Research article Open Access

Genetic Diversity of Cryptosporidium hominis in Humans and Sheep in Central Southern Iraq

Musafer H. Al-Ardi *1

General Directorate for Education in Al-Qadisiyah Province. Ministry of Education – Iraq

* Corresponding author: Musafer H. Al-Ardi. mussafir78@yahoo.com

https://doi.org/ 10.21608/svu.2025.380836.1388

Submit Date: 02/05.2025; Revise Dat: 04/08/2025; Accept Date: 30/08/2025

Copyright: © Lawan Adam Musafer H. Al-Ardi. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons attribution license, which permits unrestricted use, distribution and reproduction in any medium provided the original author and source are created.



ABSTRACT

Cryptosporidium is a diarrhoeal obligate intracellular parasite. It is a common cause of waterborne outbreaks in infected animals and humans. To identify genetic variants linked to different hosts, DNA samples were analysed using genotyping platforms and sequencing technologies. This study included genotyping Cryptosporidium spp. from faecal samples from humans and sheep. Cryptosporidium spp. was performed molecularly based on the glycoprotein gene (GP60) by using a nested PCR reaction. Twenty-seven positive samples for Cryptosporidium spp. were amplified with the GP60 primer. The first cycle revealed 8 samples (5 human and 3 sheep) with C. hominis. were successfully sequenced. The nucleotide sequence demonstrated that the prevailing subtype of C. hominis was the IbA21G2 family.



Keywords: *Cryptosporidium hominis*; *genotyping*; *GP60*; *IbA21G2 family*; *mammals*

INTRODUCTION

Cryptosporidiosis is a widespread parasitic disease among humans and animals worldwide. This parasite infects most vertebrates (Ryan *et al.*,2021). This disease is caused by *Cryptosporidium spp.*, which is a member of the Coccidian family. This parasite is regarded as a

Significant contributor to diarrhea in humans and other animals. The seriousness of cryptosporidiosis lies in the multiple ways of its transmission, as this disease is transmitted through direct contact with infected animals. It can be transmitted by contamination of water

and food sources with oocysts that play a role in the transmission (O'Leary *et al.*, 2021).

Santin et al. (2020) found that Oocystozoites are present in 65-97% of surface water, such as rivers, lakes, and streams, and that water pollution is one of the major factors in the spread of parasite infestation. Due to the parasite's high prevalence in water, difficulty in getting rid of it, resilience to different sterilizers, and small size when it passes through filters, the parasite poses a "serious" hazard to water storage facilities. This parasite invades the digestive and respiratory systems' epithelial cells to finish its life cycle both sexually and asexually. One of the most crucial symptoms of parasite infection is watery diarrhea, which is produced by the parasite's growth inside the epithelial cells and the host's immunological reaction (Gerace et al., 2019).

As studies have shown, there are over 70 different subspecies of Cryptosporidium spp. the two most well-known and widespread species are C. hominis and C. parvum (Dong et al., 2020). Due to the specificity that C. parvum enjoys in that it infects most mammals, most studies have paid attention and researched to this studies Molecular have indicated type. differences in morphology and growth among parasites of this species that infect different hosts (Liu et al., 2020). Depending on the source of infection, these species' capacity to transmit between hosts and their capacity to spread differ. Parasites that have been identified in humans

have not been found to infect mice or calves. On the other hand, parasites that were isolated from cows may infect people. Some parasites can infect wild animals or spread unintentionally from mother to fetus. Determining the type of parasite was necessary to account for these variations in the capacity and specificity of the host (Robertson *et al.*, 2020).

With no vaccine or effective treatment, understanding the modes of transmission is critical to devising preventive measures. Since traditional methods of diagnosis are not capable enough to differentiating between distinct phenotypically species, genotyping methods are required (Cama et al., 2008). Therefore, accurate knowledge of the parasite prevalence and the most virulent species and genotypes is necessary to comprehend the dynamics of spread and transmission between various hosts (Sannella et al., 2019). Additionally, prior research suggested that various species or genotypes exhibit various clinical manifestations (Igbal et al., 2011).

