

Vibriosis in Human and Animals of Iraq

Marrib Mahmoud Jawad¹^{*}, Methaq Gulb Abd¹

¹Collage of Veterinary Medicin, University of Baghdad, Baghdad, Iraq

*Corresponding Author: Marrib Mahmoud Jawad

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.55145/ajbms.2023.1.1.003>

Received July 2022; Accepted October 2022; Available online December 2022

ABSTRACT: A species from the genus *Vibrio* is the cause of the bacterial disease known as vibriosis. About 12 diseases from these species, which are found in a diverse range of aquatic and marine habitats among the more than hundred species of the gene *Vibrio*, infect people. Vibriosis infections cause by Cholera and non-cholera. cholera is a severe form of diarrhea that, if left untreated, can quickly be fatal. It is primarily spread through contaminated water and direct personal contact. non-cholera *Vibrio* spp. such as (*Vibrio parahaemolyticus*, *Vibrio alginolyticus*, and *Vibrio vulnificus*) are generally contacted through exposure to sea water or by consuming contaminated raw or undercooked seafood. Vibriosis incidence is favoured by climate change and rising temperature seas and rivers water are although their concentration undergoes a notable increase in the warm months due to favorable ecological conditions. Outbreak cholera and non-cholera in many countries of the world but of Iraq only *Vibrio cholera* in human except one case reported in Basra which is *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*. In the previous studies, it was show that other types of non-cholera *Vibrio* were isolated from Iraq shrimp in Basra governorate. The purpose of this study is to show cases infection of cholera and non-cholera in human and animals of Iraq.

Keywords: Vibriosis, Cholera, Non-cholera, Climate change, Iraq



1. INTRODUCTION

Bacterial disease known as vibriosis is caused on by species of the genus *Vibrio* has a diverse host range, including both wild and cultivated fish [1]. *Vibrio* spp are Straight or comma-shaped rod bacteria with polar flagella wrapped in a sheath, gram-negative and halophilic. Typically, they are non-spore-forming facultative pathogens that convert nitrate to nitrite, ferment D-fructose, maltose, and glycerol. bacteria are ubiquitous in estuarine, marin and freshwater environments. *Vibrio* spp. characterized by high salinity and temperatures varying from 10 to 30 °C [2,3,4].

Nomenclature Vibrio : V Classical : Cla El Tor : ET
--

Presently there are approximately 147 *Vibrio* species and four subspecies are recognized, 24 of which are harmful to both plants and animals. Ten of the twelve *Vibrio* species that have frequently isolated from humans and 10 are confirmed human pathogens. The majority of the pathogenic species are animal pathogens, and the three most common and severe ones for humans are *V. cholerae*, *V. parahaemolyticus*, and *V. vulnificus*, closely followed by *Vibrio alginolyticus*. Generally, the human pathogenic vibrios induce external otitis and conjunctivitis in addition to diarrhea or extra-intestinal infections, which are typically wound infections. Many species infect other animals with diseases, including vertebrates most frequently in fish and invertebrates such as (blue crabs and shrimp) [5]. Vibriosis in fish is typically characterized by poor growth, lethargy, and tissue necrosis, as well as skin discoloration in infected fish. Additionally, erythema at the base of fins, vent, and mouth, as well as red lesions in the muscle, are indications of infection [6].

Historically, either cholera or a non-cholera infection was identified as the cause of vibriosis in humans. The treatment and provision of safe drinkable water has virtually eradicated cholera, an acute diarrheal disease primarily

brought on by intake of water or food carrying toxigenic *V. cholerae* (serogroups O1 and O139), in affluent nations. Consuming contaminated shellfish, most frequently oysters, or coming into contact with polluted water directly through recreational or occupational activities are the usual causes of non-cholera *Vibrio* infections. Non-cholera Self-limiting gastroenteritis to severe, life-threatening necrotizing fasciitis, wound infections, and septicemia are characteristic *Vibrio* infections [7,8].

Vibriosis in humans historically has been recognized as either cholera or non-cholera infection. Cholera, an acute diarrheal disease caused primarily by consumption of water or food containing toxigenic *V. cholerae* (serogroups O1 and O139), has essentially been eliminated in developed countries by treatment and distribution of safe potable water. Non-cholera *Vibrio* infections typically result from consumption of contaminated shellfish, commonly oysters, or from direct contact with contaminated water through recreation and occupational activities. Non-cholera *Vibrio* infections are characteristically from self-limiting gastroenteritis to severe life-threatening necrotizing fasciitis, wound ear infection, and septicemia [7,8].

Infections in humans, such as cholera and non-cholera vibriosis, are brought on by *Vibrio* spp., which can be found in surface waters across the Americas, Asia, Europe, and Australia [9]. Numerous *Vibrio* species can be found in a variety of aquatic habitats, including rivers, estuaries, seas, and deep ocean waters. *Vibrio* presence may eventually be impacted by water conditions like temperature, pH, salinity, and nutrients in the water column as a result, several *Vibrio* species are seasonal and are frequently found during the height of summer: a higher temperature and less rain [10,11]. During the winter months, the bacterial cells are commonly found in a non-culturable stage [12]. For this reason, *Vibrio* can be used as a microbial indicator of climate change [13]. Despite the incidence of many cases of *V. cholera* and non-cholera in the world, the aim of this study highlight of *Vibrio cholera* and non-cholera in human and animals of Iraq.

