# Cholera toxin gene polymerase chain reaction for detection of non-culturable *Vibrio cholerae* O1

J.A.K. Hasan, M.A.R. Chowdhury, M. Shahabuddin, A. Huq, L. Loomis, and R.R. Colwell\*

Cholera enterotoxin is a major antigenic determinant for virulence of Vibrio cholerae O1 which can enter into a viable but non-culturable (N-C) state, not detectable by conventional culture methods, yet remain capable of producing enterotoxin and potentially pathogenic. PCR was applied in the current study to detect the cholera toxin (*ctx*) gene of N-C cells, thus eliminating the necessity of culture. Sets of oligonucleotide primers were designed, based on the *ctx*AB operon of *V. cholerae* O1, to detect the presence of the *ctx* gene. DNA from both culturable and N-C cells of *V. cholerae* O1 was amplified by PCR using sets of primers flanking 302-, 564- and 777-bp fragments of the *ctx* gene. The PCR method employed was capable of detecting the *ctx* gene in N-C *V. cholerae* in aquatic microcosms and in diarrheal stool samples from three patients who had distinct clinical symptoms of cholera but were culture-negative for *V. cholerae* O1 and non-O1 and enterotoxigenic *Escherichia coli*. Forty cycles of a two-step reaction (30 s each at 94 and 60°C) were optimal and more time efficient than a three-step PCR described previously. The procedure, from the point of heating microcosms or broth culture samples to observation on gels, requires < 4 h to complete.

Key words: Cholera toxin, non-culturable, PCR, Vibrio cholerae.

*Vibrio cholerae* O1, the causative agent of cholera epidemics worldwide, continues to present a major threat for many developing countries, including those in Latin America (Williams 1992). From results of a series of microcosms and field studies, it is now known that *V. cholerae* enters into a viable but non-culturable (N-C) state under certain environmental conditions, whereby the cells cannot be propagated by conventional culture methods, yet remain capable of producing enterotoxin and retain pathogenicity (Tamplin & Colwell 1986; Colwell *et al.* 1989). Colwell *et al.* (1990) reported the recovery of *V. cholerae* O1 from stool samples of human volunteers fed with non-culturable cells and concluded that human passage can be effective in triggering outgrowth of dormant, i.e. N-C, *V. cholerae* in the aquatic environment. Temperature can play a major role in the

entry of Vibrio species into the N-C state. Although a temperature shift can cause an apparent resuscitation of culturable cells (Nilsson et al. 1991), this recovery seems to be due, at least in part, to regrowth of a small number of cells which do not enter the N-C state (Weichart et al. 1992). Although the resuscitation mechanism is not yet clearly understood, the potential public health hazard presented by such vibrios may be significant. The inability to detect such cells, either in the natural environment or in clinical specimens, by conventional bacteriological methods is a serious problem, especially since any detection method that is devised must be capable of detecting low numbers of specific cells amongst large numbers of prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells and other organic material. PCR offers a powerful tool for detecting N-C cells (Brauns et al. 1991) by allowing a specific segment of DNA to be speedily amplified by a factor of 10° or more, thereby permitting detection of cells present in small numbers. Since PCR depends only on the presence of target DNA, it can be used to detect the cholera toxin (ctx) gene in a method unaffected by the culturability of the vibrio cells.

Oligonucleotide primers and amplification conditions for

J.A.K. Hasan, A. Huq, M.A.R. Chowdhury, and R.R. Colwell are with the Department of Microbiology, University of Maryland, College Park, MD, USA. M. Shahabuddin is with the National Institute of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA. L. Loomis is with New Horizons Diagnostics Corporation, Columbia, MD, USA. \* R.R. Colwell, corresponding author, is also with the University of Maryland Biotechnology Institute, 4321 Hartwick Road, Room 550 College Park, MD 20740, USA; fax: 301-454-8123 (to which correspondence should be addressed).

<sup>© 1994</sup> Rapid Communications of Oxford Ltd

PCR detection of the *ctx* gene, a major antigenic determinant of *V. cholerae* O1, have been reported elsewhere (Shirai *et al.* 1991; Fields *et al.* 1992; Koch *et al.* 1993). We report here the detection of *ctx* gene by PCR in samples containing N-C cells of *V. cholerae* O1.