Several genomic regions with moderate and low heterogeneity have been used to identify species and subspecies of the parasite, like *Cryptosporidium* oocytes wall protein (COWP), lectin gene, heat shock protein 70 kDa (HSP-70), rRNA small subunit gene (18ss rRNA), β-tubulin genes, the ITS-1, and ITS-2 intragenic regions (Guy et al., 2021). The GP 60 gene was chosen over other genes in studies aimed at identifying the evolutionary tree because it

contains conserved and other extremely heterogeneous sections, despite the fact that each gene has a special importance in diagnostic or taxonomic studies or to estimate the rate of spread (Guo *et al.*, 2022).

This study aimed to estimate the diversity of Cryptosporidium spp. genotypes and to assess the likelihood of transmission between various hosts.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Collection of Samples

A study was conducted to collect one hundred faecal samples, consisting of 50 samples from humans and 50 from sheep, in rural and urban areas of central southern Iraq. The samples were gathered between September 2022 and April 2023. The human samples were sourced from children aged between 5 months and 6 years, with a distribution of 23 females and 27 males. These samples were obtained from various locations, including pediatric clinics, hospital auditors, and pet breeders. In parallel, the sheep samples, taken from grazing areas and animal cages, were from animals aged 2 months to 2 years, comprising 31 females and 19 males.

Laboratory analysis

The analysis of the collected samples was conducted at the laboratory of Al-Iraqi company, utilizing microscopy techniques specifically for the examination of faecal smears. These smears were stained using the modified Ziehl-Neelsen method, as outlined by Angus (1987) and Anonymous (1991). To prepare the faecal

smears, they were first placed on a microscope slide, air-dried, and then fixed with methanol for a duration of 5 minutes. Following fixation, the smears were stained with a dilute carbol fuchsin solution (1:10) for 3 to 5 minutes before being washed with tap water. The next step involved decolourizing the smears using acid alcohol, after which they were counter-stained with a 0.5% Methylene blue solution for 1 minute.

Once air-dried, these smear slides were examined under a microscope at 100x magnification. During the examination, *Cryptosporidium spp*. Oocysts were identified as pink to red, spherical to ovoid structures against a blue background. A sample was deemed positive for the presence of *Cryptosporidium spp*. If at least one morphologically distinct Oocyst was observed (Mergen *et al.*, 2020).

DNA extraction, molecular detection and subtyping

DNA extraction:

Genomic DNA was isolated from 100 stool samples utilizing a DNA extraction kit provided by Bioneer, a company based in South Korea. The extraction process was carried out in accordance with the manufacturer's detailed instructions to ensure optimal results.

Nested-PCR test:

The initial PCR product (first cycle) was amplified using primers for the 18S rRNA gene (Table 1). The detection of sub-species, GP60 protein gene amplification for primary PCR products was done. PCR master mix was

prepared by adding PCR water (6.8μ) , 10x buffer (2μ) , dNTPs (2μ) , MgCl2 (2μ) , forward primer (1μ) , reverse primer (1μ) , Taq polymerase (0.2μ) , template DNA (5μ) , total volume (20μ) . Then, n-PCR was performed with PCR water $(10.8\mu \ \mu L)$, 10x buffer (2μ) , dNTPs (2μ) , MgCl2 (2μ) , forward primer (1μ) , reverse primer (1μ) , Taq polymerase (0.2μ) , template

DNA (1μ from the first round), total volume (20μ) (Abdou et al., 2022).

Primers:

The primers of the 18SrRNA gene and the differential gene (GP60 protein gene) 60-kDa glycoprotein were designed and prepared by Bioneer, South Korea (Table 1).

Table 1: Details of the primers used

Primers	Sequences	Purpose	Ref.
18SrRNAge	F- AGACGGTAGGGTATTGGCCT	_	
n. PCR	R- TCCTTGGCAAATGCTTTCGC	Detection	(Al-Amery
18SrRNAge	F-AACGGGAATTAGGGTTCGA	Cryptosporidiu	and Al- Amery, 2022)
n. Nested- PCR	R-TGCTTTCGCATTAGTTTGTCTT	m spp.	
Gp60 gene (C. hominis)	F- ATAGTCTCCGCTGTATTC	_	(Shrivastava et al., 2020)
PCR	R- GGAAGGAACGATGTATCT	Detection	
Gp60 gene	F-TCCGCTGTATTCTCAGCC	C. hominis	
(C. hominis) Nested-PCR	R- GCAGAGGAACCAGCATC	-	

Sequencing:

The PCR products were purified from a 1.5% agarose gel using the NucleoSpin® gel and PCR clean-up kit from Bioneer Korea. The 18S rRNA and GP60 gene amplicons were directly sequenced using the ABI 3100 Genetic Analyzer and the BigDye Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing kit. All sequences were aligned using the MEGA 7.0 software. The homologous sequences of *Cryptosporidium spp*. were deposited in GenBank. Phylogenetic evolution and comparison trees were created using the MEGA 7.0 software.

