1	Title: Understanding the Occurrence of Cryptosporidium and Giardia in Water
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## 20 **1. Introduction**

Monitoring sources of drinking water for Cryptosporidium and Giardia has become a 21 22 common element of water quality management for public water suppliers. Yet few suppliers monitor on a self-motivated basis seeking to understand the characteristics of these water 23 quality parameters but respond almost exclusively to the motivation of external regulation. 24 25 Too often, despite the very significant expense of collecting and analyzing source water samples for Cryptosporidium and Giardia, the result is virtually all zero analytical results, i.e., 26 27 no organisms found. The practical result is that no information of value to understanding 28 the occurrence of these organisms is produced and often the incorrect inference is made 29 that the organisms are simply not present in that particular source (Hansen & Ongerth, 30 1991; Ongerth & Saaed, 2012).

31 Monitoring for these organisms has unique features that impair the ability of water quality managers to develop and implement a monitoring plan that will serve their needs for 32 33 information apart from simply meeting the minimum regulatory requirement. The purpose of this paper is to provide a compilation of information essential to understanding the 34 occurrence of Cryptosporidium and Giardia in surface waters and to provide a basis for 35 36 development and implementation of monitoring plans essential to producing data on which rational watershed and treatment management can be based. Essential information 37 38 includes the following:

Sources of the *Cryptosporidium* oocysts and *Giardia* cysts including their universal
 distribution, and the processes that cause the organisms to be transported to and
 distributed in surface water;

The means by which *Cryptosporidium* oocysts and *Giardia* cysts can be found in
representative water samples, including information essential to understanding the
limitations of sampling and analysis that must be taken into account in interpreting
analytical results whether positive or negative;

- 46 3. Implementation of a monitoring plan including expression and interpretation of
   47 typical monitoring data for both *Cryptosporidium* and *Giardia*; and
- 48 4. Independent means of checking occurrence information specific to a sampling site.

## 49 Sources and Distribution of *Cryptosporidium* and *Giardia*

Cryptosporidium oocysts and Giardia cysts originate in the feces of infected animals 50 51 including the human population. Virtually every animal population that has ever been 52 examined, both wild and domestic, from the smallest (e.g. mice and voles) to the largest (e.g. bear, elk, cattle) has been found to be a source of one or the other or both of these 53 organisms (Yoder et al, 2010a & 2010b). A significant proportion of the wide range of 54 55 species of both Cryptosporidium and of Giardia has been shown to be associated with human infection (Thompson, 2004; Xiao and Fayer, 2008). The practical implication of this is 56 that human and animal sources of *Cryptosporidium* and *Giardia* exist, wide-spread, in every 57 58 watershed world-wide and must be considered continuous sources of oocysts and cysts.

The means by which the organisms arrive in sources of water supply begins with deposition of feces to the land surface. Weather and hydrologic processes distribute and transport fecal remnants across the land surface to water, and progressively downstream. These are the same natural processes that affect other particulate and microbiological contaminants in surface water producing the characteristic uniformity of concentrations characteristic of lakes and streams. Systematic variations occur in each portion of the generation, distribution, and transport processes that will contribute ultimately to systematic and characteristic variations in the concentrations of oocysts and cysts that are the object of any water quality monitoring. The literature commonly describes shedding of both organisms preferentially by infants of any species. Natural or managed reproduction in any animal population will have relatively high and low parts of a typical annual cycle.

70 Earliest literature on Giardia in water (USEPA, 1978) suggested that the fecal contribution of a single animal (e.g. beaver) could account for the atypical presence of cysts/oocysts (Shaw, 71 1977; Lippy, 1978). This idea occurred in the period of crude and inefficient analytical 72 73 procedure before current methods were developed. It was assumed that the normal condition was absence rather than presence. Data developed more with the benefit of 74 75 improved analytical ability have produced a more realistic understanding (Hansen and 76 Ongerth, 1991). Animal populations, ranging from smallest to largest, inhabit every watershed of water supply significance in numbers sufficient and at sufficient levels of 77 infection by Cryptosporidium and Giardia that make the contribution of a single animal 78 79 completely insignificant.