# **Materials and Methods**

## Bacterial Strain

A classical Inaba strain of V. cholerae O1 (569B; ATCC 25870) was used in this study. The strain was stored at  $-70^{\circ}$ C in Trypticase soy (TS) broth containing 12% glycerol and maintained on TS agar slants (Difco) at 25°C.

## Stool Samples

A total of 77 diarrheal stool specimens was collected from patients who had been admitted to the hospital of International Centre for Diarrhoeal Disease Research, Bangladesh (ICDDR,B) and who were suspected of having cholera. Three of the patients yielded specimens that were negative for culturable enteric bacterial pathogens but exhibited clinical symptoms of cholera. These three stool specimens were examined using PCR for detection of the *ctx* gene.

Each stool specimen (100  $\mu$ l) was centrifuged at 13,000  $\times$  g for 2 to 3 min, resuspended in 100  $\mu$ l distilled-deionized water and heated at 95°C for 10 min. The specimen was then recentrifuged at 13,000  $\times$  g for 2 to 3 min and the supernatant collected and used as DNA template.

## Laboratory Microcosms

Microcosms of *V. cholerae* O1 were prepared and maintained in two 1-l acid-washed Erlenmeyer flasks to obtain viable but nonculturable cells. Filtered (O.2- $\mu$ m pore) and autoclaved Potomac River water (300 ml) was added to each of the flasks. Washed cells of *V. cholerae* O1 were used as inoculum to minimize the amount of available nutrient in the flasks; the cells were grown for 18 h at 35°C in T<sub>1</sub>N<sub>1</sub> (1% trypticase and 1% Nacl), harvested by centrifugation at 1,000 × **g** for 15 min, washed three times with sterile physiological saline (0.85% NaCl) and resuspended in saline at a concentration of about 10<sup>8</sup> c.f.u./ml. The microcosms were inoculated to obtain an initial cell concentration of about 10<sup>6</sup> c.f.u./ ml and then maintained at 4°C, with rotary agitation (100 rev/ min).

## Enumeration Techniques

Specimens were collected aseptically for bacterial enumeration from the microcosms immediately after inoculation and every other day for 10 days. Bacterial cells were enumerated directly, using acridine orange direct counting (AODC) to obtain the total number of bacteria present in the microcosms (Hobbie et al. 1977). The number of culturable bacteria was determined by spread plating on TS agar. Viable bacterial counts were done using the 2-(p-iodophenyl)-3-(p-nitrophenyl)-5-phenyltetrazolium chloridedirect viable count (INT-DVC) method (Hasan et al. 1991). In brief, a 1-ml sub-sample from each flask was amended with nalidixic acid, yeast extract and an aqueous solution of INT dye (Sigma) to final concentrations (w/v) of 0.002%, 0.025% and 0.02% respectively. The samples were incubated for 4 h at 35°C, with rotary agitation (100 rev/min) and fixed with 2% (w/v) filtered formalin. The substrate-responsive, elongated cells showing intracellular deposits were counted, after staining with acridine orange.

## PCR

PCR was carried out as described by Shirai et al. (1991) with modification as follows. Three sets of oligonucleotide primers, flanking 302-, 564- and 777-bp sequences within the ctx gene, were synthesized (Table 1). One ml samples, either from the microcosm containing N-C V. cholerae or from TS broth containing culturable V. cholerae O1 cells, were centrifuged. Each pellet was resuspended in 100  $\mu$ l distilled deionized water and heated at 94°C for 5 min. To 49.5 µl of each suspension, 10 µl buffer (100 ти Tris HCl, pH 8.3, 500 тм KCl, 15 тм MgCl<sub>2</sub> 0.01% (w/v) gelatin), 10  $\mu$ l of each primer, 20  $\mu$ l of deoxynucleoside triphosphate mix (containing 0.5 mм dATP, 0.5 mм dCTP, 0.5 mм dTTP, and 0.5 mm dGTP) and 0.5  $\mu$ l (2.5 units) of Tag DNA polymerase were added to a final volume of 100  $\mu$ l. The mixture was overlaid with 50  $\mu$ l of mineral oil and amplification was performed in a programmable Perkin-Elmer thermocycler. The samples were subjected to 40 cycles of amplification, each consisting of a 30-s denaturation at 94°C and a 30-s annealing/extension at 60°C.

