A. (2021). *Vibrio* spp. in wild and farmed *Mytilus galloprovincialis* along the Algerian Mediterranean coast: Evidence of *V. cholerae* 01 serotype Ogawa. *Journal of Aquatic Food Product Technology*, *30*(6), 774–783. https://doi.org/10.1080/10498850.2021.1936326
- Arunkumar, M., LewisOscar, F., Thajuddin, N., Pugazhendhi, A., & Nithya, C. (2020). In vitro and in vivo biofilm forming *Vibrio* spp.: A significant threat in aquaculture. *Process Biochemistry*, *94*, 213–223. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procbio.2020.04.029
- Ashrafudoulla, M., Mizan, M. F. R., Park, S. H., & Ha, S.-D. (2021). Current and future perspectives for controlling *Vibrio* biofilms in the seafood industry: A comprehensive review. *Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition*, *61*(11), 1827–1851. https://doi.org/10.1080/10408398.2020.1767031
- Asmawi, U. M. M., Norehan, A. A., Salikin, K., Rosdi, N. A. S., Munir, N. A. T. A., & Basri, N. B. M. (2018). An assessment of knowledge, attitudes and practices in food safety among food handlers engaged in food courts. *Current Research in Nutrition and Food Science Journal*, *6*(2), 346–353. https://dx.doi.org/10.12944/CRNFSJ.6. 2.09
- Awad, T. S., Asker, D., & Hatton, B. D. (2018). Food-safe modification of stainless steel food-processing surfaces to reduce bacterial biofilms. ACS Applied Materials & Interfaces, 10(27), 22902–22912. https://doi.org/10.1021/acsami.8b03788
- Bacian, C., Verdugo, C., García, K., Perez-Larruscain, J., De Blas, I., Cachicas, V., & Lopez-Joven, C. (2021). Longitudinal study of total and pathogenic *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* (*tdh*+ and/or *trh*+) in two natural extraction areas of *Mytilus chilensis* in Southern Chile. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, *12*, 621737. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb. 2021.621737
- Baker-Austin, C., Oliver, J. D., Alam, M., Ali, A., Waldor, M. K., Qadri, F., & Martinez-Urtaza, J. (2018). Vibrio spp. infections. Nature Reviews Disease Primers, 4(1), 1–19. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41572-018-0005-8
- Baker-Austin, C., Trinanes, J. A., Salmenlinna, S., Löfdahl, M., Siitonen, A., Taylor, N. G., & Martinez-Urtaza, J. (2016). Heat wave-associated vibriosis, Sweden and Finland, 2014. Emerging Infectious Diseases, 22(7), 1216–1220. https://doi.org/10.3201/ eid2207.151996
- Barber, M. A. (1914). Cockroaches and ants as carriers of the vibrios of Asiatic cholera. *Philippine Journal of Science*, 9(1), 4. https://www.cabdirect.org/cabdirect/abstract/19141000219
- Barbosa, J., Albano, H., Silva, C., & Teixeira, P. (2019). Microbiological contamination of reusable plastic bags for food transportation. Food Control, 99, 158–163. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2018. 12.041
- Benamrouche, N., Belkader, C., Njamkepo, E., Zemam, S. S., Sadat, S., Saighi, K., Boutabba, D. T., Mechouet, F., Benhadj-Slimani, R., & Zmit, F.-Z. (2022). Outbreak of imported seventh pandemic Vibrio cholerae O1 El tor, Algeria, 2018. Emerging Infectious Diseases, 28(6), 1241. https://doi.org/10.3201/eid2806.212451
- Bienlien, L. M., Audemard, C., Reece, K. S., & Carnegie, R. B. (2022). Impact of parasitism on levels of human-pathogenic *Vibrio* species in eastern oysters. *Journal of Applied Microbiology*, *132*(2), 760–771. https://doi.org/10.1111/jam.15287
- Blackwell, K. D., & Oliver, J. D. (2008). The ecology of Vibrio vulnificus, Vibrio cholerae, and Vibrio parahaemolyticus in North Carolina estuaries. Journal of Microbiology, 46, 146–153. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12275-007-0216-2

- Böer, S. I., Heinemeyer, E.-A., Luden, K., Erler, R., Gerdts, G., Janssen, F., & Brennholt, N. (2013). Temporal and spatial distribution patterns of potentially pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. at recreational beaches of the German North Sea. *Microbial Ecology*, 65, 1052– 1067. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00248-013-0221-4
- Bonnin-Jusserand, M., Copin, S., Le Bris, C., Brauge, T., Gay, M., Brisabois, A., Grard, T., & Midelet-Bourdin, G. (2019). *Vibrio* species involved in seafood-borne outbreaks (*Vibrio cholerae, V. parahaemolyticus and V. vulnificus*): Review of microbiological versus recent molecular detection methods in seafood products. *Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition*, *59*, 597–610. https://doi.org/10.1080/10408398.2017.1384715
- Bourdonnais, E., Colcanap, D., Le Bris, C., Brauge, T., & Midelet, G. (2022). Occurrence of indicator genes of antimicrobial resistance contamination in the English Channel and North Sea sectors and interactions with environmental variables. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, *13*, 883081. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2022.883081
- Bowley, J., Baker-Austin, C., Porter, A., Hartnell, R., & Lewis, C. (2021). Oceanic hitchhikers—Assessing pathogen risks from marine microplastic. *Trends in Microbiology*, 29(2), 107–116. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tim.2020.06.011
- Brauge, T., Faille, C., Leleu, G., Denis, C., Hanin, A., & Midelet, G. (2020). Treatment with disinfectants may induce an increase in viable but non culturable populations of *Listeria monocytogenes* in biofilms formed in smoked salmon processing environments. *Food Microbiology*, 92, 103548. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fm.2020.103548
- Brehm, T. T., Dupke, S., Hauk, G., Fickenscher, H., Rohde, H., & Berneking, L. (2021). Non-cholera *Vibrio* species—Currently still rare but growing danger of infection in the North Sea and the Baltic Sea. *Internist (Berl)*, 62, 876–886. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00108-021-01086-x
- Bridier, A., Briandet, R., Thomas, V., & Dubois-Brissonnet, F. (2011). Resistance of bacterial biofilms to disinfectants: A review. *Biofouling*, 27(9), 1017–1032. https://doi.org/10.1080/08927014.2011. 626899
- Brumfield, K. D., Usmani, M., Chen, K. M., Gangwar, M., Jutla, A. S., Huq, A., & Colwell, R. R. (2021). Environmental parameters associated with incidence and transmission of pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. *Environmental Microbiology*, *23*(12), 7314–7340. https://doi.org/10.1111/1462-2920.15716
- Buck, J. D., & McCarthy, S. A. (1994). Occurrence of non-O1 Vibrio cholerae in Texas Gulf Coast dolphins (Tursiops truncatus). Letters in Applied Microbiology, 18(1), 45–46. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1472-765X.1994.tb00797.x
- Çam, S., & Brinkmeyer, R. (2020). The effects of temperature, pH, and iron on biofilm formation by clinical versus environmental strains of *Vibrio vulnificus*. *Folia Microbiologica*, *65*, 557–566. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12223-019-00761-9
- Cao, M., Zhang, J., & He, Y. (2010). Study of pathogens carried by cockroaches in Shanghai Port. Chinese Journal of Vector Biology and Control, 21(6), 564–565.
- Carrascosa, C., Raheem, D., Ramos, F., Saraiva, A., & Raposo, A. (2021). Microbial biofilms in the food industry—A comprehensive review. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *18*(04), 2014. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18042014
- Castro-Rosas, J., & Escartin, E. (2002). Adhesion and colonization of *Vibrio cholerae* O1 on shrimp and crab carapaces. *Journal of Food Protection*, 65(3), 492–498. https://doi.org/10.4315/0362-028x-65.3.



- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), (1993), Isolation of Vibrio cholerae O1 from oysters-Mobile Bay, 1991-1992. MMWR. Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report, 42(5), 91-93.
- Centre National de Référence des Vibrions et du Choléra (CNRVC). (2021). Rapport annuel d'activité 2021. Retrieved October 4, 2023, from https://www.pasteur.fr/fr/file/42304/download
- Chahouri, A., Radouane, N., Yacoubi, B., Moukrim, A., & Banaoui, A. (2022). Microbiological assessment of marine and estuarine ecosystems using fecal indicator bacteria, Salmonella, Vibrio and antibiotic resistance pattern. Marine Pollution Bulletin, 180, 113824. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2022.113824
- Chávez, M. D. R. C., Sedas, V. P., Borunda, E. O., & Reynoso, F. L. (2005). Influence of water temperature and salinity on seasonal occurrences of Vibrio cholerae and enteric bacteria in oysterproducing areas of Veracruz, México. Marine Pollution Bulletin, 50(12), 1641–1648. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2005.06.036
- Chen, P., Wang, J. J., Hong, B., Tan, L., Yan, J., Zhang, Z., Liu, H., Pan, Y., & Zhao, Y. (2019). Characterization of mixed-species biofilm formed by Vibrio parahaemolyticus and Listeria monocytogenes. Frontiers in Microbiology, 10, 2543. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb. 2019.02543
- Chen, Q., & Peng, D. (2019). Nematode chitin and application. In Q. Yang & T. Fukamizo (Eds.), Targeting chitin-containing organisms. Advances in experimental medicine and biology (Vol. 1142, pp. 209-219). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-7318-3_10
- Chiu, T. H., Duan, J., Liu, C., & Su, Y. C. (2006). Efficacy of electrolysed oxidizing water in inactivating Vibrio parahaemolyticus on kitchen cutting boards and food contact surfaces. Letters in Applied Microbiology, 43(6), 666-672. https://doi.org/10.1111/j. 1472-765x.2006.02006.x
- Chonsin, K., Supha, N., Nakajima, C., Suzuki, Y., & Suthienkul, O. (2021). Characterization of Vibrio parahaemolyticus strains isolated from clinically asymptomatic seafood workers. FEMS Microbiology Letters, 368(1), fnaa209. https://doi.org/10.1093/femsle/ fnaa209
- Chowdhury, M. A., Talib, A., & Yahya, K. (2012). A review on marine shrimp aquaculture production trend and sustainability in Malaysia and the world perspective [Conference presentation]. Proceedings of the Conference: International Fisheries Symposium, Can Tho University, Can Tho, Vietnam.
- Ciji, A., & Akhtar, M. S. (2021). Stress management in aquaculture: A review of dietary interventions. Reviews in Aquaculture, 13(4), 2190-2247. https://doi.org/10.1111/raq.12565
- Cohen, N. J., Slaten, D. D., Marano, N., Tappero, J. W., Wellman, M., Albert, R. J., Hill, V. R., Espey, D., Handzel, T., & Henry, A. (2012). Preventing maritime transfer of toxigenic Vibrio cholerae. Emerging Infectious Diseases, 18(10), 1680. https://doi.org/10.3201/ 2Feid1810.120676
- Collin, B., & Rehnstam-Holm, A.-S. (2011). Occurrence and potential pathogenesis of Vibrio cholerae, Vibrio parahaemolyticus and Vibrio vulnificus on the South Coast of Sweden. FEMS Microbiology Ecology, 78(2), 306-313. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-6941.2011. 01157.x
- Conrad, J. W., & Harwood, V. J. (2022). Sewage promotes Vibrio vulnificus growth and alters gene transcription in Vibrio vulnificus CMCP6. Microbiology Spectrum, 10(1), e01913-e01921. https://doi. org/10.1128/spectrum.01913-21
- Davis, B. J., Jacobs, J. M., Davis, M. F., Schwab, K. J., DePaola, A., & Curriero, F. C. (2017). Environmental determinants of Vibrio para-

- haemolyticus in the Chesapeake Bay. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 83(21), e01147-17. https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.01147-
- Deeb, R., Tufford, D., Scott, G. I., Moore, J. G., & Dow, K. (2018). Impact of climate change on Vibrio vulnificus abundance and exposure risk. Estuaries and Coasts, 41, 2289-2303. https://doi.org/ 10.1007/s12237-018-0424-5
- Destoumieux-Garzón, D., Canesi, L., Oyanedel, D., Travers, M. A., Charrière, G. M., Pruzzo, C., & Vezzulli, L. (2020). Vibrio-bivalve interactions in health and disease. Environmental Microbiology, 22(10), 4323-4341, https://doi.org/10.1111/1462-2920.15055
- Dhakal, B. K., Lee, W., Kim, Y. R., Choy, H. E., Ahnn, J., & Rhee, J. H. (2006). Caenorhabditis elegans as a simple model host for Vibrio vulnificus infection. Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications, 346(3), 751-757. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbrc.2006.
- Dobbs, F. C., Goodrich, A. L., Thomson, F. K., & Hynes, W. (2013). Pandemic serotypes of Vibrio cholerae isolated from Ships' ballast tanks and coastal waters: Assessment of antibiotic resistance and virulence genes (tcp A and ctx A). Microbial Ecology, 65, 969-974. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00248-013-0182-7
- Dowle, E., Pochon, X., Keeley, N., & Wood, S. A. (2015). Assessing the effects of salmon farming seabed enrichment using bacterial community diversity and high-throughput sequencing. FEMS Microbiology Ecology, 91(8), fiv089. https://doi.org/10.1093/ femsec/fiv089
- Drescher, K., Dunkel, J., Nadell, C. D., Van Teeffelen, S., Grnja, I., Wingreen, N. S., Stone, H. A., & Bassler, B. L. (2016). Architectural transitions in Vibrio cholerae biofilms at single-cell resolution. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 113(14), E2066-E2072. https://doi.org/10.1073/ pnas.1601702113
- Duan, J., & Su, Y. C. (2005). Occurrence of Vibrio parahaemolyticus in two Oregon oyster-growing bays. Journal of Food Science, 70(1), M58-M63. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2621.2005.tb09047.x
- Echeverria, P., Harrison, B., Tirapat, C., & McFarland, A. (1983). Flies as a source of enteric pathogens in a rural village in Thailand. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 46(1), 32-36. https://doi. org/10.1128/aem.46.1.32-36.1983
- European Food Safety Authority (EFSA). (2012). Scientific opinion on the minimum hygiene criteria to be applied to clean seawater and on the public health risks and hygiene criteria for bottled seawater intended for domestic use. EFSA Journal, 10(3), 2613. https://doi. org/10.2903/j.efsa.2012.2613
- Egan, M., Raats, M., Grubb, S., Eves, A., Lumbers, M., Dean, M., & Adams, M. (2007). A review of food safety and food hygiene training studies in the commercial sector. Food Control, 18(10), 1180-1190. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2006.08.
- Elgendy, M. Y., Kenawy, A. M., & El-Deen, A. E. N. (2016). Gyrodactylus anguillae and Vibrio vulnificus infections affecting cultured eel, Anguilla anguilla. Comunicata Scientiae, 7(1), 1-11. https://doi. org/10.14295/cs.v7i1.1248
- Epstein, P. R. (1993). Algal blooms in the spread and persistence of cholera. Biosystems, 31(2-3), 209-221. https://doi.org/10.1016/ 0303-2647(93)90050-m
- Food and Drug Administration (FDA). (2021). Guidance for the industry: Fish and fishery products hazards and controls guidance (Appendix 5). FDA.