80 Weather patterns vary geographically with dryer and wetter periods in the annual cycle. Fecal deposits will tend to accumulate in dry or low runoff periods including periods of 81 winter snow accumulation. Periods of higher runoff are well established as major 82 contributors to sediment and microorganism transport to surface waters. Although 83 published information on Cryptosporidium and Giardia concentrations are relatively weak, 84 85 mainly owing to the lack of recovery efficiency information, available data presented below support the occurrence of typical annual cycles in the concentrations of these organisms at 86 any selected sampling location. 87

Once oocysts and cysts enter surface water they are distributed by natural mixing processes 88 that affect all dissolved and particulate inputs. Minimum energy processes contributing to 89 mixing include molecular diffusion and Brownian motion. In lakes and reservoirs mixing also 90 occurs as a product of bulk flow through the system and due to wind and thermal currents. 91 92 The size and specific gravity of oocysts and cysts is sufficiently small that settling in the complete absence of mixing would be only a few cm/day. The uniformity of indicators of 93 dissolved and particulate distribution strongly suggests that Cryptosporidium and Giardia 94 will also be uniformly distributed. In a flowing stream dissolved and particulate inputs 95 become incorporated as a product of natural mixing that causes essentially homogeneous 96 97 distribution within a few equivalent stream widths travel downstream.

98 An indication of the magnitude of *Cryptosporidium* and *Giardia* occurrence can be gained by assessing organism source activity in the watershed of interest. Intuitively, the farthest 99 upstream remote watershed areas having the least animal activity should produce the 100 lowest levels that may be found in water. Again intuitively, in farther downstream areas, as 101 102 human activity increases ultimately including wastewater discharges, and as domestic animal activity increases, contributions to surface water concentrations should increase, 103 104 perhaps reaching a plateau suggesting a balance between increasing inputs and losses due 105 to settling, predation, and decomposition. Some data have been reported supporting these intuitive suggestions. Cryptosporidium concentrations reported for upstream and 106 downstream reaches of a Pacific Northwest river (Hansen and Ongerth, 1991) were 107 expressed in terms of oocyst production rate per unit area per day, ranging from 0.2 x 10<sup>7</sup> 108 oocysts/mi<sup>2</sup>/day from a low activity watershed area to ca. 10<sup>8</sup> oocysts/mi<sup>2</sup>/day from a 109 watershed area including dairy farming and community wastewater discharge. Giardia 110

concentrations, watershed areas, and flowrates for three rivers from protected Pacific 111 112 Northwest watersheds (Ongerth, 1989) provide the basis for calculating Giardia cyst production rates. They ranged from 0.05 x  $10^7$  cysts/mi<sup>2</sup>/day to 0.84 x  $10^7$  cysts/mi<sup>2</sup>/day 113 from protected public water supply watersheds having no unsupervised human activity. 114

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#### Detection and Monitoring for Cryptosporidium and Giardia in Water Samples 116

The problem of finding Cryptosporidium and Giardia in a water sample can aptly be 117 described as that of finding a needle in a haystack. Oocysts and cysts that have been 118 transported to water occur at levels reported in the literature ranging from 0.01/L to as 119 much as 10/L. They occur in surface waters among more than  $10^{6}$ /L of other naturally 120 121 occurring particles in the cyst-oocyst size range i.e. 1 to 20 um consisting of silt, detritus, 122 and other microorganisms. To enable finding the small number of target organisms in water samples of practical volume, i.e. 10 to 50 L, requires several steps including application of 123 sophisticated technology that must be implemented skilfully accompanied by control 124 procedures sufficient to confirm the proper functioning of the overall procedure. Overall, an 125 effective analytical procedure must include five essential components: 126

1. Collection of a representative sample of sufficient volume to permit detection; 127 128 2. A means of collecting all particles in the target size range from the water sample; 3. A means of selectively separating the target organisms from extraneous particles; 129 4. A means of identifying the target organisms in the final particle assemblage; and

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5. Both negative control to assure the lack of contamination and positive control to
measure the efficiency of recovering the target organisms from the specific water
being processed, i.e., the "matrix".

Beginning in the early 1980's (Ongerth and Stibbs, 1987), prompted by waterborne outbreaks of both giardiasis and cryptosporidiosis, a 15 year period of technological development and evolution resulted in the current most widely used and standardized analytical method, USEPA Method 1623. The laboratory procedure, accompanied by rigorous QA/QC, g consists of the following steps:

- Filtration, elution, and centrifugation to form an initial particle assemblage including
   the target organisms;
- Immunomagnetic separation (IMS) to preferentially concentrate the oocysts and
   cysts; and,
- 143 3. Immunofluorescence staining (IFA) and epi-illumination microscopy for identification
  144 and counting.

The method requires a variety of quality control procedures designed to assure 145 effectiveness of applying the method and to assure lack of contamination. But, Method 146 147 1623 does not require measurement of recovery efficiency relevant to 95% of samples analysed. The method as written requires at least one "matrix spike" sample to be analysed 148 149 for every 20 samples analysed. Typical practice among commercial and water utility labs is to analyse one spiked duplicate "matrix" sample for every 20 field samples analysed. Given 150 the wide range of recovery efficiency observed at individual sampling locations over an 151 annual cycle and even more so between different sampling locations, the few matrix spike 152

analyses simply do not permit defining the concentration of cysts and oocysts from the rawnumbers (Ongerth, submitted and under review, 2012).