Ethical Approval:

The current study was conducted following the recommendations of the International Guide for the Care and Use of Animals and the guidelines issued by the College of Veterinary Medicine at Al-Qadisiyah University, under announcement No. 576 in 2018.

RESULTS

survey rate

In a study involving 100 faecal samples, *Cryptosporidium spp.* was detected in 22 samples, resulting in an infection rate of 22%. After applying an acid-fast stain, the overall prevalence of infection was found to be (13/50)

26% in humans and (9/50) 16% in sheep (Figure 1). Molecular testing (first cycle) for the 18S rRNA gene revealed the presence of the parasite in 27 samples, which corresponds to a prevalence rate of 27%, as detailed in Table 2.

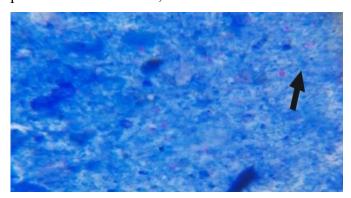


Figure 1: Oocysts of Cryptosporidium *spp* (100x).

Nested PCR test

DNA genome samples were subjected to molecular analyses by nested PCR using the 18S rRNA gene in order to identify the species of *Cryptosporidium spp.* 29 samples had a unique band of 835 bp following electrophoresis, confirming the presence of *Cryptosporidium spp* (Figure 2; Table 2

Table 2: Prevalence of *Cryptosporidium spp.* in study samples.

Host	Total samples	Microscopic	Molecular	Nested PCR	Intensity of infection
		Test (%)	test		
Human	50	13(26%)	17(34%)	11(22%)	17(34%)
Sheep	50	9(18%)	10(20%)	8(16%)	10(20%)
Total	100	22(22%)	27(27%)	29(29%)	27(27%)

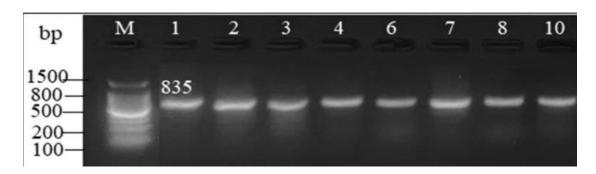


Figure 2: Amplification of the 18S rRNA gene for positive *Cryptosporidium spp.* samples (835 bp) were shown by Agarose gel electrophoresis

Nested PCR with gp-60 gene

In a recent study, positive samples for *Cryptosporidium spp*. were amplified using the GP 60 primer. The initial cycle identified eight samples – five from human sources and three from sheep – confirmed to contain *C. hominis*. Out of these, seven samples were successfully

sequenced, revealing that the dominant subtype of *C. hominis* belonged to the IbA21G2 family. The nucleotide sequences obtained were compared with existing data in the GenBank database at the National Centre for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) through the NCBI BLAST tool. This analysis uncovered the

presence of new and distinct isolates from Iraq. Furthermore, the newly generated sequences have been deposited in GenBank under private accession numbers, as detailed in Table 3 and Figure 3.

Table 3: The Homology Sequence Identity (%) between the submitted genotype isolates from NCBI-BLAST and the local *C. hominis*

Host	Accession	NCBI-BLAST Homology Sequence identity (%)					NCBI-BLAST Homology Sequence identity (%)		
	number	Identical	entical Accession		Identity (%)				
		genotypes	number						
Human	OR360262	IbA9G3	MT952955	Australia	100				
	OR360263	IbA21G2	FJ153239	China	100				
	OR360264	IbA21G2	FJ153239	China	100				
	OR360265	IbA21G2	MW984369	Iraq	100				
Sheep	OR360267	IbA21G2	MZ787830	Iraq	100				
	OR360268	IbA21G2	FJ153239	China	100				
	OR360269	IbA21G2	MW984369	Iraq	100				

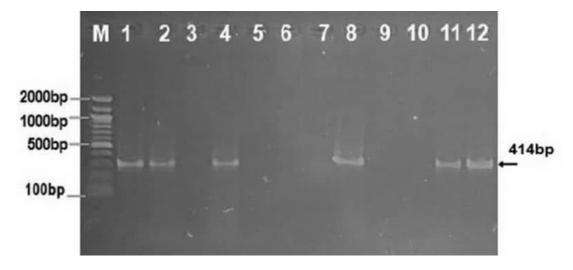


Figure 3: Amplification of gp60 (414 bp) for positive *C. hominis* samples was shown by Agarose gel electrophoresis.