2. EPIDEMIOLOGY

2.1. IN THE WORLD

Outbreaks of vibriosis are associated with increase temperature, warmer waters and extreme weather events. Vibriosis has been more common over the past several decades, and instances are being recorded to some far areas where there are no known cases of this illness and where the environment had previously been thought to be unfavorable to pathogenic *Vibrio*. One of the main causes of illness onset, particularly at places in high latitudes, has been identified as the high sea water temperature as a result of climate change [13,14,15]. The ecology of *Vibrio* has been associated with two main environmental factors: seawater temperature and salinity [16,17].

Epidemics of cholera are set on by isolates of serogroups O1 and O139, with O1 further subdivided into the biotypes classical (Cla) and El Tor (ET) [18]. Since 1817, there have been seven cholera pandemics in recorded history. The first six pandemics are thought to have been caused by the Cla biotype, but the seventh pandemic, which has been going on since 1961, is thought to have been caused by the ET biotype, which supplanted Cla internationally. First discovered in 1992 in India and Bangladesh, isolates O139 were later determined to be derived from the ET biotype and have not spread beyond Asia [19,20].

Global cholera epidemics can be driven on by *V. cholerae*, which produces the cholera toxin. For instance, non-toxigenic isolates have been linked to sporadic human infection in Latin America (serogroup O1 isolates) [21,22], Thailand (O27), Iraq (O53), and Japan (O48) [23,24,25], and reported to cause small-scale local outbreaks (less than 30 cases with O1) in India, Uzbekistan, Russia, and Fiji [26,27,28,29], as well as China [30]. Multi-locus sequences are now the primary pathogen transmitted by seafood and a source of health concern in the United States of America, New Zealand, Africa, Europe, and most Asian countries. Some non-toxic clonal complexes were geographically prevalent, according to typing data [31].

In low-income nations in 2020, the seventh cholera outbreak that began in 1961 will still be present. Outbreaks in Yemen in 2017 and Haiti in 2010 have brought the disease back into the spotlight on a worldwide scale. Despite the fact that outbreaks are relied on by variables including natural disasters, global warming, conflicts, and population growth [32].

Up until the 1960s, *V. parahaemolyticus* instances were confined to Japan, but starting in 1969, cases started to be documented all over the world. Since 1996, Following a sharp increase in the number of gastroenteritis cases in Calcutta and India, the epidemiology of infections caused by *V. parahaemolyticus* has changed. Unlike most previous outbreaks, the one in Calcutta was linked to a variant of the O3:K6 serotype containing the same virulence factor, the TDH toxin. This new strain, which has already been found on all continents and has become endemic in the areas it has reached, has swept across Southeast Asia in just one year. The global distribution of the *V. parahaemolyticus* O3:K6 strain may be influenced by a variety of factors, including climate change and ballast water from maritime shipping

[33,34]. Epidemiological report has shown that among seafood-born pathogens *V. parahaemolyticus* present a significant threat, and shrimp and finfish are high on the list of the most contaminated seafood [35].

V. vulnificus in South Korea reported 325 individuals with *V. vulnificus* infection, of whom 48.92% passed away between 2011 and 2016. One in seven patients with a *V. vulnificus* wound infection dies, according to predictions made in 2017 by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention in the United States [36]. Independent of the method of infection, epidemiological statistics on *V. vulnificus* demonstrate that around 86% of the reported cases were men. According to this statistics, males have a six-fold higher risk of contracting *V. vulnificus* infection than females [37,33].

A study of vibriosis in Florida, United States (1998-2007), found *V. alginolyticus* as a relevant cause of infection, with 131 cases (almost 20% of all vibriosis infections) documented over this time period [38]. The incidence of these infections significantly rises during warmer months [14]. Most data indicate that ingestion of polluted sea foods and exposure to contaminated sea water caused *V. alginolyticus* wound infections [13]. Numerous sporadic reports of *V. alginolyticus* have also been documented in Europe [15]. Other types of *Vibrio* spp. including *V. mimicus*, *V. cincinnatiensis*, *V. hollisae*, *V. furnissii*, *V. fluvialis*, and *V. metschnikovii*, are linked to human infections. Although several different kinds of vibriosis can be set on by these clinically significant bacteria, these illnesses are rather uncommon. *V. fluvialis*, however, is increasingly being recognized as a new foodborne pathogen that poses a threat to the public's health [39,40].

2.2. IN THE IRAQ

Iraq has suffered an epidemic of the cholera disease over the past three decades [41]. This has gotten worse, especially during the first Gulf War in 1991, when cholera spread rapidly throughout all of Iraq's governorates [42]. Many Iraqi people suffered from the cholera disease between 2007 and 2009 [43]. Later, The presence of *V. cholera* O1 serotype (Inaba) was found and verified. *V. cholera* O1 serotype (Ogawa) detection and confirmation occurred for in 2012[44].

