Occurrence in Mexico, 1998–2008, of *Vibrio cholerae* CTX⁺ El Tor carrying an additional truncated CTX prophage

Munirul Alam^a, Shah Manzur Rashed^a, Shahnewaj Bin Mannan^a, Tarequl Islam^a, Marcial Leonardo Lizarraga-Partida^b, Gabriela Delgado^c, Rosario Morales-Espinosa^c, Jose Luis Mendez^c, Armando Navarro^c, Haruo Watanabe^d, Makoto Ohnishi^d, Nur A. Hasan^{e,f}, Anwar Huq^e, R. Bradley Sack^g, Rita R. Colwell^{e,f,g,h,1}, and Alejandro Cravioto^a

^aInternational Center for Diarrheal Disease Research, Bangladesh (icddr,b), Mohakhali, Dhaka 1212, Bangladesh; ^bCentro de Investigación Científica y de Educación Superior de Ensenada, 22860 Ensenada, Baja California, Mexico; ^cFaculty of Medicine, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Mexico City 04510, Mexico; ^dNational Institute of Infectious Diseases, Shinjuku, Tokyo 162-8640, Japan; ^eMaryland Pathogen Research Institute, University of Maryland, College Park, MD 20742; ^fCosmosID, College Park, MD 20742; ^gJohns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health, The Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD 21205; and ^hCenter for Bioinformatics and Computational Biology, University of Maryland Institute for Advanced Computer Studies, University of Maryland, College Park, MD 20742

Contributed by Rita R. Colwell, February 24, 2014 (sent for review June 4, 2013)

The seventh cholera pandemic caused by Vibrio cholerae O1 El Tor (ET) has been superseded in Asia and Africa by altered ET possessing the cholera toxin (CTX) gene of classical (CL) biotype. The CL biotype of V. cholerae was isolated, along with prototypic and altered ET, during the 1991 cholera epidemic in Mexico and subsequently remained endemic until 1997. Microbiological, molecular, and phylogenetic analyses of clinical and environmental V. cholerae isolated in Mexico between 1998 and 2008 revealed important genetic events favoring predominance of ET over CL and altered ET. V. cholerae altered ET was predominant after 1991 but not after 2000. V. cholerae strains isolated between 2001 and 2003 and a majority isolated in 2004 lacked CTX prophage (Φ) genes encoding CTX subunits A and B and repeat sequence transcriptional regulators of ET and CL biotypes: i.e., $CTX\Phi^-$. Most $CTX\Phi^-$ V. cholerae isolated in Mexico between 2001 and 2003 also lacked toxin coregulated pili tcpA whereas some carried either tcpA^{ET} or a variant tcpA with noticeable sequence dissimilarity from tcpA^{CL}. The *tcpA* variants were not detected in 2005 after CTX Φ^+ ET became dominant. All clinical and environmental V. cholerae O1 strains isolated during 2005–2008 in Mexico were CTX Φ^+ ET, carrying an additional truncated CTX Φ instead of RS1 satellite phage. Despite V. cholerae CTX Φ^- ET exhibiting heterogeneity in pulsedfield gel electrophoresis patterns, CTX Φ^+ ET isolated during 2004– 2008 displayed homogeneity and clonal relationship with V. cholerae ET N16961 and V. cholerae ET isolated in Peru.

The causative agent of cholera, *Vibrio cholerae*, is a genetically versatile bacterial species for which more than 200 serogroups have been identified and for which significant lateral transfer of genes has been demonstrated. Pandemic cholera is generally caused by toxigenic strains of *V. cholerae* serogroups O1 and O139. *V. cholerae* O1 has been divided into two biotypes, classical (CL) and El Tor (ET), differing primarily in phenotypic traits and distinct signature genome sequences (1). Of seven cholera pandemics recorded since 1817, the sixth and presumably the earlier pandemics have been caused by CL biotype (1). *V. cholerae* ET biotype was first recognized in 1905, but not until 1961 was it considered the causative agent of the seventh cholera pandemic, during which the CL biotype was no longer isolated from cholera cases in Asia.

Although cholera has been endemic in Asia for centuries and sporadic cases have been recorded in the Americas, the presence of *V. cholerae* CL biotype as the causative agent of cholera in the Americas has not been clarified. A massive epidemic of cholera occurred in South America during 1991–1992, first reported in Peru in January 1991, after which cholera appeared in other countries of Latin America, notably Mexico, by June 1991. Although the characteristic features of the Latin American strains of *V. cholerae* O1 biotype ET distinguished them from seventh pandemic *V. cholerae* ET isolated in Asia (2), clonal relatedness led some investigators to conclude that the 1991 Latin American cholera epidemic was simply an extension of the seventh pandemic from the Western hemisphere (3).

A significant recent development in cholera epidemiology has been the emergence of toxigenic variant strains of V. cholerae ET carrying traits of the CL biotype isolated in Asia and Africa (4, 5). Genetic changes in Latin American strains of V. cholerae have been described and the Peruvian V. cholerae O1 isolated between 1991 and 2003 has been shown to be similar to the ET of the seventh pandemic prototype, carrying a distinct signature in the VSP-II region that distinguished it from the Asian ET prototype (6). A recent study of V. cholerae isolated between 1991 and 1997 from diarrhea patients and surface water sources in Mexico showed both CL and ET biotype strains were present, along with the altered ET involved in epidemic cholera globally (7). In this study, V. cholerae isolated between 1998 and 2008 from diarrheal patients and the aquatic environment in Mexico was characterized, using microbiological, molecular, and phylogenetic techniques to elucidate events leading to the outbreaks of cholera in Mexico.

Significance

Vibrio cholerae classical (CL) biotype was isolated, along with biotype El Tor (ET) and altered ET carrying the cholera toxin (CTX) gene of CL biotype, during the 1991 cholera epidemic in Mexico, subsequently becoming endemic until 1997. Microbiological, molecular, and phylogenetic analyses of *V. cholerae* isolated from both clinical and environmental samples during 1998–2008 confirm important genetic events, namely predominance of ET over CL and altered ET in Mexico. Although altered ET is predominantly associated with cholera globally, progression of CTX⁺ *V. cholerae* ET with truncated CTX prophage to the predominant pathogen causing endemic cholera in Mexico may prove to be yet another key historical point in the global epidemiology of cholera.