- Flemming, H.-C., van Hullebusch, E. D., Neu, T. R., Nielsen, P. H., Seviour, T., Stoodley, P., Wingender, J., & Wuertz, S. (2023). The biofilm matrix: Multitasking in a shared space. *Nature Reviews Microbiology*, *21*(2), 70–86. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41579-022-00791-0
- Flemming, H.-C., Wingender, J., Szewzyk, U., Steinberg, P., Rice, S. A., & Kjelleberg, S. (2016). Biofilms: An emergent form of bacterial life. *Nature Reviews Microbiology*, *14*(9), 563–575. https://doi.org/10.1038/nrmicro.2016.94
- Frischkorn, K. R., Stojanovski, A., & Paranjpye, R. (2013). *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* type IV pili mediate interactions with diatom-derived chitin and point to an unexplored mechanism of environmental persistence. *Environmental Microbiology*, *15*(5), 1416–1427. https://doi.org/10.1111/1462-2920.12093
- Fu, S., Wang, Q., Zhang, Y., Yang, Q., Hao, J., Liu, Y., & Pang, B. (2021a). Dynamics and microevolution of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* populations in shellfish farms. *Msystems*, 6(1), e01161-20. https://doi.org/10.1128/msystems.01161-20
- Fu, Y., Peng, H., Liu, J., Nguyen, T. H., Hashmi, M. Z., & Shen, C. (2021b). Occurrence and quantification of culturable and viable but non-culturable (VBNC) pathogens in biofilm on different pipes from a metropolitan drinking water distribution system. Science of the Total Environment, 764, 142851. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.142851
- Fukuda, T., Willis, O. R., & Barnard, D. R. (1997). Parasites of the Asian tiger mosquito and other container-inhabiting mosquitoes (Diptera: Culicidae) in Northcentral Florida. *Journal of Medical Entomology*, 34(2), 226–233. https://doi.org/10.1093/jmedent/34.2. 226
- Fukushima, H., & Seki, R. (2004). Ecology of *Vibrio vulnificus* and *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in brackish environments of the Sada River in Shimane Prefecture, Japan. *FEMS Microbiology Ecology*, 48(2), 221–229. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.femsec.2004.01.009
- Gallego-Hernandez, A. L., DePas, W. H., Park, J. H., Teschler, J. K., Hartmann, R., Jeckel, H., Drescher, K., Beyhan, S., Newman, D. K., & Yildiz, F. H. (2020). Upregulation of virulence genes promotes Vibrio cholerae biofilm hyperinfectivity. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 117(20), 11010–11017. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1916571117
- Gelinas, P., & Goulet, J. (1983). Neutralization of the activity of eight disinfectants by organic matter. *Journal of Applied Microbiology*, 54(2), 243–247. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2672.1983.tb02613.x
- Georgiades, E., Scianni, C., Davidson, I., Tamburri, M. N., First, M. R., Ruiz, G., Ellard, K., Deveney, M., & Kluza, D. (2021). The role of vessel biofouling in the translocation of marine pathogens: Management considerations and challenges. *Frontiers in Marine Science*, 8, 435. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2021.660125
- Ghenem, L., Elhadi, N., Alzahrani, F., & Nishibuchi, M. (2017). Vibrio parahaemolyticus: A review on distribution, pathogenesis, virulence determinants and epidemiology. Saudi Journal of Medicine & Medical Sciences, 5(2), 93. https://doi.org/10.4103/sjmms.sjmms_30_17
- Givens, C., Bowers, J., DePaola, A., Hollibaugh, J., & Jones, J. (2014). Occurrence and distribution of *Vibrio vulnificus* and *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*–potential roles for fish, oyster, sediment and water. *Letters in Applied Microbiology*, *58*(6), 503–510. https://doi.org/10.1111/lam.12226
- Goertz, C. E., Walton, R., Rouse, N., Belovarac, J., Burek-Huntington, K., Gill, V., Hobbs, R., Xavier, C., Garrett, N., & Tuomi, P. (2013).

- Vibrio parahaemolyticus, a climate change indicator in Alaska marine mammals. Responses of Arctic Marine Ecosystems to Climate Change (pp. 41–52). Alaska Sea Grant, University of Alaska Fairbanks.
- Greig, J., & Ravel, A. (2009). Analysis of foodborne outbreak data reported internationally for source attribution. *International Jour*nal of Food Microbiology, 130(2), 77–87. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. ijfoodmicro.2008.12.031
- Haddad, S., Elliot, M., Savard, T., Deschênes, L., Smith, T., & Ells, T. (2021). Variations in biofilms harbouring *Listeria monocytogenes* in dual and triplex cultures with *Pseudomonas fluorescens* and *Lactobacillus plantarum* produced under a model system of simulated meat processing conditions, and their resistance to benzalkonium chloride. *Food Control*, 123, 107720. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2020.107720
- Halpern, M., Broza, Y., Mittler, S., Arakawa, E., & Broza, M. (2004). Chironomid egg masses as a natural reservoir of *Vibrio cholerae* non-O1 and non-O139 in freshwater habitats. *Microbial Ecology*, 47, 341–349. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00248-003-2007-6
- Han, N., Mizan, M. F. R., Jahid, I. K., & Ha, S.-D. (2016). Biofilm formation by *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* on food and food contact surfaces increases with rise in temperature. *Food Control*, 70, 161–166. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2016.05.054
- Hara-Kudo, Y., Kumagai, S., Konuma, H., Miwa, N., Masuda, T., Ozawa, K., & Nishina, T. (2013). Decontamination of Vibrio parahaemolyticus in fish by washing with hygienic seawater and impacts of the high level contamination in the gills and viscera. Journal of Veterinary Science, 75(5), 589–596. https://doi.org/10. 1292/jyms.12-0459
- Hartnell, R., Stockley, L., Keay, W., Rosec, J.-P., Hervio-Heath, D., Van den Berg, H., Leoni, F., Ottaviani, D., Henigman, U., & Denayer, S. (2019). A pan-European ring trial to validate an International Standard for detection of Vibrio cholerae, Vibrio parahaemolyticus and Vibrio vulnificus in seafoods. International Journal of Food Microbiology, 288, 58–65. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2018.02.
- Heisler, J., Glibert, P. M., Burkholder, J. M., Anderson, D. M., Cochlan, W., Dennison, W. C., Dortch, Q., Gobler, C. J., Heil, C. A., & Humphries, E. (2008). Eutrophication and harmful algal blooms: A scientific consensus. *Harmful Algae*, 8(1), 3–13. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hal.2008.08.006
- Hernández-Cabanyero, C., Sanjuán, E., Fouz, B., Pajuelo, D., Vallejos-Vidal, E., Reyes-López, F. E., & Amaro, C. (2020). The effect of the environmental temperature on the adaptation to host in the zoonotic pathogen *Vibrio vulnificus. Frontiers in Microbiology*, 11, 489. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2020.00489
- Høi, L., Larsen, J., Dalsgaard, I., & Dalsgaard, A. (1998). Occurrence of Vibrio vulnificus biotypes in Danish marine environments. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 64(1), 7–13. https://doi.org/10. 1128/AEM.64.1.7-13.1998
- Hossain, Z., Farhana, I., Sultana, R., Begum, A., & Jensen, P. (2018). Fecal contamination hotspots in low-income households in Bangladesh. *International Journal of Infectious Diseases*, 73, 55. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijid.2018.04.3549
- Hossain, Z. Z., Farhana, I., MohanTulsiani, S., Sultana, R., Jensen, P.,& Begum, A. (2016). *Investigation of household contamination of*Vibrio cholerae *in Bangladesh*. ASM Microbe.
- Huq, A., Small, E. B., West, P. A., Huq, M. I., Rahman, R., & Colwell,R. R. (1983). Ecological relationships between *Vibrio cholerae*