#### Detection of Amplified DNA

Following amplification, 10  $\mu$ l of the PCR products were analysed by electrophoresis on a 1.0% agarose gel in Tris/borate/EDTA (TBE) buffer for 1 h. The gels were stained with ethidium bromide in distilled water (0.5  $\mu$ g/ml) and photographed.

# **Results and Discussion**

The cells of *V. cholerae* O1 entered into the N-C state after incubation for 6 days, determined by plate count, with the majority of the cells remaining viable, i.e. responding to INT-DVC (Figure 1).

The PCR amplification assay, using primer set 1 (Table 1), permitted detection of the *ctx* gene in diarrheal stool samples from the three patients who had distinct clinical symptoms of cholera but who were culture-negative for *V. cholerae* O1 and non-O1 and *Escherichia coli* (Figure 2).

The same stool samples revealed the presence of V. cholerae O1 when tested by direct and indirect fluorescent antibody assays, (Xu et al. 1984; Hasan et al. 1994) (data not shown). These samples were also positive by the CholeraScreen (Colwell et al. 1992), a newly developed and highly specific monoclonal-antibody-(COLTA)-based coagglutination test (New Horizons Diagnostics Corp., Columbia, MD). Shirai et al. (1991), described four stool samples from acute cholera patients which were negative by culture but positive by PCR for the ctx gene; Although no other enteropathogens could be isolated from the four samples, they were confirmed positive by Southern blot hybridization (Shirai et al. 1991). It seems likely, that N-C V. cholerae O1 were present in these four samples. The N-C vibrios produced or collected in the present study were demonstrated by all the direct test methods used. (Colwell et al. 1992; Hasan et al. 1994).

The primers used by Shirai *et al.* (1991) had seven or eight mismatches between the *ctx* and *Escherichia coli* heat labile toxin (*elt*) genes, and intended to minimize positive

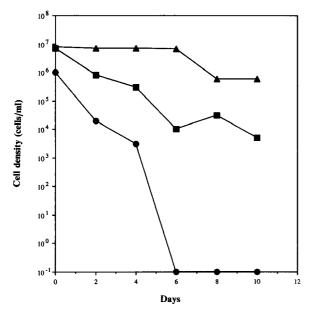


Figure 1. Cell counts for V. cholerae O1 microcosms incubated at 4°C. Acridine orange direct counts (A), iodophenyl nitrophenyl tetrazolium-direct viable counts (I), and total viable culturable counts (•) were determined as described in the text.

signals from cells of E. coli with elt. However, in the present study, PCR amplification yielded a few unexpected products from two of the samples (Figure 2, lanes 3 and 4). These anomalies may have been the result of non-specific binding of the primers or the presence of closely related pathogens in the stool samples. In subsequent experiments, two different sets of primers (Table 1), positioned in regions of minimal homology between the ctx and elt genes, were used, ensuring that the 3' base of each primer was specific for the ctx gene sequence (Mekalanos et al. 1983). These two primers (2 and 3, Table 1) are reported to give satisfactory results in amplification of the ctx gene when samples with mixed microbial populations are used (Fields et al. 1992; Koch et al. 1993). By employing these two primers, we were able to detect the *ctx* gene in microcosms of V. cholerae O1 which were in a N-C state (Figure 3).