Author contributions: M.A., H.W., A.H., R.B.S., R.R.C., and A.C. designed research; M.A., S.M.R., S.B.M., T.I., and N.A.H. performed research; M.L.L.-P., G.D., R.M.-E., J.L.M., A.N., H.W., M.O., A.H., R.B.S., R.R.C., and A.C. contributed new reagents/analytic tools; M.A., S.M.R., S.B.M., T.I., N.A.H., and A.C. analyzed data; and M.A., S.M.R., T.I., H.W., M.O., N.A.H., A.H., R.B.S., R.R.C., and A.C. wrote the paper.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Freely available online through the PNAS open access option.

Data deposition: The sequence reported in this paper of the \sim 1,200-bp amplicon for the cepF/rstRETR primers has been deposited in the GenBank database (accession no. KC952008).

¹To whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail: rcolwell@umiacs.umd.edu.

This article contains supporting information online at www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10. 1073/pnas.1323408111/-/DCSupplemental.

CrossMark

Results

Source and Distribution of Cholera Cases and V. cholerae in Mexico. V. cholerae was isolated from hospitalized diarrheal patients and from surface water sources (Table 1) collected from nearly every province of Mexico, including those bordering the United States in the north and Guatemala in the south (Fig. 1). Of 91 V. cholerae isolates included in this study, all produced characteristic colonies on taurocholate tellurite gelatin agar, reacted to polyvalent O1 antisera, were agglutinated by either monovalent Inaba or Ogawa antisera, and amplified primers for the O-biosynthetic gene wbe (O1), confirming all to be serogroup O1. Among these 91 V. cholerae O1, 48 were Inaba and 43 Ogawa (Table 1). The ctxA gene was present in 58 strains, confirming CTX⁺ V. cholerae O1 (Table 1) and 33 were confirmed CTX⁻.

Phenotypic and Related Genotypic Characteristics. Phenotypic and related genetic characteristics of *V. cholerae* O1 strains are presented in Table 1. All *V. cholerae* O1 strains were resistant to CL biotype-specific phage IV, all but 11 were responsive to El Tor (ET)-specific phage V, and all showed ET-specific phenotypic traits, including the ability to agglutinate chicken blood cells

(CCA) and resistance to polymyxin B (poly-B). The V. cholerae strains amplified primers for repeat in toxin rtxC, an ET-specific marker gene, and ET-specific hemolysin $hlyA^{\text{ET}}$ (Table 1). All but 13 amplified primers for tcpA, 74 amplified primers for $tcpA^{\text{ET}}$, and 4 for $tcpA^{\text{CL}}$ (Table 1). Of 58 CTX⁺ strains, 16 amplified primers for $tcpA^{\text{CL}}$, $rstR^{\text{ET}}$, and $rstR^{\text{CL}}$, indicating V. cholerae altered (variant) ET, as reported previously (7). All altered ET and two ET (prototype) strains amplified primers specific for phage encoded antirepressor rstC of the RS1 satellite phage flanking ET CTX Φ . Forty-two CTX⁺ strains amplified primers for $rstR^{\text{ET}}$ and $ctxB^{\text{ET}}$, confirming V. cholerae ET of seventh pandemic prototype, of which 40 failed to amplify rstC of the RS1 element. Thirty-three V. cholerae ET strains lacked ctxA, ctxB, and rstR, suggesting major genetic truncation, of which 13 lacked tcpA ($tcpA^{\text{ET}}$) or CL-specific tcpA ($tcpA^{\text{CL}}$) in their ET biotype background.

Year-wise analysis showed that most of the clinical *V. cholerae* strains isolated between 1998 and 2004 were Ogawa (Table 1), with Inaba dominant among the environmental isolates. Inaba was the only serotype isolated in Mexico between 2005 and 2008. The three *V. cholerae* strains isolated in 1998 and four in 1999

Table 1. Phenotypic and genotypic characteristics of *V. cholerae* O1 strains (n = 91) isolated from clinical and environmental samples collected in Mexico (1998–2008)