- and planktonic crustacean copepods. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 45(1), 275–283. https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.45.1.275-283.1983
- Ibangha, I. I., Digwo, D. C., Ozochi, C. A., Enebe, M. C., Ateba, C. N., & Chigor, V. N. (2023). A meta-analysis on the distribution of pathogenic *Vibrio* species in water sources and wastewater in Africa. *Science of the Total Environment*, 881, 163332. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2023.163332
- Ibusquiza, P. S., Herrera, J. J., Vázquez-Sánchez, D., & Cabo, M. L. (2012). Adherence kinetics, resistance to benzalkonium chloride and microscopic analysis of mixed biofilms formed by *Listeria monocytogenes* and *Pseudomonas putida. Food Control*, 25(1), 202–210. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2011.10.002
- Igbinosa, E. O., & Okoh, A. I. (2008). Emerging Vibrio species: An unending threat to public health in developing countries. Research in Microbiology, 159(7–8), 495–506. https://doi.org/10. 1016/j.resmic.2008.07.001
- Iñiguez-Moreno, M., Gutiérrez-Lomelí, M., & Avila-Novoa, M. G. (2019). Kinetics of biofilm formation by pathogenic and spoilage microorganisms under conditions that mimic the poultry, meat, and egg processing industries. *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, 303, 32–41. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2019.04.
- Jang, F. H., Wong, C., Choo, J., Aun Sia, E. S., Mujahid, A., & Müller, M. (2022). Increased transfer of trace metals and Vibrio sp. from biodegradable microplastics to catfish Clarias gariepinus. Environmental Pollution, 298, 118850. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol. 2022.118850
- Johnson, C. N., Bowers, J. C., Griffitt, K. J., Molina, V., Clostio, R. W., Pei, S., Laws, E., Paranjpye, R. N., Strom, M. S., & Chen, A. (2012). Ecology of Vibrio parahaemolyticus and Vibrio vulnificus in the coastal and estuarine waters of Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, and Washington (United States). Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 78(20), 7249–7257. https://doi.org/10. 1128/AEM.01296-12
- Jones, J. L., Lüdeke, C. H., Bowers, J. C., DeRosia-Banick, K., Carey, D. H., & Hastback, W. (2014). Abundance of Vibrio cholerae, V. vulnificus, and V. parahaemolyticus in Oysters (Crassostrea virginica) and Clams (Mercenaria mercenaria) from Long Island Sound. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 80(24), 7667– 7672. https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.02820-14
- Julie, D., Solen, L., Antoine, V., Jaufrey, C., Annick, D., & Dominique, H. H. (2010). Ecology of pathogenic and non-pathogenic *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* on the French Atlantic coast. Effects of temperature, salinity, turbidity and chlorophyll a. *Environmental Microbiology*, 12(4), 929–937. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1462-2920. 2009.02136.x
- Jung, S.-W. (2018). A foodborne outbreak of gastroenteritis caused by Vibrio parahaemolyticus associated with cross-contamination from squid in Korea. Epidemiology and Health, 40, e2018056. https://doi.org/10.4178/epih.e2018056
- King, N. J., Pirikahu, S., Fletcher, G. C., Pattis, I., Roughan, B., & Perchec Merien, A.-M. (2021). Correlations between environmental conditions and Vibrio parahaemolyticus or Vibrio vulnificus in Pacific oysters from New Zealand coastal waters. New Zealand Journal of Marine and Freshwater Research, 55(3), 393–410. https://doi.org/10.1080/00288330.2020.1796718

- Kirn, T. J., Jude, B. A., & Taylor, R. K. (2005). A colonization factor links *Vibrio cholerae* environmental survival and human infection. *Nature*, 438(7069), 863–866. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature04249
- Kirstein, I. V., Kirmizi, S., Wichels, A., Garin-Fernandez, A., Erler, R., Löder, M., & Gerdts, G. (2016). Dangerous hitchhikers? Evidence for potentially pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. on microplastic particles. *Marine Environmental Research*, 120, 1–8. https://doi.org/10.1016/ j.marenvres.2016.07.004
- Lalitha, P., Suraiya, M. N. S., Lim, K. L., Lee, S. Y., Haslindawaty, A. R. N., Chan, Y. Y., Ismail, A., Zainuddin, Z. F., & Ravichandran, M. (2008). Analysis of lolB gene sequence and its use in the development of a PCR assay for the detection of *Vibrio cholerae*. *Journal of Microbiological Methods*, 75(1), 142–144. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mimet.2008.05.001
- Le Roux, F., Wegner, K. M., Baker-Austin, C., Vezzulli, L., Osorio,
 C. R., Amaro, C., Ritchie, J. M., Defoirdt, T., Destoumieux-Garzón, D., Blokesch, M., Mazel, D., Jacq, A., Cava, F., Gram, L.,
 Wendling, C. C., Strauch, E., Kirschner, A., & Huehn, S. (2015).
 The emergence of Vibrio pathogens in Europe: Ecology, evolution, and pathogenesis (Paris, 11–12th March 2015). Frontiers in Microbiology, 6, 830. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2015.00830
- Lee, J., Bashford, D., Donovan, T., Furniss, A., & West, P. (1982). The incidence of *Vibrio cholerae* in water, animals and birds in Kent, England. *Journal of Applied Microbiology*, *52*(2), 281–291. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2672.1982.tb04852.x
- Leighton, R. E., Vélez, K. E. C., Xiong, L., Creech, A. G., Amirichetty, K. P., Anderson, G. K., Cai, G., Norman, R. S., & Decho, A. W. (2022). Vibrio parahaemolyticus and Vibrio vulnificus in vitro colonization on plastics influenced by temperature and strain variability. Frontiers in Microbiology, 13, 1099502. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2022.1099502
- Letchumanan, V., Chan, K.-G., & Lee, L.-H. (2014). *Vibrio para-haemolyticus*: A review on the pathogenesis, prevalence, and advance molecular identification techniques. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, *5*, 705. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2014.00705
- Li, M., Zhao, L., Ma, J., Zhao, N., Luo, J., Wang, C., Chen, L., Ma, G., Wang, Y., & He, H. (2018). *Vibrio vulnificus* in aquariums is a novel threat to marine mammals and public health. *Transboundary and Emerging Diseases*, 65(6), 1863–1871. https://doi.org/10.1111/tbed. 12967
- Li, X., Sun, J., Zhang, M., Xue, X., Wu, Q., Yang, W., Yin, Z., Zhou, D., Lu, R., & Zhang, Y. (2022). The effect of salinity on biofilm formation and c-di-GMP production in *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*. *Current Microbiology*, 79, 1–6. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00284-021-02723-2
- Lin, Z., Wang, G., Li, S., Zhou, L., & Yang, H. (2022). Dual-species biofilms formed by *Escherichia coli* and *Salmonella* enhance chlorine tolerance. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 88(22), e01482-22. https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.01482-22
- Liu, L., Ge, M., Zheng, X., Tao, Z., Zhou, S., & Wang, G. (2016). Investigation of *Vibrio alginolyticus*, *V. harveyi*, and *V. parahaemolyticus* in large yellow croaker, *Pseudosciaena crocea* (Richardson) reared in Xiangshan Bay, China. *Aquaculture Reports*, *3*, 220–224. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aqrep.2016.04.004
- Liu, Y., Tam, Y. H., Yuan, J., Chen, F., Cai, W., Liu, J., Ma, X., Xie, C., Zheng, C., & Zhuo, L. (2015). A foodborne outbreak of gastroenteritis caused by *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* and norovirus through non-seafood vehicle. *PLoS ONE*, *10*(9), e0137848. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0137848