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# 156 *Cryptosporidium* and *Giardia* in Water-- Data and Interpretation

157 Data on the occurrence of Cryptosporidium and Giardia are available from a variety of sources in the literature and posted on the internet present significant challenges for 158 interpretation. In reviewing data from the literature it is essential to understand the context 159 160 in which they were generated. Data are essentially of two types: 1) results of single samples collected from a variety of disparate sites designed to survey the occurrence of 161 162 Cryptosporidium and Giardia across a broad geographic area; and 2) results of multiple samples collected at one or more sites in one or more geographically related areas. Data 163 164 generated from analytical methods prior to 2002 and the general adoption of Method 1623 must be viewed with caution and are most likely biased to the low side due to the generally 165 166 lower recovery efficiencies of prior method components.

An example of Cryptosporidium and Giardia occurrence data of the first type resulted from a 167 168 survey sponsored by the AWWA RF (LeChevallier et al, 1991a, 1991b). Single samples of ca. 169 100 L collected from 66 surface water locations in 14 US states and 1 Canadian province were analysed by the ASTM/ICR method. Giardia cysts were found in 69 of 85 samples 170 171 ranging from 0.04 to 66 cysts/L (raw numbers not adjusted for recovery). Cryptosporidium oocysts were found in 74 of 85 samples, ranging from 0.07 to 484 oocysts/L (raw numbers 172 not adjusted for recovery). These data are important in describing the virtually universal 173 174 distribution of Cryptosporidium and Giardia in surface water supplies across the United 175 States. However, they are of little value to the needs of an individual water utility to 176 understand features of organism occurrence at their specific water source locations.

An example of *Giardia* occurrence data collected at an individual sample location over time is available from data posted on the New York City Department of Protection (NYC DEP) website (<u>http://www.nyc.gov/html/dep/html/drinking water/pathogen.shtml</u>). The NYC DEP analysed 50 L samples weekly at three sampling sites for the calendar years 2009 and 2010. A chronological plot of the data, Figure 1, shows a pattern of relatively high occurrence beginning in mid winter, declining to relatively low levels through the summer and autumn,





also similar but with apparent differences that should be relatable to differences in
watershed characteristics between the three sampling sites.

Another way of looking at annual data sets is in terms of cumulative frequency plots that can describe graphically both the relative magnitude, e.g. median values, and the degree of variability, e.g. slope. The NYC DEP *Giardia* data for 2009 and 2010 presented in the form of log-probability plots, Figures 2a and 2b, lend themselves to comparison of essential features of *Giardia* occurrence between the three sampling sites and between the observations in



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Figure 2a & b. Log-probability plots of NYC DEP *Giardia* raw numbers measured by EPA Method 1623
in 50 L samples from New Croton; Kensico CATLEFF; & Kensico DEL18, 2009 & 2010.

200 2009 and 2010. The median occurrence at the New Croton site was consistently lowest and
201 levels at all three sites appear to have been marginally lower in 2010 compared to 2009.

An example of *Cryptosporidium* and *Giardia* occurrence data from a Pacific Northwest river draining a mountain watershed having little human activity other than logging, Figure 3. These data are expressed as true concentration with recovery efficiency having been





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measured and taken into account. The data show a pattern of relatively high concentrations 208 209 through the summer and autumn of the first year with lower concentrations persisting 210 through the winter, continuing through the second summer. The pattern of Giardia concentrations appears to differ from that of the Cryptosporidium concentrations. The same 211 212 data when presented as log probability plots provide a means of comparison between the 213 concentrations observed for both organisms. Overall, the Giardia (O) concentrations were marginally higher than the *Cryptosporidium* ( $\Delta$ ) concentrations. Additional lines have been 214 added to Figure 4, representing data on both Cryptosporidium and Giardia published 215 previously for Pacific Northwest river locations. The Giardia concentrations on Figure 4 216

cannot be compared directly to those of the NYC DEP on Figures 2a and 2b because they are
reported as raw numbers. An approximate adjustment to the Figure 2 distributions could be
made assuming an average recovery efficiency of 40% for *Giardia*. The distributions would



Figure 4. Log-probability plots of *Cryptosporidium* and *Giardia* concentrations for Pacific Northwest
 river sampling locations.

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accordingly be higher than shown by a factor of 1/0.4 or x 2.5. At the higher adjusted levels
the NYC DEP data would be at similar levels to the late 1980's Pacific Northwest data,
Ongerth, 1989.