Year of isolation	No. of isolates	Serotype	Source	Phenotypic properties				Genetic screening by PCR									_
				Chick cell aggl	Poly B (50U)	Phage IV CL	Phage V ET	ompW	wbeO1	ctxA	<i>CtxB</i> type*	<i>tcpA</i>	rtxC	hlyA	rstC	<i>rstR</i> type	Deduced biotype
1998	3	Ogawa	Hum.	+	R	R	S	+	+	+	С	Е	Е	Е	+	E,C	Alt-ET
1999	4	Ogawa	Hum.	+	R	R	S	+	+	+	С	Е	Е	Е	+	E,C	Alt-ET
	5	Ogawa	Hum.	+	R	R	S	+	+	-	-	Е	Е	Е	-	-	ET
	1	Ogawa	Hum.	+	R	R	R	+	+	-	-	Е	Е	Е	-	_	ET
	1	Inaba	Hum.	+	R	R	S	+	+	-	-	Е	Е	Е	-	-	ET
2000	2	Ogawa	Hum.	+	R	R	S	+	+	+	Е	Е	Е	Е	+	Е	ET
	8	Ogawa	Hum.	+	R	R	S	+	+	+	С	Е	Е	Е	+	E,C	Alt-ET
	1	Ogawa	Hum.	+	R	R	R	+	+	+	С	Е	Е	Е	+	E,C	Alt-ET
	1	Ogawa	Hum.	+	R	R	S	+	+	-	-	Е	Е	Е	-	_	ET
	4	Inaba	Env.	+	R	R	S	+	+	-	-	-	Е	Е	-	-	ET
2001	1	Ogawa	Hum.	+	R	R	S	+	+	-	-	Е	Е	Е	-	-	ET
	2	Ogawa	Env.	+	R	R	S	+	+	-	-	Е	Е	Е	-	_	ET
	2	Ogawa	Env.	+	R	R	S	+	+	-	-	С	Е	Е	-	-	TCP-Var
	3	Ogawa	Env.	+	R	R	R	+	+	-	-	-	Е	Е	-	-	ET
	1	Inaba	Env.	+	R	R	R	+	+	-	-	-	Е	Е	-	-	ET
2002	1	Ogawa	Hum.	+	R	R	S	+	+	-	-	-	Е	Е	-	-	ET
	1	Ogawa	Hum.	+	R	R	S	+	+	-	-	Е	Е	Е	-	-	ET
	1	Inaba	Env.	+	R	R	S	+	+	-	-	Е	Е	Е	-	-	ET
2003	1	Ogawa	Hum.	+	R	R	S	+	+	-	-	-	Е	Е	-	-	ET
	1	Ogawa	Env.	+	R	R	S	+	+	-	-	_	Е	Е	-	_	ET
	1	Inaba	Env.	+	R	R	S	+	+	-	-	_	Е	Е	-	_	ET
	1	Ogawa	Env.	+	R	R	S	+	+	-	-	С	Е	Е	-	_	TCP-Var
2004	1	Ogawa	Hum.	+	R	R	S	+	+	-	-	С	Е	Е	-	-	TCP-Var
	1	Ogawa	Hum.	+	R	R	R	+	+	-	-	-	Е	Е	-	-	ET
	3	Ogawa	Env.	+	R	R	S	+	+	-	-	Е	Е	Е	-	_	ET
	4	Inaba	Env.	+	R	R	S	+	+	+	Е	Е	Е	Е	-	Е	ET
2005	10	Inaba	Env.	+	R	R	S	+	+	+	Е	Е	Е	Е	_	Е	ET
2006	11	Inaba	Env.	+	R	R	S	+	+	+	Е	Е	Е	Е	_	Е	ET
2007	1	Inaba	Hum.	+	R	R	S	+	+	+	Е	Е	Е	Е	_	Е	ET
	3	Inaba	Hum.	+	R	R	R	+	+	+	Е	Е	Е	Е	_	Е	ET
	2	Inaba	Env.	+	R	R	S	+	+	+	Е	Е	Е	Е	_	Е	ET
2008	8	Inaba	Env.	+	R	R	S	+	+	+	Е	Е	Е	Е	_	Е	ET
	1	Inaba	Env.	+	R	R	R	+	+	+	Е	Е	Е	Е	_	Е	ET
N16961	ET	Inaba	Hum.	+	R	R	S	+	+	+	Е	Е	Е	Е	+	Е	El Tor
O395	CL	Ogawa	Hum.	-	S	S	R	+	+	+	С	С	-	С	-	С	Classical

Alt, altered; C, classical; Chick cell aggl, chicken cell agglutination; CL, classical biotype; E, El Tor; Env., environment; ET, El Tor biotype; Hum., human; Poly B, polymixin B; R, resistant; S, sensitive; TCP-Var, TCP-variant; +, positive; –, negative.

*Determined by mismatch amplification mutation assay (MAMA) PCR (38).



Fig. 1. Geographic map of Mexico showing provinces and locations near the Gulf of Mexico where samples from human and environmental sources were collected and tested for *V. cholerae* O1 as part of a national surveillance between 1991 and 2008.

were $CTX\Phi^+$ altered ET whereas the remaining seven isolated in 1999 were $CTX\Phi^-$ ET. *V. cholerae* $CTX\Phi^+$ altered ET was isolated in 2000 in relatively larger proportions, together with *V. cholerae* ET strains with and without the $CTX\Phi$, but, thereafter, $CTX\Phi^+$ *V. cholerae* was not consistently isolated from clinical cases (Table 1). *V. cholerae* O1 biotype ET isolated between 2001 and 2003 lacked $CTX\Phi$. However, most remarkable was the isolation in 2004 of $CTX\Phi^+$ *V. cholerae* ET, and, thereafter, between 2005 and 2008, all Mexican isolates were the $CTX\Phi^+$ *V. cholerae* ET seventh pandemic prototype (Table 1).

Chronologically, the majority of $CTX\Phi^{-}V$. cholerae ET isolated in 1999 and 2000 possessed ET biotype tcpA (Table 1), and all ET strains isolated during 2001 and thereafter were $CTX\Phi^{-}$. The majority of $CTX\Phi^{-}V$. cholerae isolated in Mexico between 2001 and 2003 lacked tcpA whereas some $CTX\Phi^{-}V$. cholerae carried the tcpA allele of either ET or CL type in an ET host; the latter were designated TCP variant. Only V. cholerae $CTX\Phi^{-}$ ET was isolated from environmental sources between 2001 and 2003. V. cholerae $CTX\Phi^{-}$ ET was no longer isolated in Mexico after 2004, indicating clonal switching. During 2005–2008, $CTX\Phi^{+}V$. cholerae O1 ET Inaba was the dominant serotype (Table 1). The Mexican $CTX\Phi^{+}V$. cholerae O1 ET isolated during 2005–2008 exhibited phenotypic and molecular traits of the seventh pandemic prototype.

Nucleotide Sequencing of Targeted Genes. Data on the *ctxB* (460 bp) sequence of $CTX\Phi^+$ strains from each year class (1998–2008) showed that altered ET strains isolated before 2004 presented amino acid sequences identical to CL biotype CT (*ctxB* genotype 1), with histidine and threonine at positions 39 and 68, respectively. However, *ctxB* sequences of ET strains isolated in 2004 and thereafter matched ET biotype CT (*ctxB* genotype 3): i.e., the cholera toxin type of seventh cholera pandemic strains.

