

Waterborne transmission of protozoan parasites: A worldwide review of outbreaks and lessons learnt

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ABSTRACT

At least 325 water-associated outbreaks of parasitic protozoan disease have been reported. North American and European outbreaks accounted for 93% of all reports and nearly two-thirds of outbreaks occurred in North America. Over 30% of all outbreaks were documented from Europe, with the UK accounting for 24% of outbreaks, worldwide. *Giardia duodenalis* and *Cryptosporidium parvum* account for the majority of outbreaks (132; 40.6% and 165; 50.8%, respectively), *Entamoeba histolytica* and *Cyclospora cayetanensis* have been the aetiological agents in nine (2.8%) and six (1.8%) outbreaks, respectively, while *Toxoplasma gondii* and *Isoospora belli* have been responsible for three outbreaks each (0.9%) and *Blastocystis hominis* for two outbreaks (0.6%). *Balantidium coli*, the microsporidia, *Acanthamoeba* and *Naegleria fowleri* were responsible for one outbreak, each (0.3%). Their presence in aquatic ecosystems makes it imperative to develop prevention strategies for water and food safety. Human incidence and prevalence-based studies provide baseline data against which risk factors associated with waterborne and foodborne transmission can be identified. Standardized methods are required to maximize public health surveillance, while reporting lessons learned from outbreaks will provide better insight into the public health impact of waterborne pathogenic protozoa.

Key words | method standardisation, molecular methods, protozoan parasites, validation, waterborne outbreaks, worldwide

INTRODUCTION

Waterborne diseases occur worldwide, and outbreaks caused by the contamination of community water systems have the potential to cause disease in large numbers of consumers. Waterborne outbreaks have economic consequences beyond the cost of health care for affected patients, their families and contacts, and the economic costs of illness and disease, as they also create a lack of confidence in potable water quality and in the water industry in general. In addition to outbreaks caused by contaminated potable water, there are outbreaks caused following the accidental ingestion of recreational (or other) waters.

National statistics on outbreaks linked to contaminated water have been available in the USA since 1920 (Craun

1986), and since 1971, the Centers for Disease Control (CDC), the US Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA), and the Council of State and Territorial Epidemiologists have maintained a collaborative surveillance system for collecting data pertaining to the occurrence and causes of outbreaks of waterborne disease (Barwick *et al.* 2000; Lee *et al.* 2002). In Europe during 1986–96, 277 outbreaks associated with drinking and recreational water were reported from 16 European countries (Kramer *et al.* 2001).

Interest in the contamination of drinking water by enteric pathogenic protozoa has increased considerably during the past three decades and a number of protozoan parasitic infections of humans are transmitted by the waterborne route

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Table 1 | Some parasitic protozoa and the waterborne route of transmission (modified from Smith & Lloyd 1997)

| Organism | Disease/symptoms | Geographic distribution | Transmissible stage (size range) and route of infection |
|------------------------------|--|-------------------------|---|
| <i>Entamoeba histolytica</i> | Dysentery, liver abscess | Cosmopolitan | Cyst (9–14.5 µm) ingestion |
| <i>Giardia duodenalis</i> | Diarrhoea, malabsorption | Cosmopolitan | Cyst (8–12 µm) ingestion |
| <i>Cryptosporidium</i> spp. | Diarrhoea | Cosmopolitan | Oocyst (4–6 µm) ingestion |
| <i>Balantidium coli</i> | Diarrhoea, dysentery | Cosmopolitan | Cyst (50–60 µm) ingestion |
| <i>Sarcocystis</i> sp. | Diarrhoea, muscle weakness | Cosmopolitan | Oocyst (7.5–17 µm) ingestion |
| <i>Toxoplasma gondii</i> | Lymphadenopathy, fever, congenital infections | Cosmopolitan | Oocyst (10–12 µm) ingestion |
| <i>Cyclospora</i> sp. | Protracted diarrhoea | Cosmopolitan | Oocyst (8–10 µm) ingestion |
| Microsporidia | Enteritis, hepatitis, peritonitis, kerato-conjunctivitis | Cosmopolitan | Spore (1.8–5.0 µm) ingestion/contact with eye |

(Table 1). The species names *lamblia*, *intestinalis* and *duodenalis* have all been used to describe those *Giardia* parasites that infect humans. Although there is increasing agreement that the use of these species names causes confusion, there is no clear consensus as to which species name should be adopted to describe those *Giardia* that infect humans. We have chosen to use *Giardia duodenalis* (from the type species) to describe those *Giardia* that infect humans. In industrialized countries, *Giardia duodenalis* and *Cryptosporidium* spp. are of major concern as waterborne pathogens. Three features of the life-cycles of *Giardia* and *Cryptosporidium* enhance the likelihood of waterborne transmission. First, *Giardia* and *Cryptosporidium* are monoxenous, completing their life-cycles within a single host that excretes large numbers of infective transmissible stages (*Giardia* cysts and *Cryptosporidium* oocysts [(oo)cysts]) in faeces. Second, zoonotic transmission can occur, enhancing both the reservoir of infection and environmental contamination, thus enhancing the likelihood of waterborne transmission. Third, infective (oo)cysts are environmentally robust, are sufficiently small to penetrate the physical barriers of water treatment (Table 1) and are insensitive to many disinfectants used in the water industry. The chlorine insensitivity of (oo)cysts has enhanced good operational practice in treatment works and distribution systems and has driven research into alternative technologies for (oo)cyst removal in the both the physical and chemical processes of water treatment (Smith & Grimason 2003).

A variety of features, particularly the size of the transmissible stage (with the exception of *Balantidium coli*), their

environmental abundance and robustness, augment the potential for waterborne transmission. More is known of the features of *Cryptosporidium parvum* and *Giardia duodenalis* (oo)cysts that enhance survival in the environment and facilitate waterborne transmission (Table 1) than the others listed in Table 2, but many of these features are also applicable to the others identified. *Cyclospora cayetanensis* is a recently recognized waterborne parasite, which also has small oocysts (Table 1) that are environmentally robust, but no validated methods, currently used to assure the safety of drinking water supplies, are available for its detection (Herwaldt et al. 1997). Information on the waterborne transmission of *Entamoeba histolytica*, *Blastocystis hominis*, *B. coli*, *Isospora belli*, *Toxoplasma gondii*, the microsporidia, *Naegleria*, *Acanthamoeba*, *Balamuthia*, etc. is even scarcer.

METHOD

This review of waterborne outbreaks caused by protozoan pathogens is based on literature and data collected from a variety of sources including MEDLINE, electronic data from Eurosurveillance, Communicable Disease Report (CDR), Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report (MMWR), Canada Communicable Disease Report (CCDR) and published, original articles. All data are summarised in Tables 3–8. Table 3 documents waterborne giardiasis outbreaks worldwide and, for each outbreak, the parameters of time, place, estimated cases and suspected cause, as well as additional comments, are provided if available. Table 4 documents waterborne cryptosporidiosis outbreaks

Table 2 | Some features of *C. parvum* and *G. intestinalis* which enhance survival in the environment and facilitate waterborne transmission (adapted from: Smith et al. 1995)

| Feature | <i>Cryptosporidium</i> | <i>Giardia</i> |
|--|---|---|
| Large numbers of oocysts and cysts excreted by infected hosts | Approximately 10^{10} oocysts excreted during symptomatic infection | Up to 1.44×10^9 cysts per day can be excreted by an infected human |
| Low host specificity increases the potential for environmental spread and contamination | <i>C. parvum</i> infections reported from a variety of mammals including human beings, domestic livestock, pets and feral animals | <i>Giardia duodenalis</i> infections reported from a variety of animals including human beings, domestic livestock and wild animals |
| Robust nature of oocysts and cysts enhances their survival for long periods of time in favourable environments | Oocyst survival is enhanced in moist, cold environments. A proportion of oocysts can survive for > 6 months suspended in water | Cyst survival is enhanced in moist, cold environments. A proportion of cysts can survive for 1–2 months suspended in water |
| Environmental robustness of oocysts and cysts enables them to survive some water treatment processes | Waterborne outbreaks indicate that oocysts can survive physical treatment and disinfection. Oocysts are resistant to disinfectants commonly used in water treatment | Waterborne outbreaks indicate that cysts can survive some water treatment processes. Cysts are sensitive to some disinfectants commonly used in water treatment |
| Small size of oocysts and cysts aid their penetration through sand filters | 4–6 μm | 8–12 \times 7–10 μm (length \times width) |
| Few infectious oocysts and cysts need to be ingested for infection to establish in susceptible hosts | Nine oocysts can cause infection in humans; five oocysts can cause infection in gnotobiotic lambs | Median infectious dose in humans is 25–100 cysts |
| Excretion of oocysts and cysts in faeces facilitate spread to water by water-roosting birds | Viable oocysts excreted by transport hosts such as seagulls and other sewage/carrion feeders | Water-roosting, sewage/carrion feeders may transport viable cysts |

worldwide, while Table 5 documents waterborne outbreaks caused by *Entamoeba*, *Balantidium*, *Isospora*, *Toxoplasma*, *Blastocystis*, *Cyclospora*, *Acanthamoeba* and the microsporidia. Table 6 documents waterborne protozoan outbreaks associated with recreational water and Table 7 documents waterborne outbreaks associated with foreign travel or residence in endemic settings. The summary Table (Table 8) categorizes all outbreaks by aetiological agent and suspected cause, while Figure 1 illustrates their worldwide distribution.

RESULTS

The distribution of waterborne protozoan parasite outbreaks worldwide is presented in Figure 1. At least 325 outbreaks associated with waterborne transmission of one or more and rarely two pathogenic protozoa have been documented. Outbreaks reported from North America and Europe accounted for 93% of all reports, while Japan, Australia and New Zealand, and other countries accounted for 1, 2 and 4%, respectively, of documented outbreaks

(Figure 1). Nearly two-thirds of outbreaks (60%) occurred in North America, with the majority (52.6%, $n=171$) recorded from the USA. There were 7.5 times as many outbreaks recorded from the USA compared with Canada. Approximately one-third (32.6%, $n = 106$) of all outbreaks were documented from Europe, with the UK accounting for 24% of outbreaks, worldwide. Seventy-eight (73.6%) of the European outbreaks occurred in the UK, which is 2.6 times as many as recorded from mainland Europe.

Thirty-two per cent (104) of reported outbreaks were associated with drinking water systems contaminated or presumably contaminated with *Giardia lamblia*, while 23.7% (77) of reported outbreaks were caused by *C. parvum* or *Cryptosporidium* sp. which passed through filtered or unfiltered drinking water systems supplied by both small and large community water systems.