The phylogenetic analysis

The phylogenetic analysis was performed using.

The MEGA 11 software was used to generate a neighbor-joining phylogram (Figure 4.

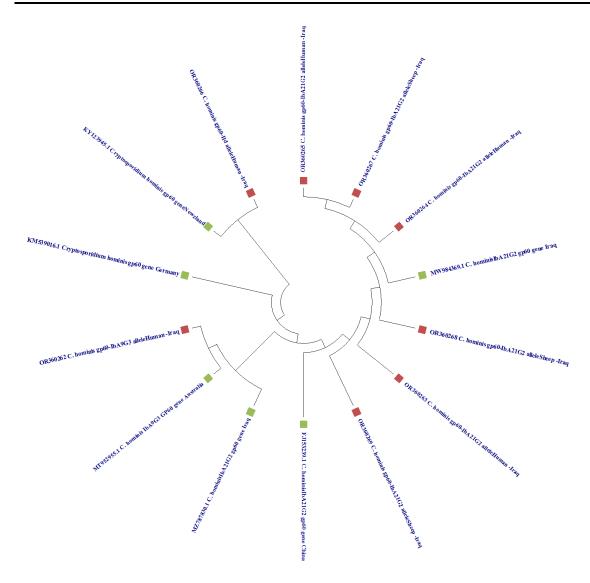


Figure 4: A partial SSU rRNA gene sequence from *C. hominis* used for phylogenetic tree analysis. MEGA 11.0 was used to create the phylogenetic tree using the maximum likelihood method (brown: current result; green: previous studies).

DISCUSSION

Cryptosporidiosis is a zoonotic disease that poses a significant risk for the transmission of pathogens between humans and animals, as well as for outbreaks related to water and food sources. This is partly due to the resilience of its oocysts to common disinfectants, including chlorination used in drinking and recreational water (Ryan *et al.*, 2021). The disease is especially concerning in low-income areas and

among both immunocompetent and immunocompromised individuals (Ryan *et al.*, 2014).

One of the key factors contributing to the effective spread of *Cryptosporidium* as a parasite is that an infected person can produce a large number of oocysts. These oocysts can withstand moderate environmental conditions and persist in humid environments for extended periods, which can lead to infections. Experimental

studies involving humans have shown that a dose of as few as 10 to 100 *C. hominis* oocysts is capable of causing infection (Chappell *et al.*, 2006).

Cryptosporidium hominis ranks first in humans and sheep (Ayres Hutter et al., 2020). The accidental transmission of infection between humans and different animals results from sharing the same water sources (especially in rural areas) and the direct intervention of humans in raising and caring for animals (Alali et al., 2021). Factors such as living conditions, nutritional status, personal hygiene, immune status, socio-economic criteria, and variations like the region and the type of test used for diagnosis affect the prevalence rates and transmission between hosts (Yang et al., 2021).

The use of standard correlation indicators such as 18s rRNA and GP60 and their measurement between alleles is necessary to identify these genotypes and estimate the time of their appearance or the degree of kinship between them. It is zero in single-origin populations and positive in divergent populations (Cacciò *et al.*,2015).

The glycoprotein (60 kD) gene is widely used in molecular and diagnostic research due to its highly variable and conserved sequences. These characteristics make it easier to design species-specific primers. There are small sequence variations within isolates among different copies in numerous *Cryptosporidium* species and genotypes. The gp60 gene, which can be used

with all isolates from hosts, is more accurate than other genes for diagnosing and differentiating between species in different hosts (Abeywardena *et al.*, 2014).

Most of the molecular heterogeneity in the GP60 gene is variation in the number of triplet coding repeats (TCA, TCG, or TCT) at the 5' ends (gp40) of the coding region. These variations in the frequencies of the triplet code produce various sub-generic phenotypes, which have been given specific names to distinguish them. The roman numeral II means that the strain belongs to *C. parvum*, and internal changes in the structure and arrangement of the three gene codons are expressed in lowercase letters; for example, IIa denotes heterogeneity in the codons TCA, and TCG (Liu *et al.*, 2014).