Genome Organization of CTX Φ and Flanking Region. The Mexican CTX Φ^+ ET strains isolated between 2004 and 2008 failed to amplify *rstC* of the RS1 element. To follow up on this finding, representative ET biotype-specific $ctxB^{\text{ET}}$ and $rstR^{\text{ET}}$ were tested for genetic arrangements in CTX Φ and its flanking region by primer walking. Results showed that, unlike ET reference strain N16961, none of the *rstC*-negative strains amplified the ~1.6 kb and 2.1 kb targeted RS1 sequences primed by *rstA*-F/*rstC*-R and *rstR*^{ET}-F/*rstC*-R, respectively (Table S1), confirming the absence of RS1 in the genome of the Mexican V. cholerae ET strains.

Thus, the Mexican V. cholerae ET lacked RS1, a characteristic of the CL biotype observed in ET variant strains from Bangladesh

and Mozambique (8). A PCR assay was performed using primers CIIF and CIIR targeting *dif2* (9) to determine the presence of CTX Φ in the small chromosome (Chr II). As shown in Table S1, all strains possessed an ~747-bp amplicon, suggesting the absence of CTX Φ in Chr II. Because the ET strains were CTX Φ^+ , primer sets ctxAF/RTX5R and TLC3F/rstAR were used to locate the exact position of CTX Φ . As shown in Table S1, amplification of ~1.4-kb and 1.8-kb DNA fragments, respectively, confirmed CTX Φ to be present in the large chromosome (Chr I). The presence or absence of CTX Φ tandem repeat was determined using the primer pair ctxBF/cepR. This amplicon was not found using template DNA prepared from the Mexican strains (Table S1), indicating that a tandem repeat of CTX Φ was not present in either chromosome.

Primer sets cepF/rstR^{ET}R, cepF/rstAR, and cepF/rstBR were used to detect truncated CTXΦ at the upstream region of CTXΦ for strains lacking RS1. All yielded amplicons, ~1.2 kb, 2.2 kb, and 2.7 kb for cepF/rstR^{ET}R, cepF/rstAR, and cepF/rstBR primers, respectively, as did CL reference strain O395, confirming the presence of a truncated CTXΦ at the upstream region of CTX. DNA sequence analysis of the ~1.2-kb amplicon, using cepF/rstR^{ET}R primers, confirmed the presence of a truncated *orfU* subunit (453 bp) within the truncated CTXΦ. Thus, the results showed that *V. cholerae* O1 ET strains isolated in Mexico between 2004 and 2008 had a truncated CTXΦ, in addition to CTX prophage, in the large chromosome, with neither an RS1 element nor a tandem array of CTX prophage. A schematic genetic map displaying the deduced chromosomal localization of CTXΦ and its flanking genetic region is provided in Fig. 2.

Sequencing and Phylogenetic Analysis of *tcpA*. The results of DNA sequencing of the *tcpA*^{ET} allele of the Mexican ET strains possessing only ET type *tcpA* showed that the sequences were identical to reference ET N16961(accession no. AF536868.1). The nucleotide sequences of *tcpA*^{CL} of four *V. cholerae* ET strains (TCP variant ET, Mex-2174, Mex-3358, Mex-3065, and Mex-2058) were identical, with 81% sequence homology with reference CL and 74% with ET biotype *tcpA* alleles. The nucleotide sequence of the *tcpA*^{CL} allele of the Mexican *V. cholerae* ET strains matched exactly the *tcpA* sequence in GenBank for nontoxigenic *V. cholerae* O1 ZJ59 (accession no. EU622531) and LN93094 (accession no. AF512422) reported from China. The deduced amino acid sequences revealed substitutions at positions 74 [valine to isoleucine (V \rightarrow I)], 99 [proline to serine (P \rightarrow S)], 145 [alanine to glycine (A \rightarrow G)], and 189 [threonine to alanine (T \rightarrow A)], suggesting genetic differences from CL, ET, and other types of *tcpA* alleles described previously (10).

A phylogenetic tree was constructed using *tcpA* sequences of the two Mexican strains (Mex-2058 and Mex-3065) together with *tcpA* gene sequences from GenBank (Fig. S1). The Mexican and Chinese strains with analogous *tcpA* sequences formed a separate cluster to the 10 clusters for *tcpA* alleles reported to date (11). Overall, results of the analysis clearly indicate that *tcpA* of Mex-2058 and Mex-3065 have a lineage distinct from the seventh pandemic ET.

PFGE and Cluster Analysis. The results of genomic fingerprinting determined by pulsed-field gel electrophoresis (PFGE) showed Mexican *V. cholerae* ET strains carrying $tcpA^{\text{ET}}$, and ET biotype-specific CTX-prophage marker genes yielded an overall banding pattern characteristic of seventh pandemic ET N16961 (Fig. 3). *V. cholerae* CTX Φ^- ET and TCP variants differed significantly from the signature PFGE banding patterns of the CTX Φ^+ ET isolated in Mexico between 1998 and 2008.

Cluster analysis, performed using PFGE patterns of *Not*Idigested genomic DNA, separated genetically heterogeneous CTX Φ^- ET and TCP variants from pre- and post-2004 (1991 and 2008) *V. cholerae* ET, the latter comprising a cluster with Peruvian *V. cholerae* ET and *V. cholerae* N16961. The Mexican CTX Φ^+ *V. cholerae* ET strains (1991–2008) formed a tight cluster including ET N16961 and closely linked to *V. cholerae* ET strains from Peru.



Fig. 2. Genetic mapping of CTX Φ lacking RS1 in *V. cholerae* O1 biotype El Tor strains isolated in Mexico during 2004–2008. The deduced genetic organization shows integration of an additional truncated CTX Φ in the upstream region of the CTX Φ in the large chromosome (Chr I) of *V. cholerae* whereas the *dif2* site in the small chromosome did not harbor CTX Φ . Arrows indicate transcription directions of each of the genes in the CTX Φ and flanking regions. The map is without a scale bar. *rstR*^{ET} (blue arrow), El Tor type *rtsR*; *ctxB*^{ET} (green arrow), El Tor type *ctxB*; *orfU* (red box), truncated *orfU* subunit; TLC, toxin-linked cryptic; RTX, repeat in toxin. Locations of primers are also shown.