At least 8.6% (28) of reported outbreaks associated with potable water systems were due to protozoa other than *Giardia* and *Cryptosporidium*, including *E. histolytica*, *C. cayetanensis*, *T. gondii*, *B. hominis*, *B. coli*, microsporidia and *Acanthamoeba* sp. (Table 5). *Naegleria fowleri* was

Table 3 | Outbreaks of giardiasis associated with contaminated drinking water worldwide

| Month/year | Location/country | Est. cases | Suspected cause(s) (comments) | Key references |
|-------------------|--|-------------|--|---|
| Oct 1954–Mar 1955 | Portland, Oregon, USA | 50,000 | Mixed aetiology (surface water source with chlorination as only treatment) | Veazie 1969; Meyer 1973 |
| Dec 1965–Jan 1966 | Aspen, Colorado, USA | 123 | Sewage contamination of two wells serving the eastern side of the city (leaking sewer mains near the wells. Possible contamination of a mountain creek served as additional water source) | Barwick <i>et al.</i> 2000; CDR 1997 |
| Aug 1969 | Lookout Mt., Colorado, USA | 19 | Contaminated private water system. | Moore <i>et al.</i> 1969; Taylor <i>et al.</i> 1972 |
| May–Jun 1970 | Idyllwild, California, USA | 34 | Treatment deficiencies of surface water (surface water source with filtration and disinfection. Filters used intermittently) | Craun 1979 |
| May 1972 | Campground, Boulder, Colorado, USA | 28 | Surface water with disinfection only. Defective chlorinator. | Craun 1979 |
| May 1972 | Resort, High, Colorado, USA | 24 | Surface water with disinfection only. Defective chlorinator. | Craun 1979 |
| Jun–Aug 1972 | Boulder, Colorado, USA | 297 | Treatment deficiencies (surface water from one source bypassed the filtration system; alum use prior to filtration ceased prior to the outbreak) | Vernon 1973 |
| Sep 1972 | Camp, San Juan Area, Utah, USA | 60 | Use of untreated surface water | Craun 1979 |
| Dec 1972–Jan 1973 | Subdivision, Park, Colorado, USA | 12 | Septic tank seepage into wells. No treatment of well water. | Craun 1979 |
| Jul 1973 | Lodge, Grand, Colorado, USA | 16 | Use of untreated surface water | Craun 1979 |
| Aug 1973 | Farm, Tennessee, USA | 5 | Contaminated underground water supply. No treatment (storage of untreated water in a cistern inadequately sealed to prevent seepage and surface contamination. A nearby outhouse a possible source of contamination. Doubts regarding the reported findings of <i>Giardia</i> in water samples taken from the cistern) | Brady & Wolfe 1974 |
| Nov 1973–Apr 1974 | Essex, Vermont, USA | 32 | Surface water with disinfection only | Craun 1979 |
| Dec 1973–Apr 1974 | Danville Green, Vermont, USA | 20 | Surface water with disinfection only | Craun 1979 |
| Jun 1974 | Lodge, Grand, Colorado, USA | 18 | Surface water with disinfection only | Craun 1979 |
| Jun–Aug 1974 | Meriden, New York, USA | 78 | Surface water with disinfection only | Craun 1979 |
| Sep 1974 | Uinta Mts, Utah, USA | 34 | Use of untreated surface water (remote mountain stream) (several active beaver ponds, grazing sheep and a shepherd in the area) | Barbour <i>et al.</i> 1976 |
| Nov 1974–Jun 1975 | Rome, New York, USA | 4,800–5,300 | Mixed aetiology (first outbreak where a <i>G. lamblia</i> cyst was detected in the municipal water supply. Surface water source with chlorination as only treatment. Human settlements within the watershed area. Use of chloramines for disinfection) | CDC 1975; Shaw <i>et al.</i> 1977 |
| Sep 1975 | Idaho, USA | 9 | Use of untreated surface water | Craun 1979 |
| 1976–1979 | Craeagle, Plumas County, California, USA | 42 | Basically unknown (2 of 3 beavers trapped in the watershed were <i>Giardia</i> -positive) | Keifer <i>et al.</i> 1980 |
| Feb 1976 | Office and residence, Grand, Colorado, USA | 12 | Use of untreated surface water | Craun 1979 |

Table 3 | (continued)

| Month/year | Location/country | Est. cases | Suspected cause(s) (comments) | Key references |
|--------------|--|------------|--|--------------------------------------|
| May 1976 | Camas, Washington, USA | 600 | Treatment deficiencies (first outbreak involving a filtered water supply. Three infected beavers within foraging distance of the water intakes. Chlorination equipment failure; numerous deficiencies in the condition and operation of the pressure filters prior to the outbreak; ineffective chemical pretreatment) | CDC 1977c; Kirner <i>et al.</i> 1978 |
| Jun 1976 | Camp, Rocky Mt. Nat. Park, Estes Park, Colorado, USA | 27 | Mixed aetiology (surface water source with disinfection only. <i>Giardia</i> cysts in a water sample from a beaver pond located upstream from the water reservoir) | CDC 1977a, c |
| Apr–May 1977 | Berlin, New Hampshire, USA | c. 7,000 | Mixed aetiology (evidence for occurrence of two simultaneous outbreaks . Drinking water originated from two rivers and two largely independent water systems. Detection of <i>Giardia</i> cysts in raw and finished water from both water systems. A 30-year-old physical plant for one of the rivers had numerous deficiencies. For the second river, a new treatment plant just put into service; lack of experience; faulty construction of a common wall separating filtered and unfiltered water. Spring thawing in April may have caused simultaneous run-off of contaminated ground material into the rivers. Possible human faecal contamination of the streams due to recreational activities. Direct sewage discharges along the upstream portion of one of the two water systems. A <i>Giardia</i> -positive beaver) | CDC 1977c; Lippy 1978 |
| Jun 1977 | Campground, Utah, USA | 7 | Use of untreated well water influenced by surface water (stream) (a beaver dam located half a mile upstream from the well) | CDC 1977a |
| Jul 1977 | Hotel, Glacier Park, Montana, USA | 55 | Use of untreated surface water | Craun 1979 |
| Jul 1977 | W. Sulfur Springs, Montana, USA | 246 | Surface water with disinfection only | Craun 1979 |
| Mar–Apr 1978 | Vail, Colorado, USA | 5,000 | Contaminated water source. Treatment deficiencies (sewer line obstruction and leakage of sewage into the water source. No chemical pretreatment; filter breakthrough and interruption of chlorination prior to the outbreak) | CDC 1978 |
| Jul 1978 | Utah, USA | 18 | Contaminated water source | Haley <i>et al.</i> 1980 |
| Aug 1978 | Washington, USA | 23 | Contaminated non-community water system | Haley <i>et al.</i> 1980 |
| Nov 1978 | New York, USA | 130 | Contaminated community water system | Haley <i>et al.</i> 1980 |
| 1979 | Estes Park, Colorado, USA | 53 | Contaminated water source. Treatment deficiencies (alum did not provide a good floc) | CDC 1980 |
| 1979 | Government camp, Oregon, USA | ND | Contaminated municipal water supply (<i>Giardia</i> cysts in beaver faeces from the watershed) | Keifer <i>et al.</i> 1980 |
| 1979 | Zig Zag, Oregon, USA | ND | Contaminated municipal water supply (<i>Giardia</i> cysts in beaver faeces from the watershed) | Keifer <i>et al.</i> 1980 |
| Sep–Dec 1979 | Bradford, Pennsylvania, USA | 3,500 | Contaminated water source. Treatment deficiencies (infected beavers within the watershed. Interrupted and ineffective chlorination) | CDC 1980; Lippy 1981 |

Table 3 | (continued)

| Month/year | Location/country | Est. cases | Suspected cause(s) (comments) | Key references |
|-------------------------|--|------------|---|---|
| 1980 | Private campground, Arizona, USA | 2,000 | Sewage-contaminated drinking water (direct cross-connection between the potable water pipes and a pipe carrying sewage effluent for irrigation) | Starko <i>et al.</i> 1980 |
| Jun–Aug 1980 | Red Lodge, Montana, USA | 780 | Mixed aetiology (very heavy water runoff, resulted from warm sunny weather and snow darkened by ash fall from the Mt St Helens volcanic eruption of 18 May 1980. Unfiltered and inadequately chlorinated surface water; antiquated water system; no distribution system storage; individual service water meters or barriers) | Weniger <i>et al.</i> 1985 |
| Aug 1981 | Colorado, USA | 100 | Unfiltered surface water source | Hopkins <i>et al.</i> 1985 |
| Fall 1981 | 100 Mile House, British Columbia, Canada | 60 | Contamination of the municipal water system. Surface water source with chlorination as only treatment (beavers and muskrats the suspected source of contamination) | Bryck <i>et al.</i> 1988 |
| Sep 1981 | Colorado, USA | 29 | Treatment deficiencies (surface water source; filter off line) | Hopkins <i>et al.</i> 1985 |
| Nov 1981 | Ski resort, Aspen Highlands, Colorado, USA | 40 | Contaminated raw water and water from the distribution system. Treatment deficiencies (shortened chlorine contact time due to a pump failure; inadequate filter. <i>Giardia</i> cysts in water specimens both before and after treatment) | Istre <i>et al.</i> 1984; Hopkins <i>et al.</i> 1985 |
| Nov 1981 | Colorado, USA | 85 | Treatment deficiencies (back up of unfiltered beaver pond water into a spring house) | Hopkins <i>et al.</i> 1985 |
| Dec 1981 | Colorado, USA | 135 | Treatment deficiencies (surface water source; no pretreatment before filtration) | Hopkins <i>et al.</i> 1985 |
| Jan 1982 | Colorado, USA | ND | Treatment deficiencies (underground water source, shallow well, adjacent to a river; no pretreatment before filtration) | Hopkins <i>et al.</i> 1985 |
| Aug 1982 | Reno, Nevada, USA | 324 | Contaminated water supply reservoir. Chlorination only (the city has been supplied in part by surface water chemically coagulated, settled and chlorinated, but not filtered. <i>Giardia</i> cysts detected in the water supply. A <i>Giardia</i> -infected beaver in one of the reservoirs) | Navin <i>et al.</i> 1985 |
| Winter 1982 | Banff, Alberta, Canada | > 150 | Town water supply with chlorination as only treatment. Contaminated beaver swimming in the town reservoir | McClure & McKenzie 1988 |
| Jul 1982 | Colorado, USA | 28 | Unfiltered surface water source. Heavy runoff | Hopkins <i>et al.</i> 1985 |
| Sep 1982 | Colorado, USA | 28 | Contaminated unfiltered surface water source | Hopkins <i>et al.</i> 1985 |
| Oct 1982 | Mjövik, Sweden | 56 | Sewage related incident. Construction deficiencies (17-year-old water distribution system damaged by tree roots. Faulty sewer construction; possibly a defective sand-filter) | Neringer <i>et al.</i> 1987 |
| Late fall 1982–Apr 1983 | Edmonton, Alberta, Canada | > 895 | Basically unknown (never proven to be waterborne. Deficiencies in the municipal water treatment facilities the probable cause of the outbreak) | McClure & McKenzie 1988; Harley 1988 |
| Feb 1983 | Colorado, USA | 50 | Treatment deficiencies (surface water source; filtration with inadequate pretreatment) | Hopkins <i>et al.</i> 1985 |

Table 3 | (continued)

| Month/year | Location/country | Est. cases | Suspected cause(s) (comments) | Key references |
|-------------------|---|------------|--|---|
| Jul 1983 | Red Lodge, Montana, USA | 100 | Contaminated surface water source (increased melt runoff due to volcanic eruption. Animals and human usage within the watershed) | Erlandsen & Bemrick 1988 |
| Dec 1983–Apr 1984 | McKeesport, Pennsylvania, USA | 347 | Mixed aetiology (numerous water line breaks due to low temperatures. Treatment deficiencies. Human sewage contamination of surface water supplies) | Erlandsen & Bemrick 1988; Sykora <i>et al.</i> 1988 |
| Dec 1983 | Pittston, Pennsylvania, USA | ND | Contaminated water source | Sykora <i>et al.</i> 1988; Rose <i>et al.</i> 1991 |
| Mar 1984 | Wilkes-Barre, Scranton, Pennsylvania, USA | ND | Unknown | Sykora <i>et al.</i> 1988 |
| Nov 1984 | Houtzale, Pennsylvania, USA | ND | Contaminated water source | Sykora <i>et al.</i> 1988; Rose <i>et al.</i> 1991 |
| Jul 1985 | Bristol, UK | 108 | Contaminated water system (possible contamination during engineering work on the water main serving the affected area of the city) | Jephcott <i>et al.</i> 1986; Galbraith <i>et al.</i> 1987 |
| Nov 1985–Jan 1986 | Pittsfield, Massachusetts, USA | 703 | Mixed aetiology (contaminated water supply reservoirs; infected animals within the watershed; signs of human recreational use; chlorination only; a community water reservoir, ceased for three years, was put into use again just prior to the outbreak) | Kent <i>et al.</i> 1988 |
| Jan 1986 | Trailer park, Vermont, USA | 37 | Contaminated park water. Treatment deficiencies (a stream as water source. Contact times for disinfection estimated to be only a few minutes during periods of peak water use. Two <i>G. lamblia</i> cysts in filtered water. A beaver dam and numerous homes with septic field sewage systems near the park. Recent release of a large volume of water into the stream following destruction of a beaver dam) | Birkhead <i>et al.</i> 1989 |
| Jun–Aug 1986 | Penticton, British Columbia, Canada | 362 | Contaminated surface water source. Chlorination as only treatment (a reservoir pond containing <i>Giardia</i> -infected beaver the suspected source of contamination) | Moorehead <i>et al.</i> 1990 |
| Oct 1986 | Penticton, British Columbia, Canada | ND | Contaminated surface water source (the second outbreak in the same area. Despite improvements on the reservoir, the second outbreak occurred when the implicated water source was re-instituted) | Moorehead <i>et al.</i> 1990 |
| Christmas 1986 | Ski resort, Sälen, Sweden | >1,400 | Sewage contaminated drinking water (a simultaneous outbreak of giardiasis and amoebiasis. Overflow of sewage water into the drinking water system) | Andersson & de Yong 1989 |
| Feb 1989 | Colorado, USA | 19 | Treatment deficiency of river water | Herwaldt <i>et al.</i> 1992 |
| Apr 1989 | New York, USA | 308 | Treatment deficiency of reservoir water | Herwaldt <i>et al.</i> 1992 |
| Jun 1989 | Prison, New York, USA | 152 | Treatment deficiency of reservoir water | Herwaldt <i>et al.</i> 1992 |
| Jul 1989 | New York, USA | 53 | Treatment deficiency of lake water | Herwaldt <i>et al.</i> 1992 |
| Mar 1990 | Lodge, Alaska, USA | 18 | Consumption of untreated surface water (river) (use of untreated river water as the usual water source, well water, had been frozen at that time) | Herwaldt <i>et al.</i> 1992 |
| Mar 1990 | Resort, Vermont, USA | 24 | Treatment deficiency of lake water | Herwaldt <i>et al.</i> 1992 |