CONCLUSION

Our findings indicate that the occurrence of cryptosporidiosis in the studied region is relatively low. To effectively manage and minimize the transmission of this disease between animals and humans, it is crucial to enhance awareness regarding the risk factors, sources of infection, and modes of transmission. Furthermore, we recommend conducting additional molecular research in various areas of the country to better understand species distribution and assess the overall impact of the disease on a national scale.

DECLARATIONS

FUNDING

The authors affirm that they have not received any grants, funds, or other assistance for this manuscript.

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTION

The authors attested to having taken part in accepting public accountability for the content, which encompasses the idea, research, composition, and editing of the manuscript.

COMPETING INTERESTS

No competing interests are disclosed by the authors

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no competing

REFERENCES

Abdou, N. E. M., AlAzemi, M. S., Al-Sayegh, M. T., Majeed, Q. A. (2022). Performance of diagnostic assays used to detect *Cryptosporidium* oocysts in faecal samples of cattle in Kuwait and genotyping of *Cryptosporidium* species. BMC Veterinary Research, 18(1): 1-11. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12917-022-03435-w

Abeywardena, H., Jex, A. R., Koehler, A. V., Rajapakse, R. J., Udayawarna, K., Haydon, S. R., Stevens, M. A. Gasser, R. B. (2014). First molecular characterization of *Cryptosporidium* and *Giardia* from bovines (*Bos taurus* and *Bubalus bubalis*) in Sri Lanka: unexpected absence of *C. parvum* from pre-weaned calves. Parasites and Vectors, 7: 75.

http://www.parasitesandvectors.com/content/7/1/75

Alali, F., Abbas, I., Jawad, M., Hijjawi, N. (2021). *Cryptosporidium* infection in humans and animals from Iraq: A review. Acta Tropica, 220: 105946. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.actatropica.2021.1

Al-Amery A. R., Al-Amery A. M. (2022). Molecular diagnosis of *Cryptosporidium* ssp. in water buffaloes at Babylon province, Iraq. Iraqi Journal of Agricultural Sciences,53(1):147-156. https://doi.org/10.36103/ijas.v53i1.1519

Ayres Hutter, J., Dion R., Irace-Cima A. (2020).

Cryptosporidium spp.: Human incidence, molecular characterization and associated exposures in québec, Canada (2016-2017).

PLoS One, 15: e0228986.

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.02289

Cacciò, S.M., de Waele, V., Widmer, G. (2015).

Geographical segregation of

Cryptosporidium parvum multilocus
genotypes in Europe. Infect Genet Evol.

31(April):245–9.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.meegid.2015.02.0

08

Cama, V. A., Bern, C., Roberts, J., Cabrera, L., Sterling, C. R., Ortega, Y., Xiao, L. (2008). *Cryptosporidium* species and subtypes and clinical manifestations in children, Peru.

- Emerging infectious diseases, 14(10): 1567. https://doi.org/10.3201/eid1410.071273
- Chappell, C. L., Okhuysen, P. C., Langer-Curry,
 R., Widmer, G., Akiyoshi, D. E., Tanriverdi,
 S., Tzipori, S. (2006). *Cryptosporidium hominis*: experimental challenge of healthy
 adults. American Journal of Tropical
 Medicine and Hygiene, 75: 851–857.
 https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.2006.75.851
- Dong, S., Yang, Y., Wang, Y., Yang, D., Yang, Y., Shi, Y., Li, C., Li, L., Chen, Y., Jiang, Q., Zhou Y. (2020). Prevalence of *Cryptosporidium* infection in the global population: A systematic review and meta-analysis Acta Parasitol, 65 (4):882-889. https://doi.org/10.2478/s11686-020-00230-1
- Gerace, E., Presti, V. D. M. L., Biondo, C. (2019). *Cryptosporidium* infection: epidemiology, pathogenesis, and differential diagnosis. European Journal of Microbiology and Immunology, 9(4): 119-123.

https://doi.org/10.1556/1886.2019.00019

- Guo, Y., Ryan, U., Feng, Y., Xiao, L. (2022).

 Emergence of zoonotic *Cryptosporidium*parvum in China. Trends in Parasitology,

 38(4):

 335-343.