The usefulness of data presented in this form was illustrated using LT2 data recently posted 226 227 by the USEPA (USEPA, 2012), Figure 5 (Ongerth, 2012), summarizing Cryptosporidium occurrence (raw numbers unadjusted for recovery efficiency) from representative locations 228 throughout the USA reporting positive (non zero) field sample results. In this form the 229 230 important features of *Cryptosporidium* occurrence can be readily compared between the sampling locations. The data for each individual sampling site describe both the median 231 232 level of occurrence (the ordinate value at the median or 50th percentile) and the degree of 233 variability indicated by the slope of each distribution. The degree of risk due to *Cryptosporidium* associated with any sampling site will be proportional to both the level and
 variability. An important feature of the data summarized on Figure 5 is the difference
 between the minimum occurrence levels measured at sampling sites for which 10 L samples
 were analysed and those sites



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Figure 4. Log-probability plots of USEPA LT2 *Cryptosporidium* data for 50 river sampling locations
 representative of every region of the USA.

241 from which larger samples, 30 L and 50 L, were analysed. The limits of detection, not accounting for recovery efficiency, would be 0.1/L, 0.033/L and 0.02/L for samples of 10 L, 242 243 30 L, and 50 L samples respectively. The presence of Cryptosporidium at lower occurrence levels found by analyzing larger samples clearly illustrates that occurrence must be thought 244 of as continuous, with occurrence below the limit of detection only hidden from observation 245 246 due to the limited sample volume analysed. Finally, the data encompassed on Figure 5 247 appears to describe the entire spectrum of Cryptosporidium occurrence in surface water anywhere in the USA. Ultimately, as more data of this type are developed with 248

accompanying information on watershed area, flowrates at the time of sampling and summary information on *Cryptosporidium* and *Giardia* source activities in the watershed, calculation of watershed production rates for oocysts and cysts can be compiled and related to actual concentrations and loading rates. These data will assist in estimating likely levels at previously unsurveyed locations, and as a rough check on the quality of data produced through sampling and analysis.

# 255 Summary and Conclusions

256 The record of waterborne outbreak occurrence and evidence of universal distribution of *Cryptosporidium* and *Giardia* in surface water are ample motivation for public water supply 257 258 water quality managers and for public health regulatory professionals to have a clear understanding the occurrence and distribution of these organisms. Tools are available to 259 260 permit collection of essential data on the occurrence characteristics of *Cryptosporidium* and Giardia at any individual sampling location and to provide a rational understanding of 261 262 features essential to their management for protection of public health. An effective sampling plan should be developed following an assessment of likely sources in the 263 watershed combined with knowledge of water quality and typical annual cycles at the 264 265 sampling point. Essential factors that will provide for useful data include: 1) sampling at a minimum of 4 to 6 times representative of typical water quality periods in the year; 2) 266 267 analysis of sufficient sample volumes at each sampling time to find at least one target organism; 3) measurement of recovery efficiency with each set of samples and use of 268 recovery efficiency measurements to calculate oocyst and cyst concentrations. An initially 269 270 modest sampling program designed principally to establish the approximate concentration 271 range provides a basis for beginning to understand Cryptosporidium and Giardia occurrence

at an individual sampling location. Evaluation of the resulting data should include 272 273 comparison to indications of occurrence in other watersheds having similar characteristics. Once approximate concentration levels are known planning for more detailed monitoring is 274 275 practical. The volume of additional samples should be based on the preliminary sample 276 results with the goal of achieving on the order of 75% positive analytical results. The goal of overall data collection should be to permit clear definition of "typical" (median) 277 278 concentrations, the degree of variability...whether relatively stable or not..., and the period 279 of the year, with associated water quality characteristics, in which concentrations are typically highest. A routine program of monthly sampling and analysis should produce data 280 281 to satisfy these goals. Depending on findings additional detail can be pursued as needed. If 282 concentrations are relatively high and/or highly variable, identifying the source may be of value, particularly if the operating agency has ability to manage watershed conditions. If the 283 284 agency has no control over watershed conditions the information on likely annual cycles in 285 concentration provide important information for management of water treatment systems. 286 Attention to the quality of treatment and operation for maximum particulate removal and 287 achievement of minimum finished water turbidity in high concentration and high variability periods is important. 288

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Past inclinations to view negative (zero) results of monitoring as attractive must be set aside along with past interpretations of the simple presence as being a major problem. Spending a minimum of \$450 per sample (for analysis alone) to produce no information is not only useless, it serves no useful purpose, the results are misleading, and it is a waste of public resources.

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