Table 3 | (continued)

| Month/year | Location/country | Est. cases | Suspected cause(s) (comments) | Key references |
|--------------|---------------------------------------|------------|---|--|
| Jun 1990 | Two block of flats, Edinburgh, UK | 9 | Faecal contaminated water tank (probably a deliberate post-treatment contamination) | Ramsay & Marsh 1990; Bell <i>et al.</i> 1991 |
| Aug 1990 | Colorado, USA | 123 | Treatment deficiency of spring water (spring vulnerable to contamination above ground due to land erosion) | Herwaldt <i>et al.</i> 1992 |
| Jul 1991 | Recreation area, California, USA | 15 | Distribution system deficiency (a cross-connection at the water storage tanks resulted in contaminated surface water entering a distribution system using a spring water source) | Moore <i>et al.</i> 1993 |
| Sep 1991 | Park, Pennsylvania, USA | 13 | Contaminated water source (well and underground storage tanks). Treatment deficiency (coliforms present in a water sample. Undetermined source of contamination of either the well or the underground storage tanks) | Moore <i>et al.</i> 1993 |
| Nov 1991 | Rural community, West Midlands, UK | 31 | Contaminated water reservoir. Treatment deficiencies (village water abstracted originally from a ground water supply. Livestock grazing in the area the suspected source of a reservoir's contamination. Irregular chlorination of the water supply) | Furtado <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Mar 1992 | Trailer park, Idaho, USA | 15 | Consumption of chlorinated, unfiltered groundwater (well) | Moore <i>et al.</i> 1993 |
| Mar 1992 | Nevada, USA | 80 | Contaminated surface water source (lake). Treatment deficiency (low levels of <i>Giardia</i> cysts in unfiltered surface water. Chlorination of finished water not consistently maintained) | Moore <i>et al.</i> 1993 |
| Jan 1993 | Trailer park, Pennsylvania, USA | 20 | Treatment deficiency of well water (sewage contamination of filtered and chlorinated well water. <i>G. lamblia</i> and <i>E. coli</i> in tap water) | Kramer <i>et al.</i> 1996 |
| Sep 1993 | Subdivision, South Dakota, USA | 7 | Consumption of untreated groundwater (well) (untreated well water contaminated by a nearby creek. <i>Giardia</i> cysts in well water. Faecal coliforms in well and tap water) | Kramer <i>et al.</i> 1996 |
| Feb–Apr 1994 | Temagami, Ontario, Canada | c. 300 | Contaminated drinking water (high concentrations of <i>Giardia</i> cysts in treated water. Two separate surface water supplies. Leakage from the storm and sanitary sewage systems aggravated by surface runoff following a winter thaw the suspected source of contamination of one of the supplies) | Wallis <i>et al.</i> 2001 |
| Mar 1994 | Correctional facility, Tennessee, USA | 304 | Distribution system deficiency (cross-connection between potable and wastewater lines. Potable water used to cool the seals of a wastewater pump. A fall in pressure in the potable water system probably caused wastewater to flow back into the line for potable water. High concentrations of <i>Giardia</i> cysts in tap water) | Kramer <i>et al.</i> 1996 |
| May 1994 | New Hampshire, USA | 18 | Contaminated reservoir. Unfiltered, chlorinated surface water. Treatment deficiencies (suspicions for inadequate chlorine contact times) | Kramer <i>et al.</i> 1996 |
| May 1994 | New Hampshire, USA | 36 | Unfiltered, chlorinated surface water (lake). Sewage contaminated finished water. Treatment deficiencies (suspicions for inadequate chlorine contact times) | Kramer <i>et al.</i> 1996 |
| Jul 1995 | Washington, USA | 87 | Distribution treatment deficiency of well water (contamination of multiple community wells due to an illegal cross-connection between a domestic water supply and an irrigation system at a plant nursery) | Lee <i>et al.</i> 2002 |

Table 3 | (continued)

| Month/year | Location/country | Est. cases | Suspected cause(s) (comments) | Key references |
|-------------------|---------------------------------------|------------|--|---|
| Jul 1995 | Revelstoke, British Columbia, Canada | ND | Unknown (a simultaneous outbreak of giardiasis and campylobacteriosis. Five cases of cryptosporidiosis reported as well) | Ong <i>et al.</i> 1999 |
| Aug 1995 | Alaska, USA | 10 | Consumption of untreated spring water | Levy <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Dec 1995 | New York, USA | 1,449 | Treatment deficiency of lake water (although no identified interruptions in chlorination at the water plant, post-filter water turbidity readings, serving as an index of the effectiveness of filtration, exceeded the regulated limit before and during the outbreak) | Levy <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Jun 1997 | Campground, Oregon, USA | 100 | Distribution treatment deficiency of well/spring water (non-community system combined untreated groundwater and chlorinated spring water. Rodents the suspected cause of contamination of a storage reservoir. No data regarding <i>Giardia</i> in the rodents) | Barwick <i>et al.</i> 2000 |
| Jun 1997 | New York, USA | 50 | Mixed aetiology (chlorinated, unfiltered lake water. Beaver found in a valve box near the reservoir; no data for presence of <i>Giardia</i> in the beaver. Treatment deficiency) | Barwick <i>et al.</i> 2000 |
| May 1998 | Florida, USA | 7 | Consumption of untreated well water | Barwick <i>et al.</i> 2000 |
| Dec 1998–Jan 1999 | House, Florida, USA | 2 | Consumption of untreated well water (recent rainfall and possible flooding the suspected causes of contamination) | Barwick <i>et al.</i> 2000; Lee <i>et al.</i> 2002 |
| May–Aug 2000 | Community, Rheinland-Pfalz, Germany | 8 | Consumption of contaminated drinking water. No filtration | Gornik <i>et al.</i> 2000 |
| Jun 2000 | Camp, Minnesota, USA | 12 | Consumption of untreated well water (possible contamination of well by animal faeces) | Lee <i>et al.</i> 2002 |
| Jul 2000 | Rafting trip, New Mexico, USA | 4 | Unknown | Lee <i>et al.</i> 2002 |
| Aug 2000 | Resort, Colorado, USA | 27 | Treatment deficiency of river water (a pump failure and a defective filter cartridge resulted in river water entering the drinking water holding tank without filtration. <i>Giardia</i> cysts in a sample from the water holding tank. No information regarding chlorine levels from water samples) | Lee <i>et al.</i> 2002 |
| Sep 2000 | House, New Hampshire, USA | 5 | Treatment deficiency of river water | Lee <i>et al.</i> 2002 |
| Sep 2000 | House, Florida, USA | 2 | Distribution system deficiency of well water | Lee <i>et al.</i> 2002 |
| Nov 2000 | Rengsdorf, Neuwied Germany | ND | Contamination of drinking water. Chlorination as only treatment | Messner 2001 |
| Apr–Jul 2001 | Bay of Plenty & Manawatu, New Zealand | 14 | Treatment deficiency of creek water (poor maintenance of a creek drinking water supply treatment at a farm. Removal of a course filter at the creek due to ongoing clogging prior to the outbreak. Replacement of the under-sink filter cartridge with one of unknown specifications from a door-to-door salesman. Subsequent person-to-person-transmission) | Webber 2002 |
| Nov–Dec* | Creston, British Columbia, Canada | 83 | Unknown | Isaac-Renton <i>et al.</i> 1994 |
| Jan–Mar * | Creston, British Columbia, Canada | 124 | Contaminated community drinking water supply (infected beaver found above the drinking water intake. No change in drinking water source and no introduction of drinking water treatment of any kind after the first outbreak in the area) | Wallis 1987; Isaac-Renton <i>et al.</i> 1994 |

Table 3 | (continued)

| Month/year | Location/country | Est. cases | Suspected cause(s) (comments) | Key references |
|------------|---|------------|---|---------------------------|
| ND | Kimberley, British Columbia, Canada | ND | Surface water source with chlorination as only treatment | Wallis 1987 |
| ND | Botwood Peterview, Newfoundland, Canada | ND | Treatment deficiencies (chlorination as only treatment, minimal contact time before water reached the first customer) | Wallis <i>et al.</i> 1996 |
| ND | Corner Brook, Newfoundland, Canada | ND | Treatment deficiencies (chlorination as only treatment, minimal contact time before water reached the first customer) | Wallis <i>et al.</i> 1996 |
| ND | St Quentin, New Brunswick, Canada | ND | Treatment deficiencies (chlorination as only treatment, minimal contact time before water reached the first customer) | Wallis <i>et al.</i> 1996 |
| ND | Plaster Rock, New Brunswick, Canada | ND | Treatment deficiencies (chlorination as only treatment, minimal contact time before water reached the first customer) | Wallis <i>et al.</i> 1996 |

ND: no data.

*No further detailed data available.

responsible for one outbreak associated with a swimming pool (Table 6) and an outbreak of *B. hominis* had unknown origin (Table 6). The water–food connection became apparent for two of those outbreaks, as disease occurred following the consumption of fresh raspberries and vegetables contaminated by irrigation waters containing *C. cayetanensis* and *I. belli* oocysts, respectively (Table 6). To date, no study has adequately estimated the proportion of foodborne diseases associated with contaminated water (Rose *et al.* 2001).

Outbreaks associated with recreational water

Of the reported outbreaks of giardiasis and cryptosporidiosis, 13.6% (18) and 50.3% (83), respectively, were associated with contaminated recreational water (Table 6). Swimming in contaminated waters and swimming pools is now recognized as an important transmission route for *Cryptosporidium* and *Giardia*. Contamination of natural bodies of recreational water can result from numerous sources, including urban and non-urban runoff, industrial pollution, storm waters, and human or animal wastes (Smith *et al.* 1995; Kramer *et al.* 1998), whereas contamination in swimming pools is often associated with accidental faecal contamination, particularly of toddler and paddling pools, but can also be caused by poorly constructed and/or maintained plumbing (Joce *et al.* 1991).