 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pt.2021.12.002
- Guy, R. A., Yanta, C. A., Muchaal, P. K., Rankin, M. A., Thivierge, K., Lau, R., Boggild, A. K. (2021). Molecular

- characterization of *Cryptosporidium* isolates from humans in Ontario, Canada. Parasites & Vectors, 14(1): 1-14. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13071-020-04546-9
- Iqbal, J., Khalid, N., Hira, P. R. (2011). Cryptosporidiosis in Kuwaiti children: association of clinical characteristics with *Cryptosporidium* species and subtypes. Journal of Medical Microbiology, 60(5): 647-652.

https://doi.org/10.1099/jmm.0.028001-0

- Liu, A., Gong, B., Liu, X., Shen, Y., Wu, Y., Zhang, W., Cao, J. (2020). A retrospective epidemiological analysis of human *Cryptosporidium* infection in China during the past three decades (1987-2018). PLoS neglected tropical diseases, 14(3): e0008146.
 - https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.00081
- Liu, H., Shen, Y., Yin, J., Yuan, Z., Jiang, Y., Xu, Y., Pan, W., Hu, Y., Cao, J. (2014). Prevalence and genetic characterization of *Cryptosporidium*, *Enterocytozoon*, *Giardia* and *Cyclospora* in diarrheal outpatients in China. BMC Infectious Diseases, 14: 25. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2334-14-25
- Mergen, K., Espina, N., Teal, A., Madison-Antenucci, S. (2020). Detecting *Cryptosporidium* in stool samples submitted to a reference laboratory. The American

- Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene, 103(1): 421. https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.19-0792
- O'Leary, J. K., Sleator, R. D., Lucey, B. (2021).

 *Cryptosporidium** spp. diagnosis* and research in the 21st century. Food and waterborne parasitology, 24: e00131.

 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fawpar.2021.e001

 31
- Robertson, L. J., Johansen, O. H., Kifleyohannes, T., Efunshile, A. M., Terefe, G. (2020). *Cryptosporidium* infections in Africa—how important is zoonotic transmission? a review of the evidence. Frontiers in veterinary science, 7: 575881. https://doi.org/10.3389/fvets.2020.575881
- Ryan, U. M., Feng, Y., Fayer, R., Xiao, L. (2021). Taxonomy and molecular epidemiology of *Cryptosporidium* and *Giardia* a 50-year perspective (1971-2021). International journal for parasitology, 51(13-14): 1099–1119. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpara.2021.08.007
- Ryan, U., Fayer, R., Xiao, L. (2014). Cryptosporidium species in humans and animals: current understanding and research needs. Parasitology, 141(13): 1667–1685. https://doi.org/10.1017/S003118201400108
- Rzeżutka, A., Kaupke, A. (2013). Occurrence and molecular identification of *Cryptosporidium* species isolated from

- cattle in Poland. Veterinary parasitology, 196(3-4): 301–306. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.vetpar.2013.03.00
- Sannella, A. R., Suputtamongkol, Y., Wongsawat, E., Cacciò, S. M. (2019). A retrospective molecular study of Cryptosporidium species and genotypes in HIV-infected patients from Thailand. Parasites & vectors, 12(1): 91. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13071-019-3348-4
- Santin M. (2020). *Cryptosporidium* and *Giardia* in Ruminants. The Veterinary clinics of North America. Food animal practice, 36(1): 223–238. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cvfa.2019.11.005
- Shrivastava, A. K., Panda, S., Kumar, S., & Sahu, P. S. (2020). Two novel genomic DNA sequences as common diagnostic targets to detect Cryptosporidium hominis and Cryptosporidium parvum: Development of quantitative polymerase chain reaction assays, and clinical evaluation. Indian journal of medical microbiology, 38(3-4): 430-440. https://doi.org/10.4103/ijmm.IJMM 20 11 <u>4</u>
- Valenzuela, C. A., Martínez, A. A. (2017). Caracterización molecular de los subtipos de la GP60 de *Cryptosporidium parvum* y *Cryptosporidium hominis* alrededor del mundo. Revista MVZ Córdoba, 22(3):

6339-6354. https://doi.org/10.21897/rmvz.1138

Yang, X., Guo, Y., Xiao, L., Feng, Y. (2021).

Molecular Epidemiology of Human

Cryptosporidiosis in Low- and Middle-Income Countries. Clinical microbiology reviews, 34(2): e00087-19. https://doi.org/10.1128/CMR.00087-19.