Discussion

Reports of the emergence and pandemic spread of an altered V. cholerae El Tor (ET) suggest that the pattern of global cholera is changing, a phenomenon that appears to be occurring in Mexico, where the V. cholerae CL biotype of pre-1991 cholera has been isolated, as well as altered V. cholerae ET, the latter dominant among V. cholerae CL and ET biotype progenitors associated with cholera outbreaks between 1991 and 1997 (7). To date, the CL biotype may no longer be associated with human disease in Mexico; and altered ET, previously considered the major cause of endemic cholera (7), was no longer isolated after the emergence in 2000 and predominance of the $CTX\Phi^-$ population, including a unique TCP variant of *V. cholerae* ET. Characterization of V. cholerae population in subsequent years (2004-2008) suggests another major clonal shift, with the emergence and predominance of a $CTX^{+} V$. cholerae O1 ET lacking the RS1 element, with a truncated CTX Φ in the upstream region of the $CTX\Phi$ in the large chromosome.

Although the V. cholerae ET strains varied in PCR primer amplification for ctxB, tcpA, and rstR biotype-specific alleles (12, 13), overall serobiotyping results confirmed that the strains were a V. cholerae O1 ET seventh pandemic prototype. The genetic transitions in Asia from V. cholerae biotypes CL to ET (14) and ET prototype to altered ET are considered chronological events occurring in the 1980s and in 2001, respectively (4, 15, 16). In Mexico, both V. cholerae CL and ET biotype progenitors were isolated during cholera outbreaks, together with altered ET, dominant between 1991 and 1997 (7). The consistent association of V. cholerae CL, ET, and altered ET with local cholera outbreaks in the Americas between 1991 and 1997 and their occurrence in the natural aquatic environment, together with non-O1 phenotypically and genetically O1 CL, suggest that the emergence of altered V. cholerae ET has occurred locally in Mexico (7, 17) and is not clonal expansion from endemic regions of Asia (14), as has been proposed for Africa (5). According to our data, V. cholerae altered ET was not isolated in Mexico after 2000 nor was the CL biotype reported in Mexico until 1997 (7). However, V. cholerae altered ET continues to be routinely isolated from clinical cholera cases in Asia and Africa (4, 5, 15, 18), and both are reported to be capable of causing a more severe disease (19) and of spreading globally (20). The clonal shift observed in this study may well have implications for global cholera, considering that altered ET strains, such as those isolated from cholera cases in Asia and Africa, are dominant pandemic pathogens (5, 18, 20, 21).

The toxin coregulated pili (TCP), a receptor for lysogenic CTX Φ (22), is encoded by a 40-kb gene cluster, *Vibrio* pathogenicity island (VPI) (23). Like CTX Φ , TCP is biotype-specific, with two distinct alleles of *tcpA* encoding the major protein

"pilin" (10, 11). In Mexico, the TCP variant of V. cholerae O1 strains carries a tcpA sequence that is different from tcpA types reported to date, including CL and ET (10, 11), although an analog of the Mexican type tcpA deposited in GenBank is from a nontoxigenic O1, reportedly isolated in 2006 from China. V. cholerae O1 strains from Mexico carrying the variant tcpA are nontoxigenic. Thus, nontoxigenic O1 strains with this tcpA can occur in geographically different ecosystems, namely Mexico and China.

As in the case of lysogenic CTX Φ that propagate by infecting susceptible nontoxigenic strains of both *V. cholerae* and *Vibrio mimicus* (22, 23), converting the host to CTX Φ^+ , excision can also occur, transforming the host to CTX Φ^- (24). In the present study, *V. cholerae* O1 strains isolated in Mexico during 2000– 2004 were predominantly CTX Φ^- , TCP⁻. Although VPI is known to be horizontally transferred in *V. cholerae* (25), it is not generally considered a virion. In any case, CTX Φ^- , TCP⁻ *V. cholerae* in Mexico can be considered to have originated from a toxigenic progenitor via excision of both CTX Φ and VPI.

Bacterial clonal switching in V. cholerae can have a profound epidemiological influence (14, 19). Factors playing a role in clonal selection can be biotic, abiotic, or both, in natural aquatic ecosystems where V. cholerae is an autochthonous presence (24, 26, 27). In the study reported here, a unique clonal shift was observed whereby toxigenic V. cholerae O1 in Mexico was replaced, starting in 2001, with CTXΦ-, TCP- V. cholerae and superseded by toxigenic V. cholerae in 2005. It can be hypothesized that nontoxigenic V. cholerae in the aquatic environment will outnumber pathogenic strains when fecal-oral transmission is brought under control by application of stringent public health measures, as was done following the 1991-1997 epidemics in Mexico (7, 17, 28). Also important to note is that many bacterial pathogens including V. cholerae become nonculturable after release from human host into the aquatic environment, becoming noncompetitive with environmental V. cholerae, a phenomenon that may have occurred in Mexico between 2001 and 2004 (26, 27). An alternative hypothesis is that the predominance of a toxigenic or nontoxigenic clone may occur if phages provide selective advantage to a V. cholerae subpopulation (27, 29)

Nontoxigenic V. cholerae O1 is associated with a mild but rather broad spectrum of human disease. A clinical link for nontoxigenic V. cholerae O1 ET was first reported by the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) between 1977 and 1991 (30). During the past three decades, there have been reports of isolation of nontoxigenic V. cholerae O1 from clinical, sewage, oyster, and surface-water samples collected in several countries, including Bangladesh, Guam, Brazil, Peru, Japan, England, the United States, and Mexico (7, 30). $CT^{-}V$. cholerae O1 strains occur sporadically as the causative agent of cholera outbreaks, but not at as high a frequency as in Mexico between 2000 and 2004. It is important to note that nontoxigenic V. cholerae O1 was associated with a large cluster of cases of cholera in India (31). In addition to V. cholerae O1 CT⁻ strains, currently available data suggest that a significant proportion of non-O1 strains possessing CT or non-O1-specific heat-stable enterotoxin (NAG-ST) are associated with cases of diarrhea (32).