Outbreaks associated with free-living amoebae

Naegleria, *Acanthamoeba* and *Balamuthia* are aerobic, free-living, opportunistic human pathogens that live in aquatic habitats and feed on bacteria. Rarely, *Naegleria*, *Acanthamoeba* and *Balamuthia* invade the human central nervous system, causing primary amoebic meningoencephalitis (*N. fowleri*) and granulomatous amoebic encephalitis (*Acanthamoeba*, *Balamuthia mandrillaris*), which are fatal in most instances. Waterborne transmission, acquired through forceful inhalation, when amoebae are forced up nasal passages when jumping into warm (optimal temp. for *N. fowleri* = 40–45°C; optimal temp. for *Acanthamoeba* = 25–30°C) calm, surface waters or poorly maintained swimming pools, is uncommon. Excluding the more numerous individual case reports, *Naegleria* was responsible for a large-scale outbreak

Table 4 | Outbreaks of cryptosporidiosis associated with contaminated drinking water worldwide

| Month/year | Location/country | Est. cases | Suspected cause (comments) | Key references |
|-------------------|---------------------------|------------|---|--|
| 1983 | Cobham, UK | 16 | Most likely through contaminated spring (water partly derived from the spring, chlorinated, softened and filtered. Although no detection of the parasite, the geographical distribution of the cases suggested waterborne spread of the disease) | Galbraith <i>et al.</i> 1987 |
| May–Jul 1984 | Braun Station, Texas, USA | c. 2,000 | Mixed aetiology (two distinct outbreaks ; one in May and one in July. Artesian well used as water supply; chlorination only; potential treatment deficiency; influence of the well water by the community's sewage system) | Solo-Gabriele & Neumeister 1996 |
| 1985 | Cobham, UK | > 50 | Most likely through contaminated spring (same area as in 1983. Period of heavy rainfall preceded) | Galbraith <i>et al.</i> 1987 |
| May–Jun 1986 | Sheffield, UK | 537 | Contaminated water reservoir (heavy rainfall preceded. Oocysts detected in faecal samples from grazing cattle on farms adjoining the reservoir area, in faeces from a brown trout caught in the reservoir, and in surface waters from the reservoir and feeder streams) | Smith & Rose 1990; Craun <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Jan–Feb 1987 | Carrollton, Georgia, USA | c. 13,000 | Treatment deficiencies of river water (first cryptosporidiosis outbreak associated with a filtered water supply. Evidence of primary pollution of the river by a sewage overflow, farm effluent and runoff from cattle grazing areas. Inadequate coagulation, non-operational flocculators, restarting of filters without backwashing. Changes in water treatment around the holiday season. Potential further secondary spread by person-to-person transmission) | Hayes <i>et al.</i> 1989; Solo-Gabriele & Neumeister 1996 |
| Apr 1988 | Ayrshire, UK | Many 100s | Contaminated public water system (first cryptosporidiosis outbreak associated with a fully UK public water supply. Oocysts detected in the treated chlorinated water supply system. Absence of faecal bacterial indicators. No oocysts in untreated water. Post-treatment contamination, rather than a failure of the water-treatment processes. Contamination of a break-pressure tank containing final water for distribution due to irregular seepage of oocyst-containing water, that increased during heavy rains in late March. Cattle slurry sprayed on ground in the vicinity of the break-pressure tank the likely source of contamination of treated water) | Smith <i>et al.</i> 1989; Barer & Wright 1990 |
| Dec 1988–Apr 1989 | Swindon & Oxfordshire, UK | 516 | Contaminated raw river water (Thames) (three water treatment works located in the upper Thames catchment contaminated with oocysts. Agricultural input strongly suspected in one of the water plants. Much of the area adjacent to the river used as a pasture for cattle. Mild weather during winter 1988, increased grazing and heavy rainfall in November 1988. Obvious failure of normal treatment to remove oocysts, no faults in any of the three treatment works observed) | Richardson <i>et al.</i> 1991; Poulton <i>et al.</i> 1991 |
| Jan–Jun 1989 | Loch Lomond, UK | 442 | Multiplicity of risk factors. Treatment deficiencies of loch water (surface water) (oocysts detected in loch water, which was microstrained and chlorinated, but not filtered. Post-treatment contamination also suspected. Contact with patients with symptoms, travelling away from home and contact with farm or other animals contributed to the outbreak) | Badenoch 1990; Barer & Wright 1990; Craun <i>et al.</i> 1998 |

Table 4 | (continued)

| Month/year | Location/country | Est. cases | Suspected cause (comments) | Key references |
|-------------------|--|------------|---|--|
| Feb–May 1989 | SE Thames, UK | 65 | Unknown (water considered as possible source) | Joseph <i>et al.</i> 1991; Craun <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Dec 1989–May 1990 | N Humberside, UK | 477 | Treatment deficiencies of river water (reservoir filled by river water. Part of flow bypassed slow sand filters. Closure of the intake pumps; use of bottom draw-off point and turbidity readings higher than normal. Heavy rainfall between 10 and 20 December 1989) | Badenoch 1990; Craun <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Dec 1990–Jan 1991 | Isle of Thanet, UK | 47 | Treatment deficiencies of river water (wells supplemented by Stour River. Possible accidental contamination of river water during autumn, when slurry was washed off farmland; heavy local rainfall; the river in spate; half of treatment process shut down due to mechanical problems and increased rainfall turbidity. No oocysts identified in untreated or treated water. River Stour treatment plant designed for short-term use, but operated for most of 1990 due to low rainfall and drought conditions) | Joseph <i>et al.</i> 1991; Craun <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Jan–Apr 1991 | S London, UK | 44 | Consumption of tap water (no evidence of environmental contamination; apparent breaches or operational irregularities in the water distribution system. No indication of a problem through routine monitoring indices) | Maguire <i>et al.</i> 1995 |
| Aug 1991 | Picnic facility, Berks County, Pennsylvania, USA | 551 | Treatment deficiencies of well water (treatment limited to chlorination. More than one pathogens in raw water, but only <i>Cryptosporidium</i> in stool samples. Septic tank effluent and infiltration from a nearby creek the potential sources of contamination) | Solo-Gabriele & Neumeister 1996 |
| Feb–May 1992 | Jackson County, Oregon, USA | 15,000 | Mixed aetiology (two distinct water supplies possibly involved, one in Medford and the other in Talent city. Medford used a spring as water source. Chlorination only; evidence of influence by surface water. Talent's water source is a river which receives treated wastewater. Drought conditions limited the dilution of wastewater by natural stream flow. Small rainfall contributed to contaminated runoff from adjacent agricultural land. Numerous plant deficiencies) | Solo-Gabriele & Neumeister 1996 |
| Apr 1992 | Rural community, N England, UK | 63 | Consumption of unboiled domestic tap water (public supply both chlorinated and filtered. No oocysts identified in pre- and post-treatment waters) | Furtado <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Apr 1992 | Boarding school, NW England, UK | 42 | Contaminated surface water supply (private surface water supply. Chlorination only. Slurry spraying on adjacent land the suspected source of contamination) | Furtado <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Jun–Nov 1992 | Torbay, UK | 108 | Mixed aetiology (two rivers and a well in riverside gravelled deposits. Contamination of the well or failure in the filtration of river water. No oocysts identified in raw or treated water samples. Increased turbidity of the well in week before the outbreak) | Craun <i>et al.</i> 1998; Furtado <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Nov 1992 | Urban community, Mersey, UK | 47 | Consumption of unboiled tap water (public ground water supply chlorinated and filtered. No routine testing in raw water prior to the outbreak. No oocysts identified in raw or treated water) | Furtado <i>et al.</i> 1998 |

Table 4 | (continued)

| Month/year | Location/country | Est. cases | Suspected cause (comments) | Key references |
|-------------------|--|------------|---|--|
| Nov–Dec 1992 | Bradford, UK | 125 | Contaminated tap water. Treatment deficiencies (heavy rains in the catchment area of the reservoir supplying raw water to a single treatment works, parts of which built in 1860. Oocysts identified in treated water from that source and in sand from one of the filters. A slow sand filter was just put back in service after routine maintenance, thus, had not reached peak efficiency. Increased turbidity and colour in treated water) | Atherton <i>et al.</i> 1995; Craun <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Nov 1992–Feb 1993 | N Warrington, UK | 1,840 | Contaminated groundwater source (deep wells in sandstone. Shaft-3 from Houghton Green water treatment works, sunk at the turn of the century, the most plausible route of entry of pollution as, during very heavy rainfall in October and November 1992, it drained surface floodwater from a field containing livestock faeces, thereby bypassing natural sandstone filtration. Seepage of foul sewage into Houghton Green shaft-1 from a cross-connection the second possible mechanism of contamination) | Bridgman <i>et al.</i> 1995; Craun <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Mar 1993 | Kitchener-Waterloo, Ontario, Canada | c. 23,900 | Contaminated water source. Treatment deficiencies of well and river water (wells under influence of Grand River bank. Use of surface water from a newly constructed filtration plant. Agricultural activity in Grand River watershed combined with heavy snowmelt and spring runoff. High turbidities. Ozone applied, but not at levels sufficient for disinfection) | Craun <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Mar–Apr 1993 | Milwaukee, Wisconsin, USA | 403,000 | Treatment deficiencies of lake water (the largest documented outbreak of waterborne disease in US; potentially 112 deaths. Two water-treatment plants, located in the northern and in the southern >part of the city, obtained water from Lake Michigan. Increased turbidity and bacterial counts of treated water at the southern plant to unprecedented levels from March 23 to April 5. Plant temporarily closed on 9 April. Problems at other plants as well due to bad quality of Lake Michigan source water at that time. Oocysts identified in water from ice made in southern Milwaukee during those weeks. More than a 100-fold increase in the rate of isolation of <i>Cryptosporidium</i> . Apparently inadequate removal by the coagulation and filtration process of oocysts entered the southern water-treatment plant. Recent change in the coagulant (PACl instead of alum). Lack of historical use records. Recycling of filter backwash water. Possible sources of oocysts included cattle along two rivers that flow into the Milwaukee harbour, slaughterhouses and human sewage. Rivers swelled by severe spring rains and snow runoff before the outbreak may have transported oocysts into Lake Michigan and from there to the intake of the southern water-treatment plant) | MacKenzie <i>et al.</i> 1994; Fox & Lytle 1996 |
| Mar–Apr 1993 | US Coast Guard cutter, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, USA | 42 | Consumption of contaminated city water (cutter docked in Milwaukee on 21 March 1993, and filled its tanks with city water during the massive cryptosporidiosis outbreak. No oocysts in a water sample taken from the tanks, probably due to its relatively small volume, 40lt) | Moss <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Apr 1993 | Private home, Yakima County, Washington, USA | 7 | Consumption of untreated groundwater (use of water from a shallow private well contaminated by surface water. Presumptive oocysts in the well water. Potential influence by melting snow and spring rains contaminated by cattle, sheep, or elk faeces) | Dworkin <i>et al.</i> 1996; Kramer <i>et al.</i> 1996; Solo-Gabriele & Neumeister 1996 |

Table 4 | (continued)

| Month/year | Location/country | Est. cases | Suspected cause (comments) | Key references |
|-------------------|--|------------|--|--|
| Apr–May 1993 | Wessex, UK | 40 | Contaminated tap water. Chlorination as only treatment (wells used as water supply. Oocysts in the distribution system reservoir, but not in treated water. No source or cause of contamination identified) | Craun <i>et al.</i> 1998; Furtado <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| May 1993 | Medieval building, N Humberland, UK | 6 | Contaminated water supply (consumption of unboiled water from a private untreated water supply dating from the 19th century. Presence of carcasses of three lambs in a collection chamber connected with the water supply, or run-off of slurry from surrounding fields, the presumed sources of contamination. <i>Campylobacter</i> also isolated from two of the six cases with cryptosporidiosis; five further cases with <i>Campylobacter</i> only) | Duke <i>et al.</i> 1996 |
| Jun 1993 | Yorkshire, UK | 97 | Consumption of tap water. Treatment deficiencies (local public water supply chlorinated and filtered. No oocysts identified in raw or treated water. Poor quality raw surface water and a chlorination failure for a period of over 10 hours at the time of the outbreak) | Furtado <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Jul 1993 | Urban community, Wessex, UK | 27 | Consumption of tap water (public surface water supply chlorinated and filtered. No oocysts identified in treated water) | Furtado <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Aug 1993 | Lake resort, Cook County, Minnesota, USA | 27 | Basically unknown. Contaminated lake water (<i>Cryptosporidium</i> oocysts and <i>Giardia</i> cysts in lake water, but not in finished water. An episode of low water pressure within the distribution system during the outbreak. Backflow from a toilet facility, effluent from a resort's septic tank system and leakage of septic tank effluent into a raw water intake line that flowed under negative pressure, the suspected sources of contamination) | Kramer <i>et al.</i> 1996; Solo-Gabriele & Neumeister 1996 |
| Dec 1993–May 1994 | Clark County (+ Las Vegas), Nevada, USA | 103 | Most likely through consumption of tap water (first cryptosporidiosis outbreak in a potable water system with no apparent treatment deficiencies or breakdowns. Modern facility, excellent water quality. Epidemiologic data implicated the public water supply. Only presumptive oocysts in the source, Lake Mead, in finished water, and in filter backwash sampled later. A treated wastewater discharge, sewage from boats moored at a nearby marina, a nearby bathing beach and post-contamination of treated water, the possible sources of contamination. Outbreak coincided with the annual turnover of the lake caused by the weakening of the lake's thermocline. At least 20 deaths among HIV-infected people due to cryptosporidiosis) | Roefer <i>et al.</i> 1996; Kramer <i>et al.</i> 1996; Solo-Gabriele & Neumeister 1996 |
| Late summer 1994 | Building, Hiratsuka, Kanagawa, Japan | 461 | Contaminated drinking water (oocysts detected in tap water and other water samples taken from several water tanks and pits of the building. Post-treatment contamination of municipal drinking water with sanitary sewage through the connecting pipes. Accidental malfunction of the drainage system the suspected cause. Wastewater pump found broken at the time of the outbreak) | Kuroki <i>et al.</i> 1996 |
| Aug–Sep 1994 | Walla Walla, Washington State, USA | 134 | Sewage contaminated well (water supply consisted of two artesian wells; no treatment. Well 1 built in 1908, well 2 in the 1970s. Wells near cattle-grazing areas and adjacent to a piped irrigation system that distributes treated wastewater. Outbreak caused when the damaged irrigation system allowed treated wastewater to flow into well 1, the outer casing of which was extensively rusted. Presumptive oocysts in well water and in treated wastewater. <i>G. lamblia</i> in two case-patients and in treated wastewater) | Dworkin <i>et al.</i> 1996; Kramer <i>et al.</i> 1996; Solo-Gabriele & Neumeister 1996 |