Changes in Iraq's climate may affect *V. cholera* outbreaks as well as the intensity, persistence, or appearance of these annual seasonal patterns, particularly in equatorial nations where higher and more stable temperatures may encourage a constant level of cholera outbreaks that occur mostly in the warmer months [45]. Also, due to the war, the majority of Iraq's wastewater treatment has not operated in accordance with ideal conditions. This has significantly increased the amount of *V. cholera* contamination in freshwater across the nation. Cholera cases have been reported between September 23 to November 6, 2015, 2651 Serogroup O1 (Inaba serotype) with a few cases of (Ogawa serotype), which affected different age groups and genders, was discovered and confirmed in Baghdad and in the other 14 Iraqi governorates [46]. As a result, the WHO advised that in order to limit *V. cholera* epidemics, it was necessary to upgrade water infrastructure, energy, and feces-disposal facilities in addition to improving physical and social conditions, particularly in refugee camps for the control of *V. cholera* outbreaks [47].

Vibrio spp. in animals have been isolated in Iraq from Basra shrimp *V. alginolyticus* was the predominant species, followed by *V. cholerae*, *V. furnissii*, *V. diazotrophicus*, *V. gazogenes* and *V. costicola*. The species of *Vibrio* were different between farms and this may be related to the different source of larvae or different source of water [48].

Other *Vibrio* spp in human no case recorded, but only one case in Basra in 2018 reported in Iraq of *V. parahaemolyticus* according to the data of the Center for communicable disease control in Iraq. *V. Cholera* started outbreak in Iraq from 1967 was during 1967-1979 highest incidence in 1972 have been 1100 cases and between 1980-1989 started increase cases more than from previous years highest incidence in 1985 have been 1430. Outbreak between 1990-1999 also increase in 1998 and 1999 was have been 2560-2400 respectively. Also between 2000-2021 reached highest cases in 2007 and 2015 was 4659-2868 respectively. In last two years 2020 and 2021 do not reported any cases *V. Cholera* then reported 1317 cases were reported in until September 2022. Almost the reasons that led to an increase Cholera in Iraq in the years which the highest percentage was recorded are the result of wars, the economic circumstances, and internal conflicts and security turmoil in country.

These are two a chart the *cholera* epidemic in Iraq from 1967 to 2021 according to the data of the Center for communicable disease control in Iraq. As shown in the following (figure 1,2).