- Loo, K. Y., Letchumanan, V., Law, J. W. F., Pusparaiah, P., Goh, B. H., Ab Mutalib, N. S., He, Y. W., & Lee, L. H. (2020). Incidence of antibiotic resistance in Vibrio spp. Reviews in Aquaculture, 12(4), 2590-2608. https://doi.org/10.1111/rag.12460
- Lovell, C. R. (2017). Ecological fitness and virulence features of Vibrio parahaemolyticus in estuarine environments. Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology, 101, 1781-1794. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s00253-017-8096-9
- 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.
- Madsen, J. S., Burmølle, M., Hansen, L. H., & Sørensen, S. J. (2012). The interconnection between biofilm formation and horizontal gene transfer. FEMS Immunology & Medical Microbiology, 65(2), 183-195. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-695x.2012.00960.x
- Malcolm, T. T. H., San Chang, W., Loo, Y. Y., Cheah, Y. K., Radzi, C. W. J. W. M., Kantilal, H. K., Nishibuchi, M., & Son, R. (2018). Simulation of improper food hygiene practices: A quantitative assessment of Vibrio parahaemolyticus distribution. International Journal of Food Microbiology, 284, 112-119. https://doi.org/10.1016/ j.ijfoodmicro.2018.08.012
- Malley, T. J., Butts, J., & Wiedmann, M. (2015). Seek and destroy process: Listeria monocytogenes process controls in the ready-toeat meat and poultry industry. Journal of Food Protection, 78(2), 436-445. https://doi.org/10.4315/0362-028x.jfp-13-507
- Martinez-Urtaza, J., Lozano-Leon, A., Varela-Pet, J., Trinanes, J., Pazos, Y., & Garcia-Martin, O. (2008). Environmental determinants of the occurrence and distribution of Vibrio parahaemolyticus in the rias of Galicia, Spain. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 74(1), 265-274. https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.01307-
- McCarthy, S. A., & Khambaty, F. M. (1994). International dissemination of epidemic Vibrio cholerae by cargo ship ballast and other nonpotable waters. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 60(7), 2597–2601. https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.60.7.2597-2601. 1994
- McLandsborough, L., Rodriguez, A., Pérez-Conesa, D., & Weiss, J. (2006). Biofilms: At the interface between biophysics and microbiology. Food Biophysics, 1, 94-114. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11483-005-9004-x
- McLaughlin, J. B., DePaola, A., Bopp, C. A., Martinek, K. A., Napolilli, N. P., Allison, C. G., Murray, S. L., Thompson, E. C., Bird, M. M., & Middaugh, J. P. (2005). Outbreak of Vibrio parahaemolyticus gastroenteritis associated with Alaskan oysters. The New England Journal of Medicine, 353(14), 1463-1470. https://doi. org/10.1056/nejmoa051594
- Meena, B., Anburajan, L., Sini, E. S., Vinithkumar, N. V., & Dharani, G. (2022). Diversity of Vibrio cholerae and prevalence of biomarker genes in the ballast water, Port Blair, South Andaman, India. Ecological Genetics and Genomics, 23, 100112. https://doi.org/10.1016/ j.egg.2022.100112
- Merson, M. H., Hughes, J. M., Lawrence, D. N., Wells, J. G., D'agnese, J. J., & Yashuk, J. C. (1976). Food-and waterborne disease outbreaks on passenger cruise vessels and aircraft. Journal of Food Protection, 39(4), 285-288. https://doi.org/10.4315/0022-2747-39.4.

- Michael Beman, J., Arrigo, K. R., & Matson, P. A. (2005). Agricultural runoff fuels large phytoplankton blooms in vulnerable areas of the ocean. Nature, 434(7030), 211-214. https://doi.org/10.1038/ nature03370
- Miyasaka, J., Yahiro, S., Arahira, Y., Tokunaga, H., Katsuki, K., & Hara-Kudo, Y. (2006). Isolation of Vibrio parahaemolyticus and Vibrio vulnificus from wild aquatic birds in Japan. Epidemiology and Infection, 134(4), 780-785. https://doi.org/10.1017/ s0950268805005674
- Mizan, M. F. R., Ashrafudoulla, M., Sadekuzzaman, M., Kang, I., & Ha. S.-D. (2018). Effects of NaCl, glucose, and their combinations on biofilm formation on black tiger shrimp (Penaeus monodon) surfaces by Vibrio parahaemolyticus. Food Control, 89, 203-209. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2017.12.004
- 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
- Möller, L., Kreikemeyer, B., Luo, Z.-H., Jost, G., & Labrenz, M. (2020). Impact of coastal aquaculture operation systems in Hainan Island (China) on the relative abundance and community structure of Vibrio in adjacent coastal systems. Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf Science, 233, 106542. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecss.2019.106542
- Mougin, J., Copin, S., Bojolly, D., Raguenet, V., Robert-Pillot, A., Quilici, M.-L., Midelet-Bourdin, G., Grard, T., & Bonnin-Jusserand, M. (2019). Adhesion to stainless steel surfaces and detection of viable but non cultivable cells of Vibrio parahaemolyticus and Vibrio cholerae isolated from shrimps in seafood processing environments: Stayin' alive? Food Control, 102, 122-130. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2019.03.024
- Mougin, J., & Joyce, A. (2023). Fish disease prevention via microbial dysbiosis-associated biomarkers in aquaculture. Reviews in Aquaculture, 15(2), 579-594. https://doi.org/10.1111/raq.12745
- Mougin, J., Roquigny, R., Flahaut, C., Bonnin-Jusserand, M., Grard, T., & Le Bris, C. (2021). Abundance and spatial patterns over time of Vibrionaceae and Vibrio harveyi in water and biofilm from a seabass aquaculture facility. Aquaculture, 542, 736862. https://doi. org/10.1016/j.aquaculture.2021.736862
- Mungai, D., Mwatha, W., & Okemo, P. (2002). Salmonella and Vibrio cholerae in Nile perch (Lates niloticus) processing establishments in Kenya. Journal of Tropical Microbiology and Biotechnology, 1(1), 79-88. https://doi.org/10.4314/jtmb.v1i1.35415
- Myers, M. L., Panicker, G., & Bej, A. K. (2003). PCR detection of a newly emerged pandemic Vibrio parahaemolyticus O3: K6 pathogen in pure cultures and seeded waters from the Gulf of Mexico. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 69(4), 2194-2200. https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.69.4.2194-2200.2003
- Ndraha, N., Wong, H. c., & Hsiao, H. I. (2020). Managing the risk of Vibrio parahaemolyticus infections associated with oyster consumption: A review. CRFSFS, 19(3), 1187-1217. https://doi.org/10. 1111/1541-4337.12557
- Newton, A., Kendall, M., Vugia, D. J., Henao, O. L., & Mahon, B. E. (2012). Increasing rates of vibriosis in the United States, 1996-2010: Review of surveillance data from 2 systems. Clinical Infectious Diseases, 54(Suppl_5), S391-S395. https://doi.org/10. 1093/cid/cis243
- Ng, C., Goh, S. G., Saeidi, N., Gerhard, W. A., Gunsch, C. K., & Gin, K. Y. H. (2018). Occurrence of Vibrio species, beta-lactam resistant