Table 4 | (continued)

| Month/year | Location/country | Est. cases | Suspected cause (comments) | Key references |
|--------------|--|------------|---|---|
| Aug–Dec 1994 | SW Thames, Wessex, Oxford, UK | 224 | Contaminated tap water (more than one community affected. Significant association with increased consumption of tap water from both chlorinated and filtered public supplies deriving some of their water from a common river source) | Furtado <i>et al.</i> 1998; McLauchlin <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Oct 1994 | Trent, UK | 33 | Most likely through contaminated tap water (public surface water supply chlorinated and filtered. No oocysts in a storage reservoir or in treated water) | Furtado <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Jan–Feb 1995 | Drug rehabilitation community, Emilia Romagna, Italy | 294 | Treatment deficiencies of public water the most probable cause (first large cryptosporidiosis outbreak in Italy. Two covered water storage tanks, fed from the public water supply, supplied the community with water. Oocysts in water samples from both tanks. Contaminated water probably originated from outside the community. Twenty-two cases HIV-positive; seven deaths) | Pozio <i>et al.</i> 1997 |
| Summer 1995 | Farm, Ireland | 13 | Most likely through unintentional ingestion of untreated farm animal contaminated water (illness strongly associated with children having visited an open farm and played in sand to which animals had access, at the edge of a stream, beside a picnic area) | Sayers <i>et al.</i> 1996 |
| Jul–Aug 1995 | Torbay, UK | 575 | Contaminated river and tap water (high concentrations of oocysts in sewage discharged to river. Oocysts identified in treated water both chlorinated and filtered) | Craun <i>et al.</i> 1998; Furtado <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Jul–Aug 1995 | Day camp, Gainesville, Alachua County, Florida, USA | 77 | Contaminated tap water (inadequate backflow prevention at the point of distribution the potential source of contamination. Contaminated water from a garbage-can washer might have backflowed into the camp's kitchen plumbing system. A hose attached to the water supply on the garbage-can washer, used to fill potable water coolers, could have come in contact with wastewater and under negative pressure could have drawn wastewater into the distribution system. Faeces of unknown origin near the hose nozzle) | Craun <i>et al.</i> 1998; Solo-Gabriele & Neumeister 1996 |
| Jul–Sep 1995 | Spijkensisse & Haarlem, Netherlands | 71 | Basically unknown (first cryptosporidiosis outbreak in the Netherlands. No common source identified. Household contact with people with diarrhoea, and swimming in municipal pools significantly associated with illness) | van Asperen <i>et al.</i> 1996 |
| 1996 | Kelowna, British Columbia, Canada | c. 4,000 | Contaminated surface water source (lake). Treatment deficiency (cattle the suspected source of oocysts in the unfiltered lake water source) | Craun <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| 1996 | Clovis, California, USA | c. 500 | Contaminated water park | CCN 1997a,b |
| 1996 | Eagle Harbor, Florida, USA | 16 | Unknown | CCN 1996 |
| Jan 1996 | N England, UK | 126 | Contaminated drinking water supply (agricultural pollution occurred upstream of the water treatment plant. Storms and heavy rainfall in the area prior to the outbreak) | CDR 1996 |
| Feb 1996 | Collingwood, Ontario, Canada | c. 189 | Contaminated surface water source (lake). Treatment deficiency (a 100-year storm prior to the outbreak. Unfiltered lake water source. No coliforms in disinfected water) | Craun <i>et al.</i> 1998 |

Table 4 | (continued)

| Month/year | Location/country | Est. cases | Suspected cause (comments) | Key references |
|--------------|--------------------------------------|------------|---|--|
| Feb 1996 | Yorkshire, UK | 20 | Contaminated drinking water supply (increased water turbidity, associated with algal bloom, for water held in the storage reservoirs before entering the treatment plant) | CDR 1996 |
| Mar–Jun 1996 | Wirral Peninsula, England, UK | 80 | Contaminated drinking water (use of river water as water source. High numbers of oocysts in raw water, low numbers in treated water from the indicated water treatment plant. No obvious failure in water treatment procedures) | CDR 1996; Hunter & Quigley 1998 |
| May–Jun 1996 | Cranbrook, British Columbia, Canada | >2,000 | Contaminated drinking water. Treatment deficiency of surface water (unfiltered reservoir water source. Grazing cattle on watershed positive for oocysts) | Craun <i>et al.</i> 1998; Ong <i>et al.</i> 1999 |
| Jun 1996 | Saitama, Japan | 8,705 | Contaminated drinking water (oocysts detected in untreated and treated water) | Smith & Rose 1998 |
| Aug 1996 | Beach, Indiana, USA | 3 | Contaminated lake (after heavy rains, runoff that contained cattle faeces passed from a pasture into the lake. One of the stool specimens <i>Giardia</i> -positive as well) | Levy <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Jan–Feb 1997 | Anglia & Oxford, UK | 20 | Contaminated public water supply | CDR 1997 |
| Jan–Feb 1997 | N Thames, UK | 10 | Contaminated drinking water | CDR 1997 |
| Jan–Mar 1997 | Anglia & Oxford, UK | 22 | Contaminated public water supply | CDR 1997 |
| Feb 1997 | Shoal Lake, Ontario, Canada | >100 | Contaminated drinking water | CCN 1997c |
| Feb–Apr 1997 | Hertfordshire & NW London, UK | 345 | Contaminated tap water (first cryptosporidiosis outbreak caused by filtered borehole water. Consumption of unboiled tap water originated from one deep chalk borehole. Oocysts detected in drinking water) | Willocks <i>et al.</i> 1998; Smith & Rose 1998 |
| May–Jun 1997 | NW, UK | 346 | Basically unknown (water suggested as possible risk factor. No other significant risk factor revealed) | CDR 1997 |
| Dec 1997 | S Thames, UK | 26 | Unknown cause | CDR 1998 |
| Spring 1998 | Guadarrama, Madrid, Spain | 21 | Consumption of tap water likely contaminated with oocysts. Treatment deficiencies (significant statistical association within tap water consumption and gastroenteritis) | Perez <i>et al.</i> 2000 |
| Apr 1998 | Chilliwack, British Columbia, Canada | 25–30 | Most likely through contaminated water supply (town system usually fed by deep underground wells, with occasional supplements from mountain streams. Faeces from an infected animal might have entered the city system from a stream used to supplement the city reservoirs one week before the outbreak) | CCN 1998b |
| Apr 1998 | NW, UK | 24 | Contaminated private water supply | CDR 1999 |
| Apr 1998 | NW, UK | 62 | Contaminated public water supply (statistically significant association with water) | CDR 1999 |

Table 4 | (continued)

| Month/year | Location/country | Est. cases | Suspected cause (comments) | Key references |
|--------------|--|-------------|--|--|
| Jul 1998 | Subdivision, Texas, USA | 1,400 | Treatment deficiency of well water (raw sewage flow through underground fissures in a creek bed and into an aquifer located near five municipal utility district wells. Contamination of 4 of the 5 wells. Spill of sewage caused by a lightning storm that shorted the controls of a sewage treatment plant. Chlorine disinfection as only treatment) | Barwick <i>et al.</i> 2000 |
| Jul 1998 | Children's group home, New Mexico, USA | 32 | Unknown or miscellaneous deficiency (consumption of chlorinated well water from spigots supplied by an irrigation well. Although well water not intended for drinking, spigots not marked as non-potable. No sanitary seal protection of the well. Swimming in a pool filled with water from the well) | Barwick <i>et al.</i> 2000 |
| Apr–May 1999 | NW England, UK | 347 | Contaminated unfiltered surface water (oocysts in raw inlet water from the implicated water treatment works, in faecal specimens from sheep grazing around the implicated water reservoir, and in treated water sample) | Hunter 1999; CDR 2000 |
| Sep–Dec 1999 | Yorkshire, UK | 28 | Basically unknown (although rise in number of cases suspected to be related to water, no failure of water quality detected and no statistical evidence of association) | CDR 2000 |
| Mar 2000 | NW, UK | 58 | Contaminated water source (cases exposed within a single water supply zone with a spring source that was contaminated by animal faeces; animal grazing nearby and heavy rain. Well heads to the spring damaged. Oocysts identified in a public water reservoir and within the water distribution system) | CDR 2001 |
| Apr–May 2000 | Belfast, Ireland | 129 | Most likely through contaminated drinking water | Glaberman <i>et al.</i> 2002 |
| May 2000 | Farm holiday centre, SW, UK | 8 | Treatment deficiencies of a private water supply (water supply partially or incompletely treated) | CDR 2001 |
| Aug 2000 | Belfast, Ireland | 117 | Sewage contaminated drinking water (ingress of human sewage from a septic tank into the drinking water distribution system) | Glaberman <i>et al.</i> 2002 |
| Dec 2000 | Florida, USA | 5 | Distribution system deficiency of well water (repeated history of water main breaks) | Lee <i>et al.</i> 2002 |
| Mar–May 2001 | N Battleford, Saskatchewan, Canada | 5,800–7,100 | Treatment deficiencies of surface river water (a solid contact filtration unit apparently failed to operate correctly after being serviced and brought back on line. Oocysts in finished drinking water during the outbreak investigation) | CCDR 2001 |
| Apr–May 2001 | Belfast, Ireland | 230 | Human sewage pollution of drinking water, treatment deficiencies (a blocked drain at the water filtration plant caused untreated water to enter the finished water supply) | Health Stream 2001; Glaberman <i>et al.</i> 2002 |
| Sep 2001 | Dracy le Fort County, France | 563 | Contaminated tap water (oocysts in water samples collected from the public network. Probably a human sewage contamination) | Dalle <i>et al.</i> 2003 |

Table 4 | (continued)

| Month/year | Location/country | Est. cases | Suspected cause (comments) | Key references |
|----------------|------------------------------------|------------|---|--------------------------|
| Apr – May 2001 | Ireland | 29 | Contaminated surface water supply. Treatment deficiencies (first cryptosporidiosis outbreak in Ireland associated with a public water supply. Spring-fed lake, surrounded by farmland, as water source. Oocysts detected in raw and treated water, and in the environment surrounding the lake. Dry weather followed by very heavy rains, which would have facilitated the ingress of animal excrement into the lake. Water treatment included chlorination, but no filtration) | Jennings & Rhatigan 2002 |
| Mar 2002 | School, Yorkshire & Humberside, UK | 50 | Most likely through contaminated private spring water supply (a simultaneous outbreak of <i>Cryptosporidium</i> and <i>Campylobacter</i>) | CDR 2003b |
| Nov 2002 | Community, SE, UK | 21 | Most likely through contaminated public water supply (occasional detection of single oocyst numbers in water supplied from two water companies. No problems at the works identified) | CDR 2003b |
| Nov – Dec 2002 | Community, SE, UK | 31 | Most likely through contaminated public water supply | CDR 2003b |

associated with a contaminated swimming pool in the Czech Republic (Kadlec *et al.* 1980; Table 6). *Acanthamoeba* was the causative agent of an outbreak associated with a contaminated municipal water supply in the USA (Meier *et al.* 1998; Table 5) and has a marked seasonality (peaking in June and November) and may be affected by climatic conditions (Rose *et al.* 2001).