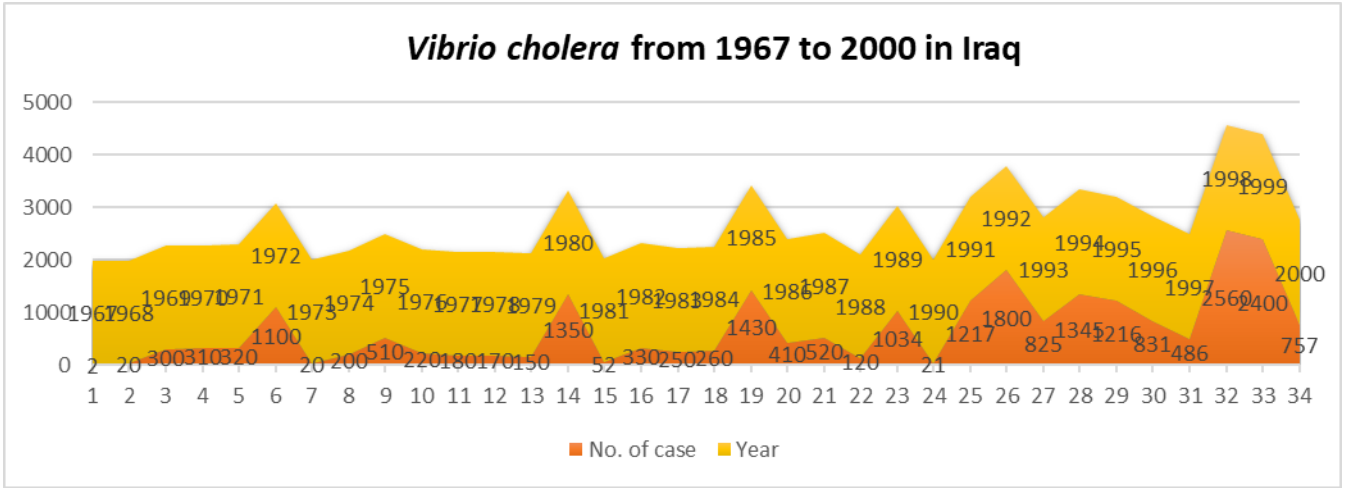


Figure 1. - Chart show Vibrio Cholera in Iraq from 1967 to 2000

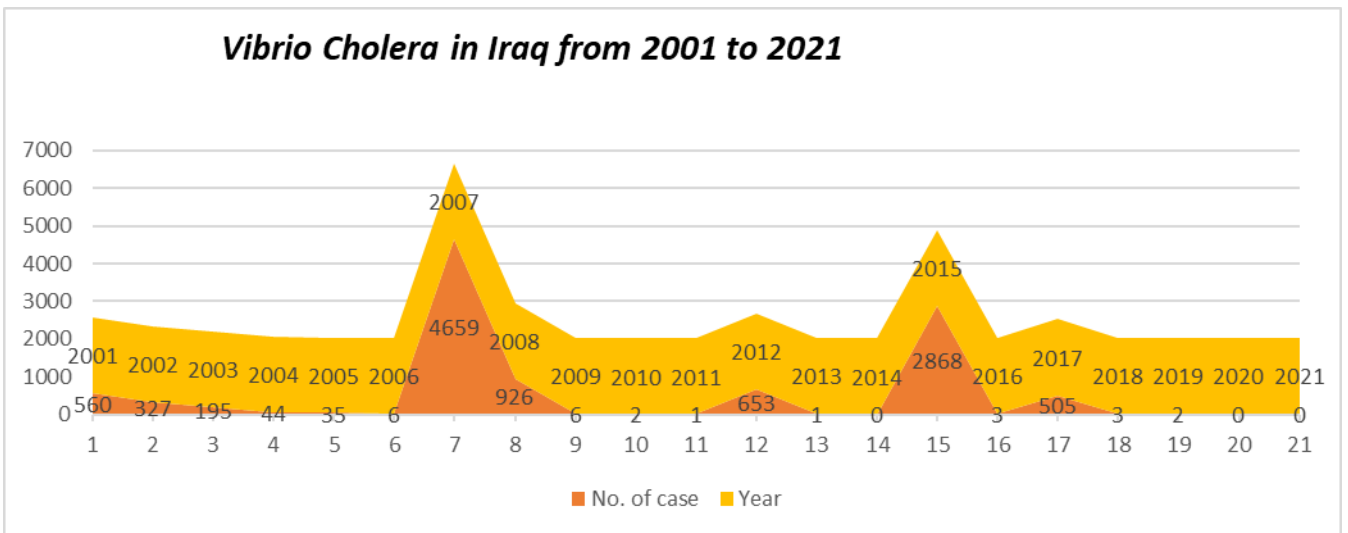


Figure 2. - Chart show Vibrio Cholera in Iraq from 2001 to 2021

In the last ten years was recorded cases in 2012, 2015 and 2017 in each governorate to show the highest cases in any governorate recorded showing as follows: -

In 2012, only eight governorates recorded cholera where the highest cases was recorded in sulaymaniyah governorate was has been ages more than five year % 48.23 and less than five year % 1.1 , then followed by Kirkuk governorate with proportion % 45.17 more than five year and less than five years % 3.52 then Dohuk governorate with % 0.3 more than five years, then Muthanna with % 0.3 more than five years and less than five years 0.61, then Diyala with %0.3 more than five years, then Salah al-Din, Wasit and Nineveh with %0.15 more than five years (Figure 3).

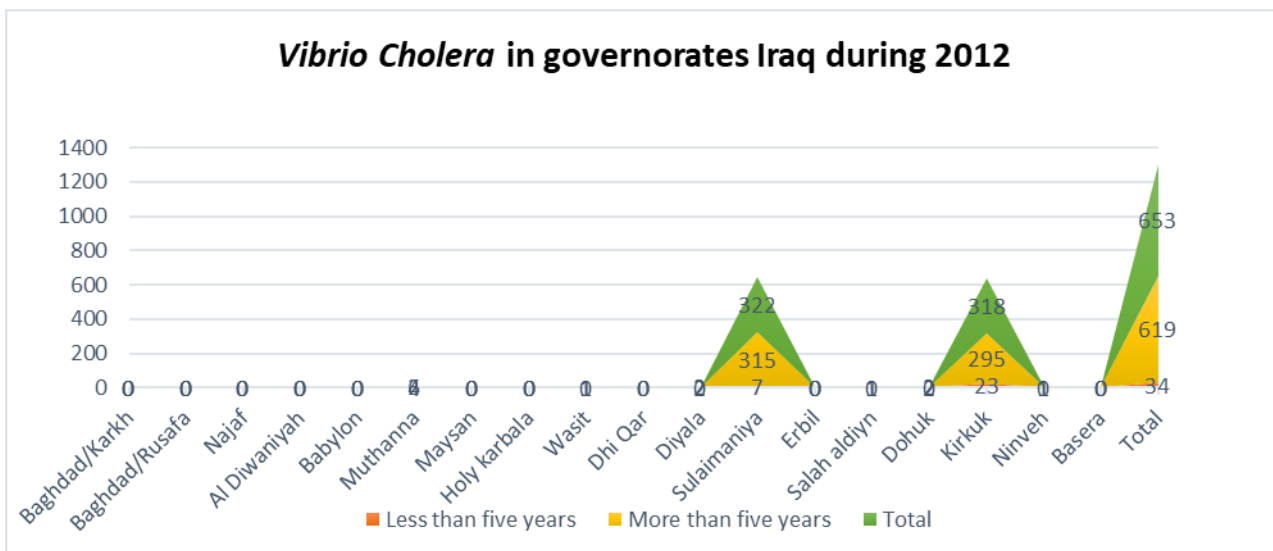


Figure 3. - Chart show Vibrio Cholera in Governorates Iraq during 2012

In 2015, all governorates of Iraq recorded cholera cases, where the highest rate was Babylon Governorate, which reached %23.5, and mortality was %0.03, followed by Baghdad/Rusafa, with the infection rate of %21.86, and mortality rate with %0.03, then Al-Diwaniyah %15.51, Baghdad/ Karkh %13.07, Muthanna %10.1, Holy Karbala %5.5, Basra %3.6, Wasit %2.37 Najaf %1.6, Dhi Qar%0.73, Maysan %0.73, Kirkuk %0.66, Dohuk %0.5, Erbil %0.34, Diyala %0.1, Sulaymaniyah %0.06, Salah al-Din %0.06, Nineveh %0.03. Where the northern governorates had the lowest number of cases than the middle and southern governorates(Figure 4).