- Vibrio species, and indicator bacteria in ballast and port waters of a tropical harbor. Science of the Total Environment, 610, 651-656. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.08.099
- Ngan, W. Y., Rao, S., Chan, L. C., Sekoai, P. T., Pu, Y., Yao, Y., Fung, A. H. Y., & Habimana, O. (2020). Impacts of wet market modernization levels and hygiene practices on the microbiome and microbial safety of wooden cutting boards in Hong Kong. Microorganisms, 8(12), 1941. https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms8121941
- Nishlo, T., Kida, M., & Shimouchi, H. (1969). Carrier rate and duration of carrier state of Vibrio parahaemolyticus in healthy adults. Nihon Densenbvo Gakkai Zasshi, 43(3), 51-58.
- Nogales, B., Lanfranconi, M. P., Piña-Villalonga, J. M., & Bosch, R. (2011). Anthropogenic perturbations in marine microbial communities. FEMS Microbiology Reviews, 35(2), 275-298. https://doi.org/ 10.1111/j.1574-6976.2010.00248.x
- Noorian, P., Hoque, M. M., Espinoza-Vergara, G., & McDougald, D. (2023). Environmental reservoirs of pathogenic Vibrio spp. and their role in disease: The list keeps expanding. Advances in Experimental Medicine and Biology, 1404, 99-126. https://doi.org/10. 1007/978-3-031-22997-8_6
- Ogg, J. E., Ryder, R. A., & Smith, H. L., Jr. (1989). Isolation of Vibrio cholerae from aquatic birds in Colorado and Utah. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 55(1), 95-99. https://doi.org/10.1128/ aem.55.1.95-99.1989
- Okada, K., Roobthaisong, A., Hearn, S. M., Okada, P. A., Doung-Ngern, P., Wongboot, W., Nakkarach, A., Morita, M., Kodama, T., & Iida, T. (2023). Emergence of Vibrio parahaemolyticus serotype O10: K4 in Thailand. Microbiology and Immunology, 67, 201-203. https://doi.org/10.1111/1348-0421.13055
- Oliver, J. D., & Bockian, R. (1995). In vivo resuscitation, and virulence towards mice, of viable but nonculturable cells of Vibrio vulnificus. AEM, 61(7), 2620-2623. https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.61.7.2620-2623,1995
- Ottaviani, D., Leoni, F., Serra, R., Serracca, L., Decastelli, L., Rocchegiani, E., Masini, L., Canonico, C., Talevi, G., & Carraturo, A. (2012). Nontoxigenic Vibrio parahaemolyticus strains causing acute gastroenteritis. Journal of Clinical Microbiology, 50(12), 4141-4143. https://doi.org/10.1128/jcm.01993-12
- Owens, L. (2019). Disease principles. In Aquaculture: Farming aquatic animals and plants (pp. 203-216). Wiley.
- Paranjpye, R. N., Johnson, A. B., Baxter, A. E., & Strom, M. S. (2007). Role of type IV pilins in persistence of Vibrio vulnificus in Crassostrea virginica oysters. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 73(15), 5041-5044. https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.00641-07
- Prescott, J., & Barkovskii, A. L. (2022). In situ dynamics of Vibrio parahaemolyticus and Vibrio vulnificus in water, sediment and triploid Crassostrea virginica oysters cultivated in floating gear. Journal of Applied Microbiology, 132(4), 3343-3354. https://doi.org/ 10.1111/jam.15435
- Pruzzo, C., Vezzulli, L., & Colwell, R. R. (2008). Global impact of Vibrio cholerae interactions with chitin. Environmental Microbiology, 10(6), 1400-1410. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1462-2920.2007.01559.
- Rao, S., Ngan, W. Y., Chan, L. C., Sekoai, P. T., Fung, A. H. Y., Pu, Y., Yao, Y., & Habimana, O. (2021). Questioning the source of identified non-foodborne pathogens from food-contact wooden surfaces used in Hong Kong's urban wet markets. One Health, 13, 100300. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.onehlt.2021.100300

- Ravichandran, S., Singh, A. R., & Veerappan, N. (2001). Parasiteinduced vibriosis in Chirocentrus dorab off Parangipettai coastal waters. Current Science, 80(5), 622-623.
- Revilla-Castellanos, V. J., Guerrero, A., Gomez-Gil, B., Navarro-Barrón, E., & Lizárraga-Partida, M. L. (2015). Pathogenic Vibrio parahaemolyticus isolated from biofouling on commercial vessels and harbor structures. Biofouling, 31(3), 275-282. https://doi.org/ 10.1080/08927014.2015.1038526
- Rice, S. A., McDougald, D., & Kjelleberg, S. (2000). Vibrio vulnificus: A physiological and genetic approach to the viable but nonculturable response. Journal of Infection and Chemotherapy, 6, 115-120. https://doi.org/10.1007/pl00012150
- Rivera, I. N., Souza, K. M., Souza, C. P., & Lopes, R. M. (2013). Free-living and plankton-associated vibrios: Assessment in ballast water, harbor areas, and coastal ecosystems in Brazil. Frontiers in Microbiology, 3, 443. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2012.00443
- Robert-Pillot, A., Copin, S., Himber, C., Gay, M., & Quilici, M.-L. (2014). Occurrence of the three major Vibrio species pathogenic for human in seafood products consumed in France using realtime PCR. International Journal of Food Microbiology, 189, 75-81. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2014.07.014
- Rosa, J. V. D., Conceição, N. V. D., Conceição, R. D. C. D. S. D., & Timm, C. D. (2018). Biofilm formation by Vibrio parahaemolyticus on different surfaces and its resistance to sodium hypochlorite. Ciência Rural, 48, e20180612. https://doi.org/10.1590/0103-8478cr20180612
- Roy, P. K., Mizan, M. F. R., Hossain, M. I., Han, N., Nahar, S., Ashrafudoulla, M., Toushik, S. H., Shim, W.-B., Kim, Y.-M., & Ha, S.-D. (2021). Elimination of Vibrio parahaemolyticus biofilms on crab and shrimp surfaces using ultraviolet C irradiation coupled with sodium hypochlorite and slightly acidic electrolyzed water. Food Control, 128, 108179. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2021. 108179
- Ruiz, G. M., Rawlings, T. K., Dobbs, F. C., Drake, L. A., Mullady, T., Huq, A., & Colwell, R. R. (2000). Global spread of microorganisms by ships. Nature, 408(6808), 49-50. https://doi.org/10.1038/ 35040695
- Sampaio, A., Silva, V., Poeta, P., & Aonofriesei, F. (2022). Vibrio spp.: Life strategies, ecology, and risks in a changing environment. Drivers, 14, 97.
- Sathiyamurthy, K., Baskaran, A., & Kumar, S. D. (2013). Prevalence of Vibrio cholerae and other vibrios from environmental and seafood sources, Tamil Nadu, India. Microbiology Research Journal International, 3(4), 538-549.
- Scarano, C., Spanu, C., Ziino, G., Pedonese, F., Dalmasso, A., Spanu, V., & Virdis, S. (2014). Antibiotic resistance of Vibrio species isolated from Sparus aurata reared in Italian mariculture. New Microbiologica, 37(3), 329-337. https://hdl.handle.net/11568/
- Seelman, S. L., Whitney, B. M., Stokes, E. K., Elliot, E. L., Griswold, T., Patel, K., Bloodgood, S., Jones, J. L., Cripe, J., & Cornell, J. (2023). An outbreak investigation of Vibrio parahaemolyticus infections in the United States linked to crabmeat imported from Venezuela: 2018. Foodborne Pathogens and Disease, 20, 123-131. https://doi. org/10.1089/fpd.2022.0078
- Shen, X., Cai, Y., Liu, C., Liu, W., Hui, Y., & Su, Y.-C. (2009). Effect of temperature on uptake and survival of Vibrio parahaemolyticus in oysters (Crassostrea plicatula). International Jour-