Outbreaks associated with foreign travel

Pathogenic enteric protozoa are common causes of traveller's diarrhoea and important risk factors include point of origin and destination of the traveller, host factors, and exposure to contaminated food and water (Lima 2001). At least 23 (7.1%) of the reported waterborne outbreaks have been associated with waterborne disease acquired during foreign travel, or during short- to long-term residence in endemic areas (Table 7), where environmental contamination with transmissive stages is expected to be more abundant. Infection of indigenous hosts in endemic areas can be asymptomatic, and such individuals would be contributors of transmissive stages to both food and water in the absence of signs and symptoms of disease.

DISCUSSION

This review is based on literature and data collected from a variety of sources including MEDLINE, electronic archives from Eurosurveillance, Communicable Disease Report (CDR) and Canada Communicable Disease Report (CCDR) and published, original articles. Reporting of outbreaks is fundamental to furthering our understanding of the significance of waterborne protozoan parasites in causing morbidity and mortality. We document 325 outbreaks associated with waterborne transmission of pathogenic protozoa, most of which were recorded in the USA (52.6%) or Europe (32.6%). That the majority of outbreaks were documented from North America and Europe is not surprising, as they have had clinical and environmental community-based surveillance and reporting systems for infectious diseases in place for some time. Furthermore, outbreak control team reports of such outbreaks are encouraged or required by law, in an attempt to determine the causes and sources of the outbreaks and to emphasize lessons that can be learned from

Table 5 | Waterborne outbreaks associated with other protozoan parasitic agents worldwide

| Time period | Location, country | Est. cases | Aetiologic agent (comments) | Key references |
|-------------------|---------------------------------------|----------------|--|---|
| Sep 1950 | Royal Air Force Station, UK | 17 | <i>Entamoeba histolytica</i> (Sewage contamination of the private borehole water supply due to a broken sewer) | Glaberman <i>et al.</i> 2002 |
| 1961–1970 | USA | 14 | <i>Entamoeba histolytica</i> (Occurrence of two distinctive outbreaks . Contaminated private water system) | Taylor <i>et al.</i> 1972 |
| 1961–1970 | USA | 25 | <i>Entamoeba histolytica</i> (Contaminated public water system) | Taylor <i>et al.</i> 1972 |
| May–Jun 1971 | Truk, Caroline Islands, USA | 110 | <i>Balantidium coli</i> (Faecal contaminated water supplies due to occurrence of a devastating typhoon. Low hygiene standards. High numbers of pigs in close contact to people. Primitive catchment water supplies disrupted by the typhoon, forcing people to use ground or surface facilities already contaminated by pig faeces. Destruction of pig pens and defecation privies led to more intimate contact between pigs and people) | Walzer <i>et al.</i> 1973 |
| May–Jun 1977 | Antofagasta City, Chile | 90 | <i>Isospora belli</i> (Consumption of vegetables irrigated with water from an industrial treatment plant for sewage) | Sagua <i>et al.</i> 1978 |
| 1979 | Panama | 32 US soldiers | <i>Toxoplasma gondii</i> (Most likely through consumption of contaminated creek water. Possible contamination of the creek with oocysts excreted by jungle cats. Most of the affected individuals claimed to have treated their drinking water with iodine tablets) | AWWA 1999 |
| Christmas 1986 | Ski resort, Sälen, Sweden | >1,400 | <i>Entamoeba histolytica</i> and <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Sewage contaminated drinking water. Overflow of sewage water into the drinking water system) | Andersson & de Yong 1989 |
| May–Sep 1988 | Siena, Italy | 5 | <i>Blastocystis hominis</i> (Aetiology unknown. Probably an imported infection. A family outbreak, started when two adopted children were brought from India and the Ivory Coast, two weeks prior to the outbreak period) | Guglielmetti <i>et al.</i> 1989 |
| Jul 1990 | Hospital, Chicago, Illinois, USA | 21 | <i>Cyclospora cayetanensis</i> (Contaminated building's water reservoir. The stirring up of stagnant water in a storage tank, followed repairs in a water pump, the most likely source of contamination. Algae and diatoms detected in water, but not <i>Cyclospora</i>) | WER 1991; Herwaldt <i>et al.</i> 1992; Huang <i>et al.</i> 1995 |
| Nov 1991–Mar 1993 | Chancay, Peru | 3 | <i>Cyclospora cayetanensis</i> (Most likely through consumption of non-filtered, unchlorinated canal water. A family outbreak. One of the two breeding ducks with asymptomatic <i>Cyclospora</i> infection) | Zerpa <i>et al.</i> 1995 |
| Jul 1993–Dec 1994 | Iowa, USA | 43 | <i>Acanthamoeba</i> (Most likely through contamination of the municipal water supplies due to a regional flooding. Incidence of illness in the Iowa counties affected by the flooding was more than 10 times higher than in the unaffected counties. The presence of a humidifier in the home and having household water originated from a private well instead of the municipal water supply proved protective) | Meier <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Aug–Sep 1993 | Private school, Taichung City, Taiwan | 730 students | <i>Entamoeba histolytica</i> and <i>Shigella sonnei</i> (Sewage cross-contamination of the underground well water supply. Well located 10 metres away from the toilet and provided water to the school through a submersible pump. A 20-year-old water system. The pump's overflow pipes pierced the lining of the well below ground level through a hole, permitting seepage of ground water into the well. No cases among the teaching staff, who were provided with water from the city supply and not from the well) | Chen <i>et al.</i> 2001 |

Table 5 | (continued)

| Time period | Location, country | Est. cases | Aetiologic agent (comments) | Key references |
|-------------------|--|-------------|---|---|
| Oct 1994–Apr 1995 | Victoria, British Columbia, Canada | 2,894–7,718 | <i>Toxoplasma gondii</i> (Most likely through faecal contamination of a water reservoir by infected animals; possible treatment deficiencies. The largest documented toxoplasmosis outbreak and the first to be linked to municipal drinking water. Municipal water system with two disinfection plants, supplying unfiltered, chloraminated surface water. Use of a weak chemical for primary disinfection. The plant apparently associated with the outbreak distributed water from the relatively small Humpback reservoir. Short retention time in the intake reservoir. Two peaks in turbidity and faecal coliform counts in Humpback Reservoir water during December 1994 and March 1995, following periods of excess rainfall associated with runoff into the reservoir. Each peak preceded a peak in the epidemic curve. Cougars and domestic and feral cats present in the watershed, some of them <i>Toxoplasma</i> -positive) | Bowie <i>et al.</i> 1997 |
| 1995–2000 | USA & Canada | c. 3,200 | <i>Cyclospora cayetanensis</i> (Most likely through consumption of contaminated Guatemalan raspberries served at separated social events. Approximately 115 mini-outbreaks reported. Simultaneous and persistent contamination on multiple Guatemalan farms the most likely explanation. Potential contamination of the raspberries through spraying with insecticides and fungicides diluted with contaminated water from the farms' water supplies. Many water supplies vulnerable to contamination, particularly during the rainy season due to surface water runoff. Sub-optimal construction, maintenance of wells near deep latrines or seepage pits. After the first large-scale outbreaks in 1996 and 1997, only farms that met certain standards, including water, sanitation, and worker hygiene issues, were allowed to export fresh raspberries to the United States during the spring season. After two more US outbreaks in 2000, the implicated farm common to both events was no longer allowed to export raspberries during the spring of 2001. No US cyclosporiasis outbreaks associated with Guatemalan raspberries were identified that spring) | Herwaldt <i>et al.</i> 1997; MMWR 1998; Herwaldt 2000; Ho <i>et al.</i> 2002; Murrow <i>et al.</i> 2002 |
| May–Nov 1995 | Lyon, France | 200 | <i>Microsporidium</i> (Most likely through contamination and treatment deficiencies of surface water. A specific water treatment plant implicated. Pumping of lake water directly from a recreational area mainly frequented by swimmers. Treatment using flocculation, ozoflotation and filtration, instead of chlorination) | Cotte <i>et al.</i> 1999 |
| Oct–Nov 1996 | Hengshui, Chongyi County, China | 1,122 | <i>Blastocystis hominis</i> (Spread through contaminated water) | Wu <i>et al.</i> 2000 |
| May–Sep 1998 | Tbilisi, Georgia | 177 | <i>Entamoeba histolytica</i> (Either faecal contamination after the implicated water treatment works, or inadequate filtration process, the suspected causes for this outbreak. Between 600 and 700 breakdowns of the water supply and sewerage system were reported at that time. Filters of poor quality and lack of routine maintenance at the implicated water treatment works) | Kreidl <i>et al.</i> 1999 |
| 2001 | Santa Isabel do Ivaí, Parana State, Brazil | 290 | <i>Toxoplasma gondii</i> (Most likely through faecal contamination of an underground water reservoir. Reservoir based at a ruined site, full of cracks, bordered by pastures containing livestock, only 30 meters from a suburb with many dogs and cats. No filtration. A cat and its kittens known to live in the reservoir ruins the suspected cause of contamination) | Taverne 2002 |

Table 6 | Protozoan parasitic outbreaks associated with recreational water worldwide

| Time period | Location, country | Est. cases | Aetiologic agent (comments) | Key references |
|-------------------|--|------------|---|--|
| 1962–1965 | Usti nad Labem, Czech Republic | 16 | <i>Naegleria fowleri</i> (Contaminated indoor swimming pool and treatment deficiencies of pool water. Large-scale outbreak. Fatal infection for all cases. Pool water not examined for protozoa, causative agent unknown at that time. Swimming pool reconstructed and reopened in 1967. Pathogenic <i>N. fowleri</i> strains isolated for the first time from this pool in 1977, and repeatedly afterwards during 1977–78. A cavity in the damaged pool wall, the possible place for survival and reproduction of the <i>Naegleria</i> virulent strains. Fatal cases attributed to critical amount of parasites washed out into the swimming pool, combined with low free chlorine levels. Chlorination not continual, carried out by hand, at the time of the outbreak) | Kadlec <i>et al.</i> 1980 |
| May 1982 | Pool complex, Thurston County, Washington, USA | 70 | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. Reports for turbid water and low free chlorine residuals in one pool. Possible faecal accidents) | Harter <i>et al.</i> 1984 |
| Fall 1985 | Indoor swimming pool, NE New Jersey, USA | 9 | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. Faecal accident caused by handicapped child while in the pool. Chlorine levels not recorded that day. Zero chlorine level performed the following day) | Porter <i>et al.</i> 1988 |
| Mar–Apr 1986 | Hotel, Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada | 59 | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Contaminated water slide pool, probably through emptying of an adjacent toddlers' wading pool into the implicated water slide pool) | Greensmith <i>et al.</i> 1988 |
| Jan–Mar 1988 | Brisbane, Queensland, Australia | 52 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool complex. Oocysts detected in 3 of the 4 implicated swimming pools) | Stafford <i>et al.</i> 2000 |
| Jul–Aug 1988 | Los Angeles County, California, USA | 44 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. Faecal accident in the pool in early July. Inadequately maintained filtration system; 30% diminished filtration flow rate; inoperative diatomaceous earth (DE) filter. Repeated exposure to pool water; possible constant pool contamination) | Sorvillo <i>et al.</i> 1990, 1992 |
| Aug–Oct 1988 | Sports centre, Yorkshire, UK | 67 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Sewage contaminated swimming pool. Oocysts detected in pool water. Significant plumbing defects and a break in surface water collection pipe allowed ingress of sewage from the main sewer into the circulating pool water. Additional operational problems identified later) | Joce <i>et al.</i> 1991 |
| Nov 1990–Jan 1991 | Recreation centre, British Columbia, Canada | 23 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated children's swimming pool. Unusually frequent defecations, including liquid stools, before and during the outbreak. Free available chlorine residual frequently fallen below the minimum recommended level) | Bell <i>et al.</i> 1993 |
| Jun 1991 | Park, Maryland, USA | 14 | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Contaminated swimming pool) | Moore <i>et al.</i> 1993 |
| Jul 1991 | Day care centre, Georgia, USA | 9 | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Contaminated wading pool) | Moore <i>et al.</i> 1993 |
| Jul 1991 | Day care centre, Georgia, USA | 7 | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Contaminated wading pool) | Moore <i>et al.</i> 1993 |
| Jul 1991 | Campground, Washington, USA | 4 | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Contaminated lake) | Moore <i>et al.</i> 1993 |
| Mar 1992 | Leisure centre, SW, UK | 12 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. Most of the cases children using a learner pool. Oocysts in one water sample from the pool. Treatment by filtration and side-stream ozonation) | Hunt <i>et al.</i> 1994; Furtado <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Jun–Oct 1992 | Lane County, Oregon, USA | 500 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated wave pool. Oocysts in filter backwash water) | Moore <i>et al.</i> 1993; McAnulty <i>et al.</i> 1994 |
| Aug 1992 | Idaho, USA | 26 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated water slide) | Moore <i>et al.</i> 1993 |
| Jan 1993 | West Midlands, UK | 23 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated school swimming pool) | Furtado <i>et al.</i> 1998 |