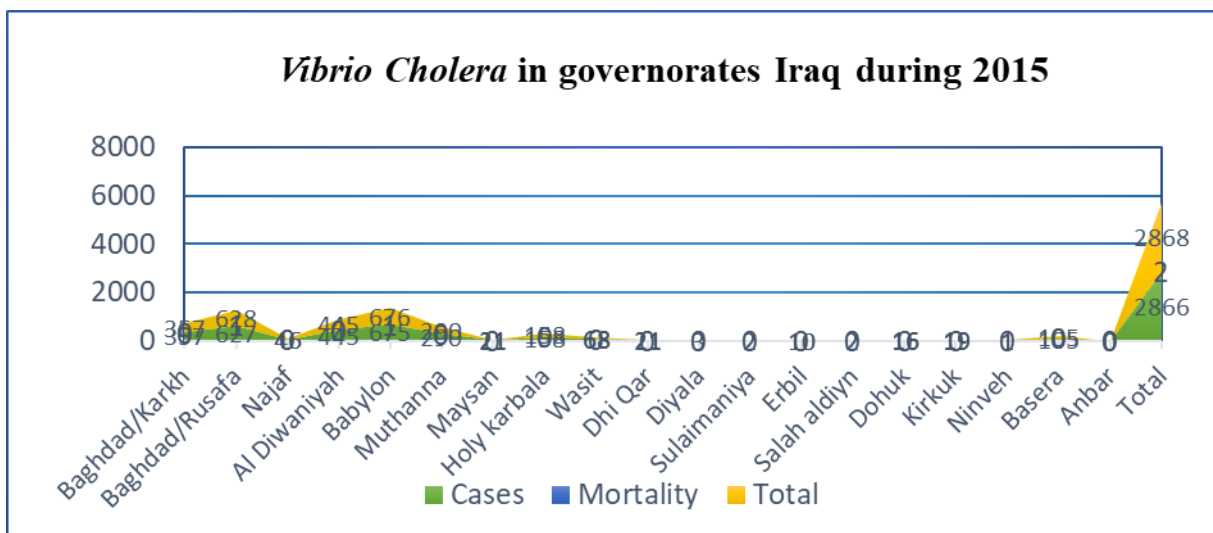


Figure 4. - Chart show Vibrio Cholera in Governorates Iraq during 2015

In 2017, Ten governorates were recorded with cases cholera. The highest governorate in cases was Baghdad, Al-Rusafa, which had 52.07% and mortality rate with 0.39%, followed by Holy Karbala with a proportion of 15.04%, Babylon 10.69%, Diwaniyah 10.09%, Wasit 4.55% and a carrier of the disease 0.19%, Muthanna 3.96, Nineveh 0.99%, Maysan 0.79%, Kirkuk 0.39% and with mortality rate 0.19%, Baghdad Al-Karkh 0.39% and Najaf 0.19% (Figure 5).