Since available culture techniques cannot detect 'N-C' cells, it is important that methods to detect such cells be

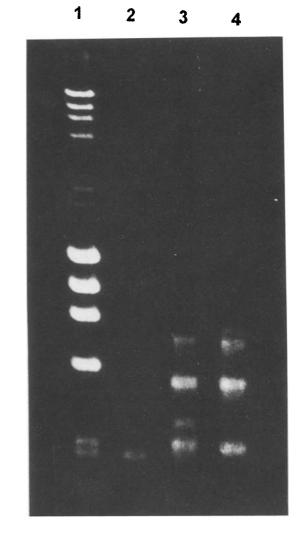


Figure 2. Analysis of PCR products of stool samples culturenegative for V. cholerae O1. Lanes: 1-molecular size markers (HindIII digest of Lambda DNA and HaeIII digest of ΦX 174 DNA); 2-culture-negative stool sample 1; 3-culture-negative stool sample 2; 4-culture-negative stool sample 3.

developed. PCR allows amplification of the DNA from a single cell (Steffan & Atlas 1988). Although PCR may amplify DNA from dead cells and so give 'false-positive'

Primer set	Sequence	Corresponding position in the $ctx$ operon*	Reference
1	5'-CTCAGACGGGATTTGTTAGGCACG-3'	712 to 735	Shirai <i>et al</i> . (1991)
	5'-TCTATCTCTGTAGCCCCTATTACG-3'	1013 to 990	
2	5'-CGGGCAGATTCTAGACCTCCTG-3'	73 to 94	Fields et al. (1992)
	5'-CGATGATCTTGGAGCATTCCCAC-3'	636 to 614	
3	5'-TGAAATAAAGCAGTCAGGTG-3'	611 to 630	Koch <i>et al.</i> (1993)
	5'-GGTATTCTGCACACAAATCAG-3'	1388 to 1368	

Table 1. Synthetic oligonucleotides primers used for PCR amplification of the cty gene

\* ctx operon nucleotide sequence reported by Mekalanos et al. (1983).

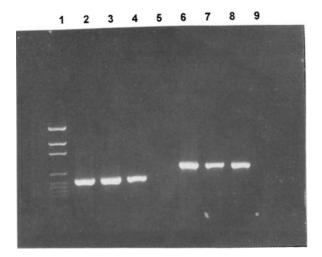


Figure 3. Analysis of PCR products of microcosm samples containing viable but non-culturable V. cholerae O1. Lanes: 1—molecular size DNA markers (pGEM; Promega Corp., Madison, WI); 2 and 6—positive control, with genomic DNA from V. cholerae O1; 3 and 7—samples from microcosm 1; 4 and 8—samples from microcosm 2; 5 and 9—negative controls for PCR. Lanes 2 to 5 with ctx primers set 2 and lanes 6 to 9 with set 3 (Table 1).

results, it has been postulated that such DNA is rapidly degraded (Brauns *et al.* 1991). Detection of the *ctx* gene in a specimen is, nevertheless, epidemiologically significant, because it indicates that toxigenic *V. cholerae* either are or were, present in the environment from which the specimen came. PCR can also be used to confirm the presence of toxigenic N-C *V. cholerae* when microcosms are employed.

Forty cycles of a two-step reaction (30 s each at 94 and 60°C) were found to be optimal, as well as more time efficient than the three-step PCR described by Shirai *et al.* (1991). The total time for the PCR method, from the point of heating the microcosm or culture broth samples to observation of the gels, requires < 4 h.

# Acknowledgements

This research was supported by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (Grants NA-16RU0264-01 and NA86-AA-D-SG 010) the National Science Foundation (Grant BSR-9020268), and the Co-operative Agreement (CR-817791-02-1) between the Environmental Protection Agency and the University of Maryland.

# References

- Brauns, L.A., Hudson, M.C. & Oliver, J.D. 1991 Use of the polymerase chain reaction in detection of culturable and nonculturable *Vibrio vulnificus* cells. *Applied and Environmental Microbiolvgy* 57, 2651–2655.
- Colwell, R.R., Hasan, J.A.K., Huq, A., Loomis, L., Siebling, R.J., Torres, M., Galvez, S., Islam, S., Tamplin, M.L. & Bernstein, D. 1992 Development and evaluation of a rapid, simple, sensitive, monoclonal antibody-based co-agglutination test for detection of Vibrio cholerae O1. FEMS Microbiology Letters 97, 215–220.