Table 6 | (continued)

| Time period | Location, country | Est. cases | Aetiologic agent (comments) | Key references |
|-------------------|---------------------------------------|------------|---|---|
| Apr 1993 | Resort hotel, Oshkosh, Wisconsin, USA | 51 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. Treatment by filtration and chlorination. Non-recognized faecal accident(s) caused by swimmer(s) infected in the massive Milwaukee outbreak the most likely source of contamination) | MacKenzie <i>et al.</i> 1995; Kramer <i>et al.</i> 1996 |
| Jul–Sep 1993 | Dane County, Wisconsin, USA | 85 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pools) | Bongard <i>et al.</i> 1994 |
| Jul 1993 | Park, Maryland, USA | 12 | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Unintentional ingestion of untreated lake water) | Kramer <i>et al.</i> 1996 |
| Aug 1993 | River, Washington, USA | 6 | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Unintentional ingestion of untreated river water) | Kramer <i>et al.</i> 1996 |
| Aug 1993 | Motel, Wisconsin, USA | 64 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. Treatment by filtration and chlorination) | Kramer <i>et al.</i> 1996 |
| Aug 1993 | Wisconsin, USA | 54 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. Treatment by filtration and chlorination) | Kramer <i>et al.</i> 1996 |
| Aug 1993 | Wisconsin, USA | 5 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. Treatment by filtration and chlorination) | Kramer <i>et al.</i> 1996 |
| Aug–Sep 1993 | Madison, Wisconsin, USA | ND | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. Occurrence of a faecal accident) | Graczyk <i>et al.</i> 1997 |
| Sep 1993 | Swimming club, New Jersey, USA | 43 | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Unintentional ingestion of untreated lake water) | Kramer <i>et al.</i> 1996 |
| 1994 | Clark County, Nevada, USA | c. 80 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. Occurrence of a faecal accident) | Graczyk <i>et al.</i> 1997 |
| Jun 1994 | Indiana, USA | 80 | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Contaminated swimming pool and wading pool. Intermittent breakdown of the swimming pool's filter. Lack of filtration in the wading pool) | Kramer <i>et al.</i> 1996 |
| Jul 1994 | Motel, Missouri, USA | 101 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. Treatment by filtration and chlorination) | Kramer <i>et al.</i> 1996 |
| Jul–Aug 1994 | Lake Nummy, New Jersey, USA | 2,070 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated shallow lake park. First cryptosporidiosis outbreak associated with recreational exposure to lake water. A backup of the septic-tank system due to a pump failure; large oocyst numbers possibly flushed into the lake by contaminated runoff of rainwater from the area that had been flooded by sewage from the septic-tank system. Use of the lake by bathers already suffering from diarrhoeal illness. High levels of faecal coliforms in the bathing area and in the adjacent canoe-docking area. Evidence of diaper-aged children repeatedly been in the water during the summer; rinse of soiled diapers in the swimming area; several faecal accidents in the water) | Kramer <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Sep 1994–Jan 1995 | Sutherland, Sydney, Australia | 70 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. Oocysts detected in pool water; presumably contamination by infected bathers) | Lemmon <i>et al.</i> 1996 |
| Oct 1994 | Leisure centre, SW, UK | 14 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool(s). Evidence of secondary spread within the community) | Furtado <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Jun 1995 | Kansas, USA | 24 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool) | Levy <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Jul 1995 | Water park, Georgia, USA | 5,449 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> and <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Contaminated children's pool. Possible faecal accident) | Levy <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Jul 1995 | Nebraska, USA | 14 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. Runoff containing livestock faeces the suspected cause) | Levy <i>et al.</i> 1998 |

Table 6 | (continued)

| Time period | Location, country | Est. cases | Aetiologic agent (comments) | Key references |
|-------------------|---------------------------------|------------|---|------------------------------|
| Oct 1995 | Trent, UK | 3 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated paddling pool. Children in diapers allowed to use the pool. Poor supervision and maintenance standards) | Furtado <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Jul–Aug 1996 | Andover, Hampshire, UK | 8 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. Although no oocysts in backwash water, presence of <i>Enterobius</i> ova indicated faecal contamination) | Sundkvist <i>et al.</i> 1997 |
| Jun 1996 | Florida, USA | 77 | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> and <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated children's wading pool. Wading pool supplied by municipal well water that was coagulated, settled, filtered, and chlorine-disinfected) | Levy <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Jun 1996 | Ft Lauderdale, Florida, USA | 22 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated shallow wading pool. Excessive number of swimmers; loss of water clarity, possible faecal accidents; inadequate filtration; inoperative ozonator) | Levy <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Aug 1996 | Amusement park, California, USA | 3,000 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> and <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. Park patrons exposed to untreated water, both at the swimming pool, and when water from a jet-ski sprayed an audience watching a show) | Levy <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| 1997–1998 | New Zealand | > 300 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pools) | CCN 1997c, 1998a, c |
| May 1997 | SW, UK | 9 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool) | CDR 1997 |
| May 1997 | NW, UK | 13 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Most likely through ingestion of contaminated river water while swimming) | CDR 1997 |
| Jun–Jul 1997 | Minnesota Zoo, Minnesota, USA | 369 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Exposure to a contaminated water sprinkler fountain. Although designed and built in 1994 as a decorative display, the zoo fountain was a popular attraction for children on hot summer days. Water filtered, chlorinated, re-circulated and routinely replaced, yet the filter was not flushed. A child wearing diapers and playing in the fountain the suspected source of contamination) | Deneen <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| Dec 1997–Apr 1998 | New South Wales, Australia | 1,060 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated public swimming pools) | Puech <i>et al.</i> 2001 |
| Mar 1998 | N Thames, UK | 6 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. Defective plumbing water treatment) | CDR 1999 |
| Apr 1998 | Swim club, Minnesota, USA | 45 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. An infected child who had swam in the pool before the outbreak the suspected source of contamination) | Barwick <i>et al.</i> 2000 |
| Jun 1998 | Wisconsin, USA | 12 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated community pool. Faecal accident the suspected source of contamination) | Barwick <i>et al.</i> 2000 |
| Jul 1998 | Wisconsin, USA | 12 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated community pool. Faecal accident the suspected source of contamination) | Barwick <i>et al.</i> 2000 |
| Jul 1998 | Wisconsin, USA | 9 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated community pool. Faecal accident the suspected source of contamination) | Barwick <i>et al.</i> 2000 |
| Jul 1998 | State park, Pennsylvania, USA | 8 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Swimming in a contaminated lake) | Barwick <i>et al.</i> 2000 |
| Jul 1998 | Minnesota, USA | 7 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated community pool. Unknown source of contamination) | Barwick <i>et al.</i> 2000 |
| Jul 1998 | Day care centre, Florida, USA | 7 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. Although unknown source of contamination, many reports of babies in diapers swimming in the pool) | Barwick <i>et al.</i> 2000 |
| Aug 1998 | Oregon, USA | 69 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated community pool. Although unknown source of contamination, faecal contamination was suspected) | Barwick <i>et al.</i> 2000 |

Table 6 | (continued)

| Time period | Location, country | Est. cases | Aetiologic agent (comments) | Key references |
|----------------|---------------------------------|------------|--|-----------------|
| Sep–Nov 1998 | E Anglia & Oxford, UK | 14 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Public swimming pool complex implicated) | CDR 1999 |
| Nov 1998 | N Thames, UK | 9 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated public swimming pool. Ozonation plant failure) | CDR 1999 |
| 1999 | S Island, New Zealand | 7 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool) | CCN 1999 |
| Jul 1999 | Massachusetts, USA | 18 | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Contaminated pond) | Lee et al. 2002 |
| Jul 1999 | Trailer park, Minnesota, USA | 10 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool) | Lee et al. 2002 |
| Jul 1999 | Wisconsin, USA | 10 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated municipal pool) | Lee et al. 2002 |
| Jul 1999 | SW, UK | 11 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. Faecal accident the suspected source of contamination) | CDR 2000 |
| Jul–Nov 1999 | Leisure complex, SE, UK | 14 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. History of regular contamination by deliberate defecation) | CDR 2000 |
| Aug 1999 | Beach park, Florida, USA | 38 | <i>Shigella sonnei</i> and <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated interactive fountain) | Lee et al. 2002 |
| Aug 1999 | House, Florida, USA | 6 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool) | Lee et al. 2002 |
| Aug–Oct 1999 | W Midlands, UK | 16 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. Faecal accident the suspected source of contamination. <i>Cryptosporidium</i> oocysts in pool water sample) | CDR 2000 |
| Aug–Nov 1999 | SE, UK | 54 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> and <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. <i>Cryptosporidium</i> oocysts and <i>Giardia</i> -like cysts in filter samples) | CDR 2000 |
| Sep 1999 | Leisure complex, W Midlands, UK | 8 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool) | CDR 2000 |
| Sep–Nov 1999 | Leisure centre, London, UK | 30 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pools. Faecal accident the suspected source of contamination) | CDR 2000 |
| Nov 1999 | Leisure centre, Trent, UK | 19 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> and <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. Faecal accident the suspected source of contamination) | CDR 2000 |
| March–Jun 2000 | Children's nursery, Wales, UK | 17 | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Contaminated water play) | CDR 2001 |
| May–Jun 2000 | Trent UK | 41 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. Oocysts detected in pool water and in pool filters) | CDR 2001 |
| Jun 2000 | Private swim club, Ohio, USA | 700 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. Repeated recontamination by infected swimmers) | Lee et al. 2002 |
| Jun 2000 | Nebraska, USA | 225 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pools. Repeated recontamination by infected swimmers) | Lee et al. 2002 |
| Jun 2000 | Georgia, USA | 36 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pools. Cases swam in a community pool and an inflatable pool) | Lee et al. 2002 |
| Jul 2000 | Swimming beach, Minnesota, USA | 220 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated lake) | Lee et al. 2002 |
| Jul 2000 | S Carolina, USA | 26 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool) | Lee et al. 2002 |
| Jul 2000 | Day camp, Minnesota, USA | 7 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated municipal pool) | Lee et al. 2002 |
| Jul 2000 | Hotel, Minnesota, USA | 6 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool) | Lee et al. 2002 |
| Jul 2000 | Apartment complex, Florida, USA | 3 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated municipal pool) | Lee et al. 2002 |
| Aug 2000 | Colorado, USA | 112 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool) | Lee et al. 2002 |