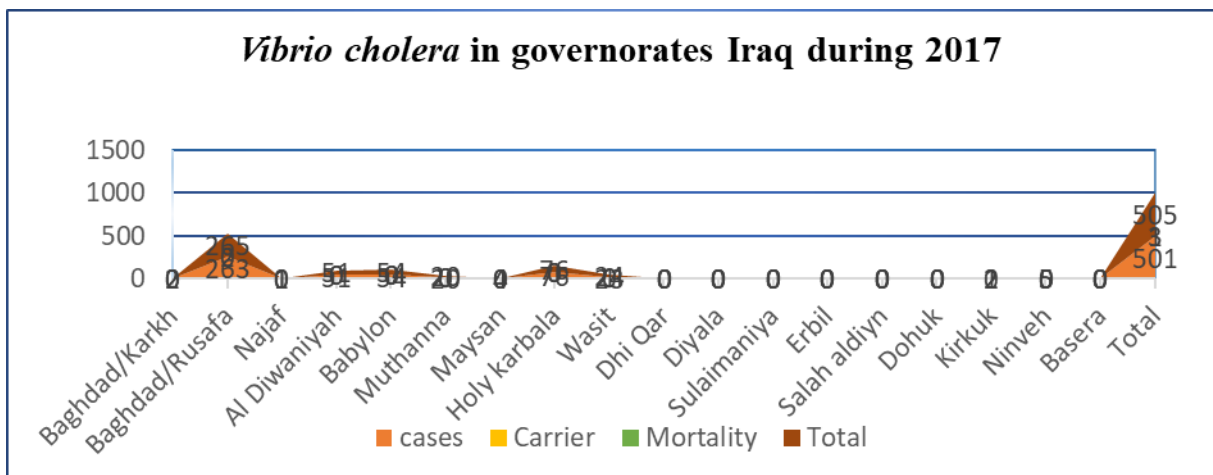


Figure 5. - Chart show Vibrio Cholera in Governorates Iraq during 2017

In 2022, governorates were reported with cases cholera. The highest governorate in cases was Kirkuk which had 48.89% and mortality rate with 0.22%, followed by Baghdad, Al-Rusafa with a proportion of 27.41% and mortality rate with 0.07%, Diyala 7.13% and mortality rate with 0.07%, Dhi Qar 4.93%, Wasit 4.85%, Najaf 2.27%, Holy karbala 1.29, Baghdad Al-Karkh 0.91%, Sulaymaniyah 0.75, Babylon 0.68 and mortality rate with 0.07%, Muthanna 0.37%, Salah al-Din 0,37%, Al-Diwaniyah 0.07%. (Figure 6).

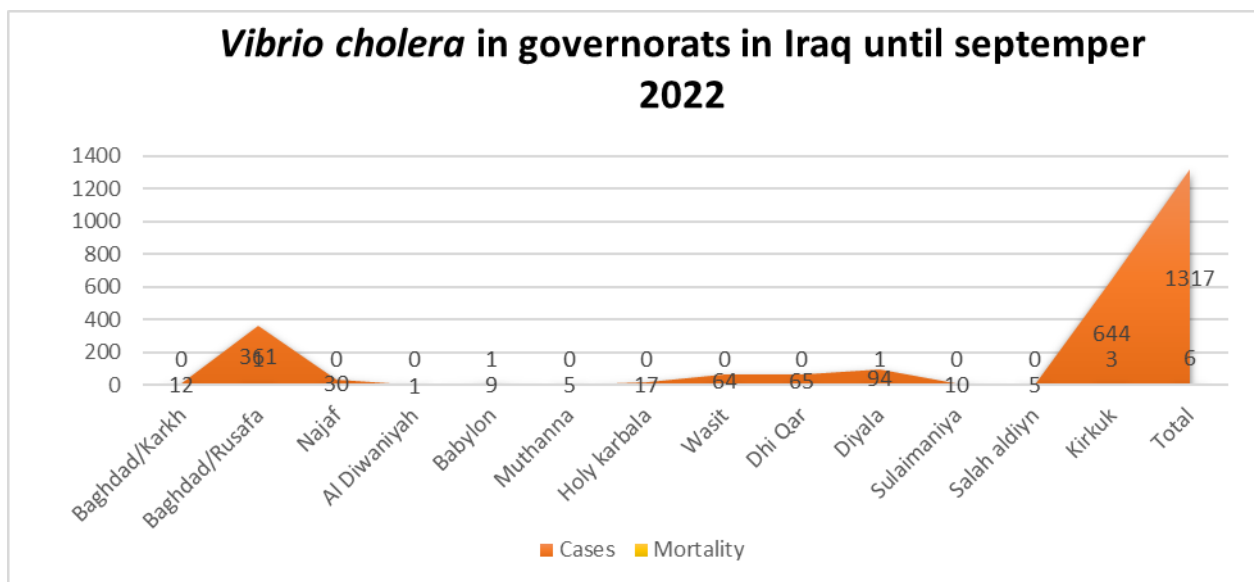


Figure 6. - Chart show Vibrio Cholera in Governorates Iraq until septemper 2022

3. CONCLUSIONS

Vibrio species are important because of their wide spread occurrence. V. Cholera and other vibrio species reported in many countries of the world but in Iraq only V. Cholera in human was recorded over five decades, but other of species Vibrio, no case was recorded, only one case in Basra by V. Parahaemolyticus in 2018. V. cholera rising incidence in 2007 and 2015 during five decades. In previous studies, it was show that other types of non-cholera Vibrio that were isolated from Iraq shrimp in Basra governorate are likely to be infected humans after consumption contaminated shrimp result many cases have recorded in countries of the world. It was concluded that the most

important factors that led to an increase cholera in Iraq are climate change, wars, internal conflicts, and the lack of wastewater treatment.

Funding

None

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Special thanks and appreciation to the staff of the center for control and communicable disease in Iraq for providing me with cholera and non cholera data and for all their support by providing me this opportunity to achieve my dream goal.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest

REFERENCES

- [1] K. Ishimaru and T. Nakai, "Vibriosis of Fish and Shellfish in Japan," *Fish Pathology*, vol. 52, pp. 120–125, 2017. DOI: 10.3147/jsfp.52.120.
- [2] V. Letchumanan, K. G. Chan, and L. H. Lee, "Vibrio parahaemolyticus: a review on the pathogenesis, prevalence, and advance molecular identification techniques," *Frontiers in Microbiology*, vol. 5, p. 705, 2014.
- [3] C. I. Chikwendu, S. N. Ibe, and G. C. Okpokwasili, "Multiple antimicrobial resistance in *Vibrio* spp isolated from river and aquaculture water sources in Imo state, Nigeria," *Microbiology Research Journal International*, pp. 560-569, 2014.
- [4] S. M. Raszl, B. A. Froelich, C. R. W. Vieira, A. D. Blackwood, and R. T. Noble, "Vibrio parahaemolyticus and *Vibrio vulnificus* in South America: water, seafood and human infections," *Journal of Applied Microbiology*, vol. 121, no. 5, pp. 1201-1222, 2016.
- [5] D. J. Grimes, "The vibrios: Scavengers, symbionts, and pathogens from the sea," *Microbial Ecology*, vol. 80, no. 3, pp. 501-506, 2020.
- [6] B. Austin and D. A. Austin, "Vibrionaceae representatives," in *Bacterial Fish Pathogens*, Dordrecht: Springer, 2012, pp. 357–411. DOI: 10.1007/978-94-007-4884-2. ISBN: 978-94-007-4884-2.
- [7] R. R. Colwell, "Viable but nonculturable bacteria: a survival strategy," *Journal of Infection and Chemotherapy*, vol. 6, no. 2, pp. 121-125, 2000.
- [8] Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), "National enteric disease surveillance: covis annual summary," Summary of Human *Vibrio* Cases Reported to CDC, Atlanta, GA, 2014.
- [9] G. Armstrong, J. Hollingsworth, and J. Morris Jr., "Bacterial foodborne infections," in *Bacterial Infections of Humans: Epidemiology and Control*, 3rd Edn., P. Evans and A. Brachman, Eds. New York: Plenum Medical Book Company, 1998, pp. 109–138.
- [10] L. Vezzulli, R. R. Colwell, and C. Pruzzo, "Ocean warming and spread of pathogenic vibrios in the aquatic environment," *Microbial Ecology*, vol. 65, no. 4, pp. 817-825, 2013.
- [11] T. J. Sullivan and J. E. Neigel, "Effects of temperature and salinity on prevalence and intensity of infection of blue crabs, *Callinectes sapidus*, by *Vibrio cholerae*, *V. parahaemolyticus*, and *V. vulnificus* in Louisiana," *Journal of Invertebrate Pathology*, vol. 151, pp. 82-90, 2018.
- [12] H. Urakawa and I. N. Rivera, "Aquatic environment," in *The Biology of Vibrios*, F. L. Thompson, B. Austin, and J. Swings, Eds. Washington, D.C.: American Society for Microbiology, 2006, pp. 175–189.
- [13] C. Baker-Austin, J. Trinanés, N. Gonzalez-Escalona, and J. Martínez-Urtaza, "Non-cholera vibrios: the microbial barometer of climate change," *Trends in Microbiology*, vol. 25, no. 1, pp. 76-84, 2017.
- [14] C. Baker-Austin, J. A. Trinanés, S. Salmenlinna, M. Löfdahl, A. Siitonen, N. G. Taylor, and J. Martínez-Urtaza, "Heat wave-associated vibriosis, Sweden and Finland, 2014," *Emerging Infectious Diseases*, vol. 22, no. 7, p. 1216, 2016.
- [15] C. Baker-Austin, J. A. Trinanés, N. G. Taylor, R. Hartnell, A. Siitonen, and J. Martínez-Urtaza, "Emerging *Vibrio* risk at high latitudes in response to ocean warming," *Nature Climate Change*, vol. 3, no. 1, pp. 73-77, 2013.
- [16] J. W. Turner, B. Good, D. Cole, and E. K. Lipp, "Plankton composition and environmental factors contribute to *Vibrio* seasonality," *The ISME Journal*, vol. 3, no. 9, pp. 1082-1092, 2009.