In toxigenic V. cholerae O1 ET and O139 Bengal strains, the CTX Φ genome often is flanked by satellite phage RS1 carrying genes *rstA*, *rstB*, *rstC*, and *rstR* that determine integration of plasmids transporting portions of CTX Φ into the bacterial genome (23). The RS2 genetic element also is a satellite phage but differs from RS1 in lacking *rstC* (22). V. cholerae O1 CL biotype CTX prophages lack RS elements and exist either as a solitary prophage or as arrays of two truncated, fused prophages (8). V. cholerae O1 ET and O139 Bengal strains carrying RS1 generally yield infectious CTX Φ , but CL biotype strains do not. V. cholerae altered ET carrying the *ctxB* allele of the CL biotype recently was reported to have been isolated in Bangladesh (Matlab variant) and Mozambique (Mozambique variant), lacking RS1 (8, 18). Pathogenic V. cholerae ET strains isolated in Mexico between 2004 and 2008 lack RS1, but, unlike the Matlab and Mozambique



Fig. 3. Dendrogram of PFGE patterns of *V. cholerae* O1 prototype ET and transitional CTX⁻ ET possessing TCP of ET or CL biotype. S-B type, sero-biotype. The tight clustering of Mexican *V. cholerae* O1 prototype ET strains indicates clonality whereas CTX⁻ ET and transitional TCP variants of ET demonstrate heterogeneous patterns, indicating divergence. Peruvian prototype ET strains clustered differently from Mexican prototype *V. cholerae* ET (not identical because differentiating regional signatures were observed in the patterns). Alt-ET, altered ET; INET, Inaba ET; OGET, Ogawa ET; Pro-ET, prototype ET.

variants (8, 18), the *ctxB* allele of these strains is an ET biotype. In addition, ET biotype strains isolated in Mexico during 2004–2008 exhibited a novel genetic array, with a truncated CTX prophage instead of RS1 element in the upstream region of the ET-specific CTX Φ located in the large chromosome (Chr I) of *V. cholerae*. It has been proposed that gene capture via plasmids or phages contributes to rapid adaptation and evolution in *V. cholerae* (33), a probable situation in Mexico, with clonal CTX⁺ ET displacing all other preexisting subtypes (7). Although the epidemiological significance of the newly emerged *V. cholerae* CTX⁺ ET in Mexico is yet to be understood, the truncated CTX Φ upstream could surrogate RS elements in facilitating replication of the lysogenic CTX Φ genome, producing infectious phage particles.

An aquatic reservoir of *V. cholerae* in the Americas has previously been documented, including association of *V. cholerae* with plankton in coastal waters of Peru and Mexico (26, 28, 34). Although the *V. cholerae* ET isolates causing epidemic cholera in Latin America in 1991 were initially considered to be homogeneous (3), divergence was demonstrated soon thereafter (2, 35, 36). Divergence was clearly evident among *V. cholerae* ET in Peru (6) and Mexico, and *V. cholerae* associated with the 1991 epidemic and subsequent endemic cholera in Mexico comprises a diverse population of serogroup O1 strains, including biotypes CL and ET, together with altered variant ET (7). *V. cholerae* O1 endemic cholera along the Gulf of Mexico coast after 1997 recently has been confirmed, with changes in ribosomal patterns separating strains into two distinct chronological groups, those isolated before and after 1997. Results presented here are in agreement with those of Lizarraga-Partida et al. (28), who described a new CTX prophage⁻ *V. cholerae* lineage emerging shortly after 1997 in Mexico and continuing to displace pre-existing *V. cholerae* O1 CL and ET strains, including altered ET strains (7). The CTX⁺ *V. cholerae* ET with a truncated CTX prophage isolated during endemic cholera in Mexico may prove to be a historical point in the global epidemiology of cholera.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial Strains. *Vibrio cholerae* O1 strains included in the present study (n = 91) together with source, location, and year of isolation (Table 1), were provided by the Department of Public Health, Faculty of Medicine, National Autonomous University of Mexico (UNAM) and Centro de Investigación Científica y de Educación Superior de Ensenada. The strains were isolated from cholera patients (n = 36) and from surface-water samples (n = 55) as part of a nationwide cholera surveillance program conducted between 1998 and 2008. These isolates were identified as *V. cholerae* using a combination of biochemical and molecular procedures, as described previously (24).

Serogroup Analysis. *V. cholerae* strains were screened serologically by slide agglutination, using polyvalent antisera specific for *V. cholerae* O1 or O139, followed by monoclonal antibody specific for each serogroup (1). Serogroups were reconfirmed using polyvalent O1 and monovalent Inaba and Ogawa antisera (7).

Biotype Analysis. *V. cholerae* O1 strains were screened for chicken erythrocyte agglutination, sensitivity to polymyxin B, and Mukerjee classical (CL)specific phage IV, and Mukerjee El Tor (ET)-specific phage V (1).

Storage. All *V. cholerae* strains were subcultured on gelatin agar (GA), and a single representative colony from each GA plate was inoculated into T1N1 broth (1% Trypticase and 1% NaCl), incubated at 37 °C for 4–6 h, and stored at –80 °C with 15% (vol/vol) glycerol for future use.

Complementation of Serogrouping and Biotyping Results by PCR Assays. Genomic DNA was extracted from each of the *V. cholerae* strains following previously described methods (7). *V. cholerae* strains identified primarily by phenotypic characteristics were reconfirmed by PCR for species-specific *ompW* (7). Serogroup-specific O biosynthetic *wbe*O1, *wbf*O139, and cholera toxin subunit A encoding *ctxA* were also examined by multiplex PCR (37). Furthermore, PCR targeting biotype-specific genetic markers, including *tcpA* (CL or ET), *hlyA* (CL or ET), and *rstR* (CL or ET) (13), were performed to complement phenotypic test results. Mismatch amplification mutation assay (MAMA)-PCR was performed to determine biotype-specific *ctxB*, as described previously (38).