- nal of Food Microbiology, 136(1), 129-132. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. ijfoodmicro.2009.09.012
- Shikuma, N. J., & Hadfield, M. G. (2010). Marine biofilms on submerged surfaces are a reservoir for Escherichia coli and Vibrio cholerae. Biofouling, 26(1), 39-46. https://doi.org/10.1080/ 08927010903282814
- Silva, M. M., Maldonado, G. C., Castro, R. O., de Sá Felizardo, J., Cardoso, R. P., dos Anjos, R. M., & de Araújo, F. V. (2019). Dispersal of potentially pathogenic bacteria by plastic debris in Guanabara Bay, RJ, Brazil. Marine Pollution Bulletin, 141, 561-568. https://doi. org/10.1016/i.marpolbul.2019.02.064
- Sobrinho, P. d. S. C., Destro, M. T., Franco, B. D., & Landgraf, M. (2010). Correlation between environmental factors and prevalence of Vibrio parahaemolyticus in oysters harvested in the southern coastal area of Sao Paulo State, Brazil. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 76(4), 1290-1293. https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM. 00861-09
- Song, X., Ma, Y., Fu, J., Zhao, A., Guo, Z., Malakar, P. K., Pan, Y., & Zhao, Y. (2017). Effect of temperature on pathogenic and non-pathogenic Vibrio parahaemolyticus biofilm formation. Food Control, 73, 485-491. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2016.08.
- Spaur, M., Davis, B. J., Kivitz, S., DePaola, A., Bowers, J. C., Curriero, F. C., & Nachman, K. E. (2020). A systematic review of postharvest interventions for Vibrio parahaemolyticus in raw oysters. Science of the Total Environment, 745, 140795. https://doi.org/10. 1016/j.scitotenv.2020.140795
- Sun, C., Teng, J., Wang, D., Zhao, J., Shan, E., & Wang, Q. (2023). The adverse impact of microplastics and their attached pathogen on hemocyte function and antioxidative response in the mussel Mytilus galloprovincialis. Chemosphere, 325, 138381. https://doi. org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2023.138381
- Taha, M., & Mohamed, T. S. (2020). Isolation and genomic characterization of phiVibrioH1 a myoviridae phage for controlling pathogenic Vibrio parahaemolyticus from seafood and human. Egyptian Journal of Medical Microbiology, 55(1), 1–12. https://dx. doi.org/10.21608/ejm.2020.15606.1111
- Takemura, A. F., Chien, D. M., & Polz, M. F. (2014). Associations and dynamics of Vibrionaceae in the environment, from the genus to the population level. Frontiers in Microbiology, 5, 38. https://doi. org/10.3389/fmicb.2014.00038
- Tamplin, M. L., Gauzens, A. L., Huq, A., Sack, D. A., & Colwell, R. (1990). Attachment of Vibrio cholerae serogroup O1 to zooplankton and phytoplankton of Bangladesh waters. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 56(6), 1977-1980. https://doi.org/10. 1128/aem.56.6.1977-1980.1990
- Tan, C. W., Rukayadi, Y., Hasan, H., Abdul-Mutalib, N.-A., Jambari, N. N., Hara, H., Thung, T. Y., Lee, E., & Radu, S. (2021). Isolation and characterization of six Vibrio parahaemolyticus lytic bacteriophages from seafood samples. Frontiers in Microbiology, 12, 616548. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2021.616548
- Teng, J., Wang, Q., Ran, W., Wu, D., Liu, Y., Sun, S., Liu, H., Cao, R., & Zhao, J. (2019). Microplastic in cultured oysters from different coastal areas of China. Science of the Total Environment, 653, 1282-1292. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.11.057
- Teschler, J. K., Nadell, C. D., Drescher, K., & Yildiz, F. H. (2022). Mechanisms underlying Vibrio cholerae biofilm formation and dispersion. Annual Review of Microbiology, 76, 503-532. https:// doi.org/10.1146/annurev-micro-111021-053553

- Tey, Y. H., Jong, K.-J., Fen, S.-Y., & Wong, H.-C. (2015). Occurrence of Vibrio parahaemolyticus, Vibrio cholerae, and Vibrio vulnificus in the aquacultural environments of Taiwan. Journal of Food Protection, 78(5), 969-976. https://doi.org/10.4315/0362-028x.jfp-
- Theethakaew, C., Feil, E. J., Castillo-Ramírez, S., Aanensen, D. M., Suthienkul, O., Neil, D. M., & Davies, R. L. (2013). Genetic relationships of Vibrio parahaemolyticus isolates from clinical, human carrier, and environmental sources in Thailand, determined by multilocus sequence analysis. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 79(7), 2358-2370, https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.03067-12
- Thickman, J. D., & Gobler, C. J. (2017). The ability of algal organic matter and surface runoff to promote the abundance of pathogenic and non-pathogenic strains of Vibrio parahaemolyticus in Long Island Sound, USA. PLoS ONE, 12(10), e0185994. https://doi.org/ 10.1371/journal.pone.0185994
- Trinanes, J., & Martinez-Urtaza, J. (2021). Future scenarios of risk of Vibrio infections in a warming planet: A global mapping study. The Lancet Planetary Health, 5(7), e426-e435. https://doi.org/10. 1016/s2542-5196(21)00169-8
- Valiente, E., Padrós, F., Lamas, J., Llorens, A., & Amaro, C. (2008). Microbial and histopathological study of the vibriosis caused by Vibrio vulnificus serovar E in eels: The metalloprotease Vvp is not an essential lesional factor. Microbial Pathogenesis, 45(5-6), 386-393. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.micpath.2008.09.001
- Velez, K. E. C., Leighton, R. E., Decho, A. W., Pinckney, J. L., & Norman, R. S. (2023). Modeling pH and temperature effects as climatic hazards in Vibrio vulnificus and Vibrio parahaemolyticus planktonic growth and biofilm formation. GeoHealth, 7(4), e2022GH000769. https://doi.org/10.1029/2022gh000769
- Vezzulli, L., Colwell, R. R., & Pruzzo, C. (2013). Ocean warming and spread of pathogenic Vibrios in the aquatic environment. Microbial Ecology, 65(4), 817–825. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00248-012-0163-
- Vezzulli, L., Grande, C., Reid, P. C., Hélaouët, P., Edwards, M., Höfle, M. G., Brettar, I., Colwell, R. R., & Pruzzo, C. (2016). Climate influence on Vibrio and associated human diseases during the past half-century in the coastal North Atlantic. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 113(34), E5062-E5071. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1609157113
- Vezzulli, L., Pezzati, E., Brettar, I., Höfle, M., & Pruzzo, C. (2015). Effects of global warming on Vibrio ecology. Microbiology Spectrum, 3(3), 18. https://doi.org/10.1128/microbiolspec.ve-0004-2014
- Wang, D., Fletcher, G. C., On, S. L., Palmer, J. S., Gagic, D., & Flint, S. H. (2023). Biofilm formation, sodium hypochlorite susceptibility and genetic diversity of Vibrio parahaemolyticus. International Journal of Food Microbiology, 385, 110011. https://doi.org/10.1016/ j.ijfoodmicro.2022.110011
- Wang, D., Flint, S. H., Palmer, J. S., Gagic, D., Fletcher, G. C., & On, S. L. (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, D., Yu, S., Chen, W., Zhang, D., & Shi, X. (2010). Enumeration of Vibrio parahaemolyticus in oyster tissues following artificial contamination and depuration. Letters in Applied Microbiology, 51(1), 104–108. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1472-765x.2010.02865.x
- Wang, W., Li, M., & Li, Y. (2015). Intervention strategies for reducing Vibrio parahaemolyticus in seafood: A review. Journal of Food Science, 80(1), R10-R19. https://doi.org/10.1111/1750-3841.12727