- [17] X. Wang, J. Liu, J. Liang, H. Sun, and X. H. Zhang, "Spatiotemporal dynamics of the total and active *Vibrio* spp. populations throughout the Changjiang estuary in China," *Environmental Microbiology*, vol. 22, no. 10, pp. 4438-4455, 2020.
- [18] D. A. Sack, R. B. Sack, G. B. Nair, and A. K. Siddique, "Cholera," *The Lancet*, vol. 363, no. 9404, pp. 223-233, 2004.
- [19] A. Mutreja et al., "Evidence for several waves of global transmission in the seventh cholera pandemic," *Nature*, vol. 477, pp. 462-465, 2011.
- [20] M. K. Bhattacharya et al., "Outbreak of *Vibrio cholerae* non-O1 in India and Bangladesh," *The Lancet*, vol. 341, p. 1346, 1993.
- [21] S. Young Choi et al., "Phylogenetic Diversity of *Vibrio cholerae* Associated with Endemic Cholera in Mexico from 1991 to 2008," 2016.
- [22] D. Domman et al., "Integrated view of *Vibrio cholerae* in the Americas," *Science*, vol. 358, no. 6364, pp. 789-793, 2017.
- [23] E. F. Boyd, A. J. Heilpern, and M. K. Waldor, "Molecular analyses of a putative CTX ϕ precursor and evidence for independent acquisition of distinct CTX ϕ s by toxigenic *Vibrio cholerae*," *Journal of Bacteriology*, vol. 182, no. 19, pp. 5530-5538, 2000.
- [24] M. Li et al., "Evidence for the emergence of non-O1 and non-O139 *Vibrio cholerae* strains with pathogenic potential by exchange of O-antigen biosynthesis regions," *Infection and Immunity*, vol. 70, pp. 2441-2453, 2002.
- [25] M. Li et al., "Comparative genomic analyses of the vibrio pathogenicity island and cholera toxin prophage regions in nonepidemic serogroup strains of *Vibrio cholerae*," *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, vol. 69, no. 3, pp. 1728-1738, 2003.
- [26] A. Pal et al., "Clonal analysis of non-toxigenic *Vibrio cholerae* O1 associated with the outbreak of cholera," *Indian Journal of Medical Research*, vol. 109, p. 208, 1999.
- [27] E. V. Monakhova, "Phenotypic and molecular characteristics of epidemic and non-epidemic *Vibrio cholerae* strains isolated in Russia and certain countries of Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS)," in *Epidemiological and Molecular Aspects on Cholera*, 2011, pp. 51-78.
- [28] E. V. Monakhova et al., "The genome polymorphism of *Vibrio cholerae* ctxAB (-) strains, containing the proximal part of the CTX element," *Zhurnal Mikrobiologii, Epidemiologii, Immunobiologii*, no. 1, pp. 23-29, 2004.
- [29] G. B. Nair et al., "Isolation of *Vibrio cholerae* O1 strains similar to pre-seventh pandemic El Tor strains during an outbreak of gastrointestinal disease in an island resort in Fiji," *Journal of Medical Microbiology*, vol. 55, no. 11, pp. 1559-1562, 2006.
- [30] W. Zheng et al., "Molecular characteristics and antibiotic resistances of *Vibrio cholerae* O1 isolates in Hangzhou in 2009," *Zhonghua yu fang yi xue za zhi [Chinese journal of preventive medicine]*, vol. 45, no. 10, pp. 895-898, 2011.
- [31] A. Aydanian et al., "Genetic relatedness of selected clinical and environmental non-O1/O139 *Vibrio cholerae*," *International Journal of Infectious Diseases*, vol. 37, pp. 152-158, 2015.
- [32] L. Vezzulli et al., "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*, vol. 113, no. 34, pp. E5062-E5071, 2016.
- [33] C. Baker-Austin et al., "*Vibrio* spp. infections," *Nature Reviews Disease Primers*, vol. 4, no. 1, pp. 1-19, 2018.
- [34] V. Letchumanan et al., "*Vibrio parahaemolyticus*: the protagonist of foodborne diseases," *Progress in Microbes and Molecular Biology*, vol. 2, no. 1, p. a0000029, 2019.
- [35] O. A. Odeyemi, "Incidence and prevalence of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in seafood: a systematic review and meta-analysis," *Springerplus*, vol. 5, no. 1, pp. 1-17, 2016.
- [36] A. M. Dechet et al., "Nonfoodborne *Vibrio* infections: an important cause of morbidity and mortality in the United States, 1997-2006," *Clinical Infectious Diseases*, vol. 46, no. 7, pp. 970-976, 2008.
- [37] M. K. Jones and J. D. Oliver, "*Vibrio vulnificus*: disease and pathogenesis," *Infection and Immunity*, vol. 77, no. 5, pp. 1723-1733, 2009.
- [38] K. E. Weis et al., "*Vibrio* illness in Florida, 1998-2007," *Epidemiology & Infection*, vol. 139, no. 4, pp. 591-598, 2011.

- [39] T. Ramamurthy et al., "Vibrio fluvialis: an emerging human pathogen," *Frontiers in Microbiology*, vol. 5, p. 91, 2014.
- [40] E. O. Igbinosa and A. I. Okoh, "Vibrio fluvialis: an unusual enteric pathogen of increasing public health concern," *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, vol. 7, no. 10, pp. 3628-3643, 2010.
- [41] J. M. Khwaif, A. H. Hayyaw, and T. I. Yousif, "Cholera Outbreak in Baghdad in 2007: An Epidemiological Study," *Eastern Mediterranean Health Journal*, vol. 16, pp. 460-465, 2010.
- [42] World Health Organization (WHO), "Communicable Disease Profile of Iraq," 2003.
- [43] T. H. Saleh, M. A. Sabbah, K. A. Jasem, and Z. N. Hammad, "Identification of Virulence Factors in *Vibrio cholera* Isolated from Iraq during the 2007-2009 Outbreak," *Canadian Journal of Microbiology*, vol. 57, pp. 1024-1031, 2011.
- [44] World Health Organization (WHO), "Cholera in Iraq 2012."
- [45] M. Emch, C. Feldacker, M. S. Islam, and M. Ali, "Seasonality of Cholera from 1974 to 2005: A Review of Global Patterns," *International Journal of Health Geographics*, vol. 7, p. 31, 2008.
- [46] A. R. M. Al-Abbasi and S. M. Aema, "The cholera epidemic in Iraq during," *TOFIQ Journal of Medical Sciences*, vol. 2, no. 2, pp. 27-41, 2015.
- [47] C. Paddock, "Iraq Prepares for Cholera, Diarrheal Disease Outbreaks," 2014.
- [48] A. M. R. Al-Tae, N. R. Khamees, and N. A. H. Al-Shammari, "Vibrio species isolated from farmed fish in Basra city in Iraq," *Aquaculture Research Development*, vol. 8, no. 2, pp. 1-4, 2017