DNA Sequencing of *ctxB* and *tcpA*. Nucleotide sequencing of *ctxB* and *tcpA* of randomly selected representative strains was carried out using an ABI PRISM BigDye Terminator Cycle Sequencing Reaction kit (Perkin-Elmer Applied Biosystems) on an ABI PRISM 310 automated sequencer, as described previously (4). Nucleotide sequences were compared with the corresponding sequences of *V. cholerae* ET N16961 (GenBank accession no. NC_002505.1), and *V. cholerae* CL 0395 (GenBank accession no. CP001235.1), retrieved from GenBank by Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST).

Genetic Analysis of CTX Φ and Flanking Region. Mexican *V. cholerae* ET strains possessing $ctxB^{\text{ET}}$ and $rstR^{\text{ET}}$ and unable to amplify rstC of the RS1 element were further analyzed using primers rstAF/rstCR targeting the RS1 element (39). *V. cholerae* N16961, possessing RS1 downstream of CTX Φ , and *V. cholerae* O395, lacking RS1, were used as controls, considering that N16961 has CTX Φ only in the large chromosome, whereas O395 possesses CTX Φ in both the large and small chromosomes. The genetic structure of CTX Φ and its flanking region in representative EI Tor strains harboring $ctxB^{\text{ET}}$ and $rstR^{\text{ET}}$ was analyzed using similar primers and primer walking and sequencing as described previously (39, 40). Primers cepF/rstR^{ET}R, cepF/rstAR, and cepF/rstR were used to detect truncated CTX Φ in strains lacking RS1 element and tandem repeat of CTX Φ prophage. The ~1,200-bp amplicon for the cepF/rstR^{ET}R primers was sequenced for confirmation of truncated CTX Φ and subsequently was deposited in GenBank under accession no. KC952008.

Phylogenetic Analysis of tcpA. To determine the genetic relatedness of tcpA in the Mexican V. cholerae O1 strains, tcpA of representative ET, CL, and TCP variants was sequenced, using primers and PCR conditions as described previously (11). Multiple sequence alignment of trimmed tcpA (600 bp, encoding mature protein) and phylogenetic analysis of tcpA alleles were done using the ClustalW multiple alignment program and the Molecular Evolutionary Genetic Analysis program, version 5.05 (MEGA5), respectively. TcpA sequences of two Mexican strains (Mex-2058 and Mex-3065) were used for construction of a phylogenetic tree with 33 tcpA sequences, of which 31 were of serogroup O1 and non-O1/non-O139 from a previous study (11), and two of nontoxigenic O1 strains from China (ZJ59 and LN93097, accession nos. EUG22531 and AF512425, respectively, in GenBank). A neighbor-joining tree with 1,000 bootstrap was generated to determine the phylogenetic relationships on the basis of tcpA sequences.

Pulsed-Field Gel Electrophoresis. Agarose-embedded genomic DNA was prepared from each of the *V. cholerae* strains. Genomic DNA was digested by *Not*l restriction enzyme (GIBCO-BRL). *Salmonella braenderup* DNA digested by *Xbal* served as molecular size markers. PFGE was carried out using a contour-clamped homogeneous electrical field (CHEF-DRII) apparatus

- 1. Kaper JB, Morris JG, Jr., Levine MM (1995) Cholera. Clin Microbiol Rev 8(1):48-86.
- 2. Evins GM, et al. (1995) The emerging diversity of the electrophoretic types of Vibrio cholerae in the Western Hemisphere. J Infect Dis 172(1):173–179.
- 3. Wachsmuth IK, et al. (1993) The molecular epidemiology of cholera in Latin America. J Infect Dis 167(3):621–626.
- Nair GB, et al. (2006) Cholera due to altered El Tor strains of Vibrio cholerae O1 in Bangladesh. J Clin Microbiol 44(11):4211–4213.
- Safa A, Sultana J, Dac Cam P, Mwansa JC, Kong RY (2008) Vibrio cholerae O1 hybrid El Tor strains, Asia and Africa. Emerg Infect Dis 14(6):987–988.
- Nusrin S, et al. (2009) Peruvian Vibrio cholerae O1 El Tor strains possess a distinct region in the Vibrio seventh pandemic island-II that differentiates them from the prototype seventh pandemic El Tor strains. J Med Microbiol 58(Pt 3):342–354.
- Alam M, et al. (2010) Cholera between 1991 and 1997 in Mexico was associated with infection by classical, El Tor, and El Tor variants of Vibrio cholerae. J Clin Microbiol 48(10):3666–3674.
- Chun J, et al. (2009) Comparative genomics reveals mechanism for short-term and long-term clonal transitions in pandemic Vibrio cholerae. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 106(36):15442–15447.
- Boyd EF (2010) Efficiency and specificity of CTXphi chromosomal integration: Dif makes all the difference. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 107(9):3951–3952.
- Mukhopadhyay AK, Chakraborty S, Takeda Y, Nair GB, Berg DE (2001) Characterization of VPI pathogenicity island and CTXphi prophage in environmental strains of Vibrio cholerae. J Bacteriol 183(16):4737–4746.
- Kumar P, Thulaseedharan A, Chowdhury G, Ramamurthy T, Thomas S (2011) Characterization of novel alleles of toxin co-regulated pilus A gene (tcpA) from environmental isolates of Vibrio cholerae. *Curr Microbiol* 62(3):758–763.
- 12. Keasler SP, Hall RH (1993) Detecting and biotyping Vibrio cholerae O1 with multiplex polymerase chain reaction. Lancet 341(8861):1661 (lett).
- Kimsey HH, Nair GB, Ghosh A, Waldor MK (1998) Diverse CTXphis and evolution of new pathogenic Vibrio cholerae. *Lancet* 352(9126):457–458.
- Siddique AK, et al. (1991) Survival of classic cholera in Bangladesh. Lancet 337(8750): 1125–1127.
- Nair GB, et al. (2002) New variants of Vibrio cholerae O1 biotype El Tor with attributes of the classical biotype from hospitalized patients with acute diarrhea in Bangladesh. J Clin Microbiol 40(9):3296–3299.
- Raychoudhuri A, et al. (2009) Classical ctxB in Vibrio cholerae O1, Kolkata, India. Emerg Infect Dis 15(1):131–132.
- 17. Alam M, et al. (2012) Vibrio cholerae classical biotype strains reveal distinct signatures in Mexico. J Clin Microbiol 50(7):2212–2216.
- Ansaruzzaman M, et al.; Mozambique Cholera vaccine Demonstration Project Coordination Group (2004) Cholera in Mozambique, variant of Vibrio cholerae. Emerg Infect Dis 10(11):2057–2059.
- Siddique AK, et al. (2010) El Tor cholera with severe disease: A new threat to Asia and beyond. *Epidemiol Infect* 138(3):347–352.
- 20. Chin CS, et al. (2011) The origin of the Haitian cholera outbreak strain. N Engl J Med 364(1):33–42.
- Islam MS, et al. (2011) Phenotypic, genotypic, and antibiotic sensitivity patterns of strains isolated from the cholera epidemic in Zimbabwe. J Clin Microbiol 49(6): 2325–2327.
- 22. Waldor MK, Mekalanos JJ (1996) Lysogenic conversion by a filamentous phage encoding cholera toxin. *Science* 272(5270):1910–1914.