- Colwell, R.R., Knight, I.T., Somerville, C., Shults, S. & Kaspar, C.W. 1989 Viable but nonculturable phenomenon in relationship to starvation/survival, "injury", and strategies for survival of bacteria in the environment. In *Recent Advances in Microbial Ecology*, eds Hattori, T., Isida, Y., Maruyama, Y., Morita, R.Y. & Uchida, A. pp. 85–88. Sandai, Japan: Sasaki.
- Colwell, R.R., Tamplin, M.L., Brayton, P.R., Gauzens, A.L., Tall, B.D., Herrington, D., Levine, M.M., Hall, S., Huq, A. & Sack, D.A. 1990 Environmental aspects of Vibrio cholerae in transmission of cholera. In Advances in Research on Cholera and Related Diarrheas, eds Sack R.B. & Zinnaki, R. pp. 327–343. Tokyo: KTK Scientific.
- Fields, P.I., Popovic, T., Wachsmuth, I.K. & Olsvik, O. 1992 Use of polymerase chain reaction for detection of toxigenic Vibrio cholerae strains from the Latin American cholera epidemic. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* **30**, 2118–2121.
- Hasan, J.A.K., Bernstein, D., Huq, A., Loomis, L., Tamplin, M.L. & Colwell, R.R. 1994 Cholera DFA: An improved direct fluorescent-monoclonal antibody straining kit for rapid detection and enumeration of *Vibrio cholerae* O1. *FEMS Microbiology Letters*, **120**, 143–148.
- Hasan, J.A.K., Huq, A. & Colwell, R.R. 1991 A method for determination of individual respiring microorganisms and substrate responsive cells in aquatic microcosms. In Abstracts of 27th U.S.-Japan Joint Conference on Cholera and Diarrheal Diseases, p. 212. Bethesda: National Institutes of Health.
- Hobbie, J.E., Daley, R.J. & Jasper, S. 1977 Use of Nucleopore filters for counting bacteria by fluorescence microscopy. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* **33**, 1225–1228.
- Koch, W.H., Payne, W.L., Wentz, B.A. & Cebula, T.A. 1993 Rapid polymerase chain reaction method for detection of Vibrio cholerae in foods. Applied and Environmental Microbiology 59, 556– 560.
- Mekalanos, J.J., Swartz, D.J. & Pearson, G.D.N. 1983 Cholera toxin genes: nucleotide sequence, deletion analysis and vaccine development. *Nature* **306**, 551–557.
- Nilsson, L., Oliver, J.D. & Kjelleberg, S. 1991 Resuscitation of Vibrio vulnificus from the viable but nonculturable state. *Journal* of Bacteriology 173, 5054–5059.
- Shirai, H., Nishibuchi, M., Ramamurthy, T., Bhattacharya, S.K., Pal, S.C. & Takeda, Y. 1991 Polymerase chain reaction for detection of the cholera enterotoxin operon of *Vibrio cholerae*. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* 29, 2517–2521.
- Steffan, R.J. & Atlas, R.M. 1988 DNA amplification to enhance detection of genetically engineered bacteria in environmental samples. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 54, 2185– 2191.
- Tamplin, M.L. & Colwell, R.R. 1986 Effects of microcosm salinity and organic substrate concentration on production of Vibrio cholerae enterotoxin. Applied and Environmental Microbiology 52, 297–301.
- Weichart, D., Oliver, D.J. & Kjelleberg, S. 1992 Low temperature induced non-culturability and killing of Vibrio vulnificus. FEMS Microbiology Letters 100, 205–210.
- Williams, P. 1992 Peru's cholera epidemic: Health system's baptism of fire. *American Society for Microbiology News* **58**, 178–181.
- Xu, H.-S., Roberts, N.C., Adams, L.B., West, P.A., Siebeling, R.J., Huq, A., Huq, M.I., Rahman, R. & Colwell, R.R. 1984 An indirect fluorescent antibody staining procedure for detection of *Vibrio cholerae* serovar O1 cells in aquatic environmental samples. *Journal of Microbiological Methods* 2, 221–231.

(Received 11 April 1994; accepted 17 May 1994)