- Watkins, W., & Cabelli, V. J. (1985). Effect of fecal pollution on *Vibrio* parahaemolyticus densities in an estuarine environment. *Applied* and *Environmental Microbiology*, 49(5), 1307–1313. https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.49.5.1307-1313.1985
- Wetz, J. J., Blackwood, A. D., Fries, J. S., Williams, Z. F., & Noble, R. T. (2008). Trends in total *Vibrio* spp. and *Vibrio vulnificus* concentrations in the eutrophic Neuse River Estuary, North Carolina, during storm events. *Aquatic Microbial Ecology*, *53*(1), 141–149. https://doi.org/10.3354/ame01223
- Wetz, J. J., Blackwood, A. D., Fries, J. S., Williams, Z. F., & Noble, R. T. (2014). Quantification of *Vibrio vulnificus* in an estuarine environment: A multi-year analysis using QPCR. *Estuaries* and Coasts, 37, 421–435. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12237-013-9682-4
- World Health Organization (WHO). (2008). Foodborne disease outbreaks: Guidelines for investigation and control. World Health Organization.
- Worden, A. Z., Seidel, M., Smriga, S., Wick, A., Malfatti, F., Bartlett, D., & Azam, F. (2006). Trophic regulation of *Vibrio cholerae* in coastal marine waters. *Environmental Microbiology*, 8(1), 21–29. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1462-2920.2005.00863.x
- Wright, A. C., Hill, R. T., Johnson, J. A., Roghman, M.-C., Colwell, R. R., & Morris, J. G., Jr. (1996). Distribution of *Vibrio vulnificus* in the Chesapeake Bay. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, *62*(2), 717–724. https://doi.org/10.1128/aem.62.2.717-724.1996
- Xiao, X., Pang, H., Wang, W., Fang, W., Fu, Y., & Li, Y. (2018). Modeling transfer of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* during peeling of raw shrimp. *Journal of Food Science*, 83(3), 756–762. https://doi.org/10.1111/1750-3841.14064
- Xu, M., Yamamoto, K., Honda, T., & Xu, M. (1994). Construction and characterization of an isogenic mutant of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* having a deletion in the thermostable direct hemolysin-related hemolysin gene (trh). *Journal of Bacteriology*, *176*(15), 4757–4760. https://doi.org/10.1128/jb.176.15.4757-4760.1994
- Xu, Q., Wang, P., Huangleng, J., Su, H., Chen, P., Chen, X., Zhao, H., Kang, Z., Tang, J., & Jiang, G. (2022). Co-occurrence of chromophytic phytoplankton and the *Vibrio* community during *Phaeocystis globosa* blooms in the Beibu Gulf. *Science of the Total Environment*, 805, 150303. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2021. 150303
- Xu, W., Gong, L., Yang, S., Gao, Y., Ma, X., Xu, L., Chen, H., & Luo, Z. (2020). Spatiotemporal dynamics of *Vibrio* communities and abundance in Dongshan Bay, South of China. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 11, 575287. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2020.575287

- Yang, Q., Wang, Q., Wu, J., Zhang, Y., Wei, D., Qu, B., Liu, Y., & Fu, S. (2022). Distinct dynamics of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* populations in two farming models. *Journal of Applied Microbiology*, 133(3), 1146–1155. https://doi.org/10.1111/jam.15217
- Yap, K. L., Kalpana, M., & Lee, H. L. (2008). Wings of the common house fly (*Musca domestica* L.): Importance in mechanical transmission of *Vibrio cholerae*. *Tropical Biomedicine*, 25(1), 1–8.
- Yildiz, F. H., & Visick, K. L. (2009). Vibrio biofilms: So much the same yet so different. Trends in Microbiology, 17(3), 109–118. https://doi. org/10.1016/j.tim.2008.12.004
- Yoon, J.-H., & Lee, S.-Y. (2022). Characteristics of viable-butnonculturable *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* induced by nutrientdeficiency at cold temperature. *Critical Reviews in Food Science* and Nutrition, 60(8), 1302–1320. https://doi.org/10.1080/10408398. 2019.1570076
- Yu, H., & Rhee, M. S. (2023). Characterization of ready-to-eat fish surface as a potential source of contamination of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* biofilms. *Food Research International*, *169*, 112890. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2023.112890
- Zanin, L. M., da Cunha, D. T., Stedefeldt, E., & Capriles, V. D. (2015). Seafood safety: Knowledge, attitudes, self-reported practices and risk perceptions of seafood workers. *Food Research International*, 67, 19–24. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2014.10.013
- Zeng, J., Lin, Y., Zhao, D., Huang, R., Xu, H., & Jiao, C. (2019). Seasonality overwhelms aquacultural activity in determining the composition and assembly of the bacterial community in Lake Taihu, China. Science of the Total Environment, 683, 427–435. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2019.05.256
- Zha, F., Pang, R., Huang, S., Zhang, J., Wang, J., Chen, M., Xue, L., Ye, Q., Wu, S., & Yang, M. (2023). Evaluation of the pathogenesis of non-typical strain with α -hemolysin, *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* 353, isolated from Chinese seafood through comparative genome and transcriptome analysis. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, *186*, 114276. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2022.114276

How to cite this article: Brauge, T., Mougin, J., Ells, T., & Midelet, G. (2024). Sources and contamination routes of seafood with human pathogenic *Vibrio* spp.: A *Farm-to-Fork* approach. *Comprehensive Reviews in Food Science and Food Safety*, *23*, 1–25.

https://doi.org/10.1111/1541-4337.13283