(Bio-Rad), following procedures described elsewhere (6, 41). Gel fingerprint patterns were analyzed using the Bionumeric Software Package (Applied Maths). After background subtraction and gel normalization, fingerprint patterns were subjected to typing based on banding similarity and dissimilarity, using Dice similarity coefficient and Unweighted Pair Group Method with Arithmetic Mean (UPGMA) clustering, as recommended by the manufacturer. Results are graphically represented as a dendrogram.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. This research was supported in part by National Institutes of Health Grant 1R01A13912901, under collaborative agreements between the Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health, the University of Maryland, College Park, and the International Center for Diarrheal Disease Research, Bangladesh (icddr,b); by the National Institute of Infectious Diseases (NIID), Tokyo; and by National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Grant SO66009. The icddr,b acknowledges the following donors who provide unrestricted support to the center's research efforts: the Australian Agency for International Development (AusAID), the government of Bangladesh, the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA), and the United Kingdom Department for International Development (DFID).

- Faruque SM, Rahman MM, Asadulghani, Nasirul Islam KM, Mekalanos JJ (1999) Lysogenic conversion of environmental Vibrio mimicus strains by CTXPhi. Infect Immun 67(11):5723–5729.
- Alam M, et al. (2007) Viable but nonculturable Vibrio cholerae O1 in biofilms in the aquatic environment and their role in cholera transmission. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 104(45):17801–17806.
- Karaolis DKR, et al. (1998) A Vibrio cholerae pathogenicity island associated with epidemic and pandemic strains. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 95(6):3134–3139.
- Colwell R, Spira W (1992) The ecology of Vibrio cholerae. Cholera, eds Barua D, Greenough WI (Plenum, New York), pp 107–127.
- Nelson EJ, Harris JB, Morris JG, Jr., Calderwood SB, Camilli A (2009) Cholera transmission: The host, pathogen and bacteriophage dynamic. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 7(10): 693–702.
- 28. Lizárraga-Partida ML, et al. (2009) Association of Vibrio cholerae with plankton in coastal areas of Mexico. *Environ Microbiol* 11(1):201–208.
- Nelson EJ, et al. (2008) Transmission of Vibrio cholerae is antagonized by lytic phage and entry into the aquatic environment. *PLoS Pathog* 4(10):e1000187.
- Rodrigue DC, Popovic T, Wachsmuth IK (1994) Vibrio Cholerae and Cholera: Molecular to Global Perspectives, eds Wachsmuth IK, Blake PA, Olsvik Ø (ASM Press, Washington, DC), pp 69–76.
- Saha PK, et al. (1996) Nontoxigenic Vibrio cholerae 01 serotype Inaba biotype El Tor associated with a cluster of cases of cholera in southern India. J Clin Microbiol 34(5): 1114–1117.
- Bagchi K, et al. (1993) Epidemic of diarrhea caused by Vibrio cholerae non-O1 that produced heat-stable toxin among Khmers in a camp in Thailand. J Clin Microbiol 31(5):1315–1317.
- Manning PA, Clark CA, Focareta T (1999) Gene capture in Vibrio cholerae. Trends Microbiol 7(3):93–95.
- Gil AI, et al. (2004) Occurrence and distribution of Vibrio cholerae in the coastal environment of Peru. Environ Microbiol 6(7):699–706.
- Dalsgaard A, et al. (1997) Molecular evolution of Vibrio cholerae O1 strains isolated in Lima, Peru, from 1991 to 1995. J Clin Microbiol 35(5):1151–1156.
- Beltrán P, et al. (1999) Genetic diversity and population structure of Vibrio cholerae. J Clin Microbiol 37(3):581–590.
- Hoshino K, et al. (1998) Development and evaluation of a multiplex PCR assay for rapid detection of toxigenic Vibrio cholerae O1 and O139. FEMS Immunol Med Microbiol 20(3):201–207.
- Morita M, et al. (2008) Development and validation of a mismatch amplification mutation PCR assay to monitor the dissemination of an emerging variant of Vibrio cholerae O1 biotype El Tor. *Microbiol Immunol* 52(6):314–317.
- 39. Mohapatra SS, Mantri CK, Turabe Fazil MH, Singh DV (2011) Vibrio cholerae O1 biotype El Tor strains isolated in 1992 from Varanasi, India harboured El Tor CTXΦ and classical ctxB on the chromosome-I and classical CTXΦ and classical ctxB on the chromosome-II. Environ Microbiol Rep 3(6):783–790.
- 40. Nguyen BM, et al. (2009) Cholera outbreaks caused by an altered Vibrio cholerae O1 El Tor biotype strain producing classical cholera toxin B in Vietnam in 2007 to 2008. *J Clin Microbiol* 47(5):1568–1571.
- Cameron DN, Khambaty FM, Wachsmuth IK, Tauxe RV, Barrett TJ (1994) Molecular characterization of Vibrio cholerae O1 strains by pulsed-field gel electrophoresis. J Clin Microbiol 32(7):1685–1690.