Table 6 | (continued)

| Time period | Location, country | Est. cases | Aetiologic agent (comments) | Key references |
|-------------------|----------------------------------|------------|---|------------------------|
| Aug 2000 | Resort, Florida, USA | 19 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated municipal pool) | Lee <i>et al.</i> 2002 |
| Aug 2000 | Country club, Florida, USA | 5 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool) | Lee <i>et al.</i> 2002 |
| Aug 2000 | Condominium, Florida, USA | 5 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool) | Lee <i>et al.</i> 2002 |
| Aug 2000 | Minnesota, USA | 4 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated municipal pool) | Lee <i>et al.</i> 2002 |
| Aug–Sep 2000 | London, UK | 3 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated public swimming pool. Oocysts detected in pool water, and in pool filter sand) | CDR 2001 |
| Sep 2000 | London, UK | 10 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated public swimming pool. Oocysts detected in pool water, and in pool filter sand) | CDR 2001 |
| Sep 2000 | Eastern, UK | 7 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated public swimming pool. Oocysts detected in pool water, and in pool filter sand) | CDR 2001 |
| Sep–Oct 2000 | SW, UK | 12 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated public swimming pool) | CDR 2001 |
| Sep–Oct 2000 | Trent, UK | 9 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Association with public swimming pool. Oocysts not detected in pool water, however, indicator organisms found) | CDR 2001 |
| Oct–Nov 2000 | SW, UK | 5 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated club swimming pool. One viable oocyst detected in a pool filter) | CDR 2001 |
| Feb–Mar 2001 | SE, UK | 5 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated public swimming pools. Oocysts detected in main and learner pools. Inadequate treatment of pool water) | CDR 2002 |
| May 2001 | Hotel, Dauphin, Manitoba, Canada | 59 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool. Swimming in the hotel pool highly associated with illness) | CCDR 2002 |
| Jun 2001 | SE, UK | 152 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated school outdoor swimming pool. No obvious faecal incident or contamination event) | CDR 2002 |
| Aug 2001 | SW, UK | 14 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Cases exposed to stream water flowing through a beach. Effluent from water treatment plant enters stream. Also problem with illegal tipping into sewer, possibly from campsite chemical toilets) | CDR 2002 |
| Oct–Nov 2001 | Leisure centre, SW, UK | 3 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated swimming pool) | CDR 2002 |
| Apr 2002 | Activity centre, NW, UK | 4 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> and <i>rotavirus</i> (Most likely through recreational exposure to a range of water sources) | CDR 2003b |
| Sep 2002–Feb 2003 | Leisure centre, SE, UK | 20 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Oocyst-contaminated sand taken from the filters of the main pool and the leisure pool. Faecal incident suspected) | CDR 2003b |
| Jan–Apr 2003 | Yorkshire & Humberside, UK | 66 | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Contaminated hydro swimming pool. Faecal incident suspected) | CDR 2003b |

Table 7 | Waterborne protozoan parasitic outbreaks associated with travellers, foreign residents worldwide

| Month year | Location, country | Est. cases | Aetiologic agent (comments) | Key references |
|-------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|---|---|
| World War I | Near East | Among foreign military forces | <i>Isospora belli</i> (Aetiology unknown) | Faust <i>et al.</i> 1961 |
| World War II | SW Pacific Islands | Among foreign military forces | <i>Isospora belli</i> (Aetiology unknown) | Faust <i>et al.</i> 1961 |
| Dec 1946–Jan 1947 | Apartment building, Tokyo, Japan | 116 American occupants | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> and <i>Entamoeba histolytica</i> (Sewage contamination of the building's water supply) | Davis & Ritchie 1948 |
| Feb–May 1970 | Hotels, Leningrad, Russia | 107 American travellers | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Consumption of tap water in Leningrad's hotels. Two distinctive outbreaks ; 23 athletes in February and March, 84 scientists in May. Treatment deficiencies; probably separated water supplies from the residents; use of chloramines or a combined available chlorine for disinfection; poor operation of the filtration process) | Walzer <i>et al.</i> 1971; Brodsky <i>et al.</i> 1974 |
| 1971 & 1973 | Hotels, Leningrad, Russia | 15 students from Finland | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Consumption of tap water) | Jokipii & Jokipii 1974 |
| 1973 | Leningrad, Russia | 15 American scientists | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Consumption of tap water) | Brodsky <i>et al.</i> 1974 |
| Mar 1975 | Russia | 72 American travellers | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Consumption of tap water) | CDC 1975 |
| Oct 1976 | Madeira, Portugal | 27 American travellers | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Most likely through consumption of tap water. Drinking water reported to be chlorinated) | CDC 1977b |
| Jun–Sep 1979 | California, USA | 74 travellers | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Distribution system deficiency. Travellers had visited Cattail Cove State Park in Arizona. Recreation area served by chlorinated shallow well water, pumped to two storage facilities. Cross-connections and poor plumbing may have resulted in contamination of the drinking water by an irrigation system that sprayed sewage effluent) | Lin 1985 |
| Apr–Jun 1985 | Kathmandu, Nepal | 247 expatriate residents | <i>Blastocystis hominis</i> or <i>Cyclospora cayetanensis</i> (An outbreak of unknown aetiology. Doubts expressed at that time whether <i>Blastocystis</i> had been the real causative agent of the outbreak, and not some other, unidentified pathogen. Five years later it was reported that <i>Cyclospora</i> (CLB), and not <i>Blastocystis</i> , might have been the causative agent of this outbreak) | Babcock <i>et al.</i> 1985; Shlim <i>et al.</i> 1991 |
| May–Sep 1988 | Hotel, Phuket Island, Thailand | 42 Italian tourists | <i>Entamoeba histolytica</i> and <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Consumption of drinks with ice, ice cream and raw fruit in ice significantly associated with both infections) | de Lalla <i>et al.</i> 1992 |
| Jun–Nov 1989 | Kathmandu, Nepal | 55 foreign residents | <i>Cyclospora cayetanensis</i> (Aetiology basically unknown. <i>Cyclospora</i> detected in stool specimens of all patients. Unknown organism at that time, characterized as CLB, cyanobacterium-like body. Being a foreign resident in Nepal was a risk factor for acquiring the disease. Water pumped from an underground holding tank to a tin rooftop tank. All patients reported boiling their water before drinking) | Shlim <i>et al.</i> 1991 |
| May–Oct 1990 | Kathmandu, Nepal | 85 foreign residents | <i>Cyclospora cayetanensis</i> (Unknown cause/multiple causes) | Rabold <i>et al.</i> 1994 |

Table 7 | (continued)

| Month year | Location, country | Est. cases | Aetiologic agent (comments) | Key references |
|--------------|---|------------------------------------|---|--|
| Jun 1994 | British military detachment, Pokhara, Nepal | 12 British soldiers and dependants | <i>Cyclospora cayetanensis</i> (Contaminated water supply. <i>Cyclospora</i> oocysts detected in a 2-litre water sample from a storage tank that fed chlorinated, filtered water to all homes in the area. Water free of coliforms. Adequate chlorination during the outbreak) | Rabold <i>et al.</i> 1994 |
| May–Jun 1997 | Crete, Greece | 70 English tourists | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> (Most likely through contaminated hotel water. Room water smelling of sewage or being discoloured. Consumption of reconstituted orange juice associated with certainty of diagnosis. Chlorinated, generally unfiltered water supply) | Hadjichristodoulou <i>et al.</i> 1998; Hardie <i>et al.</i> 1999 |
| Sep 1998 | Hotel, Marmaris, Turkey | 15 Danish and Swedish tourists | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Faecal contamination of drinking water. One week prior to the outbreak, the hotel, supplied by its own private water supply, had opened a shunt pipe to the public community water system to fill its water tank. This pipe had been blocked at one end and out of use for four years. Nine different microbial agents isolated from the holiday-makers) | Engberg <i>et al.</i> 1998 |
| May–Jul 2000 | Hotel, Majorca, Spain | 112 British tourists | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (No cases among guests and workers at the resort. Oocysts detected in the filters from the hotel swimming pool) | de Mateo-Ontanon 2000; Smerdon 2000 |
| Aug 2001 | Military Base, Baden-Wuerttemberg, Germany | 200 soldiers | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Aetiology basically unknown. Soldiers brought to the implicated base for five-day field training. Oocysts detected in stool specimens from ill soldiers, but not in water samples from the base) | Robert Koch Institut 2001 |
| Jul 2003 | Majorca, Spain | 142 British tourists | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Oocysts identified in water backwashed from filters at a hotel swimming pool where many of the cases had been bathing) | CDR 2003a |
| ND | Hotel, Caribbean, St Lucia | 38 American tourists | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> (Most likely through consumption of contaminated tap water or food. A small river used as water source. Treatment by chemical coagulation, sedimentation, filtration, and chlorination. Consumption of tap water from the hotel significantly associated with illness) | Ma <i>et al.</i> 1985 |

ND: no data.

Table 8 | Summarised data on waterborne outbreaks caused by protozoan parasitic agents worldwide

| Suspected cause | Number of waterborne outbreaks caused by protozoan parasitic agents worldwide | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|-------------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|
| | <i>Giardia lamblia</i> | <i>Cryptosporidium parvum</i> | <i>Entamoeba histolytica</i> | <i>Cyclospora cayetanensis</i> | <i>Toxoplasma gondii</i> | <i>Isospora belli</i> | <i>Blastocystis hominis</i> | <i>Balantidium coli</i> | <i>Microsporidia</i> | <i>Acanthamoeba</i> | <i>Naegleria fowleri</i> |
| Contaminated water source (lake, river, well, etc) | 9 (6.8%) | 17 (10.3%) | 2 | – | 2 | – | – | 1 | – | 1 | – |
| Contaminated water system (community, private, etc) | 5 (3.8%) | 6 (3.6%) | 3 | 1 | – | – | 1 | – | – | – | – |
| Contaminated drinking tap water | 3 (2.3%) | 18 (10.9%) | 1 | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Treatment distribution system deficiency | 28 (21.2%) | 10 (6.1%) | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Use of chlorinated unfiltered water | 8 (6.1%) | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Use of untreated surface water | 8 (6.1%) | 1 (0.6%) | – | 1 | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Use of untreated groundwater | 5 (3.8%) | 1 (0.6%) | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Association with recreational water (swimming pools, etc) | 18 (13.6%) | 83 (50.3%) | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | 1 |
| Association with foreign travel residence | 10 (7.6%) | 5 (3%) | 2 | 3 (4?) | – | 2 | 1? | – | – | – | – |
| Mixed aetiology | 32 (24.2%) | 18 (10.9%) | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | – | – | 1 | – | – |
| Unknown cause | 6 (4.5%) | 6 (3.6%) | – | – | – | – | 1 | – | – | – | – |
| Total | 132 (100%) | 165 (100%) | 9 | 6 (7?) | 3 | 3 | 2 (3?) | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

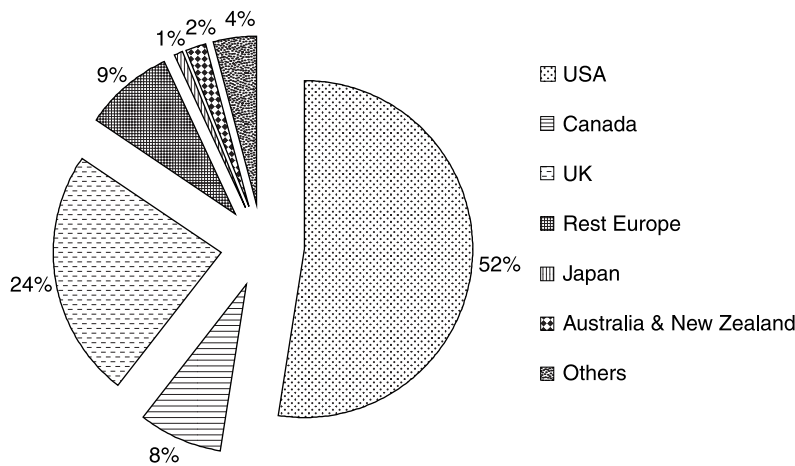


Figure 1 | Distribution of waterborne protozoan outbreaks worldwide.

outbreak investigations. However, it is somewhat surprising that these North American and European outbreaks accounted for as many as 93% of all reports. Similarly, UK waterborne outbreaks accounted for 73.6% of European outbreaks.

Given that the majority of outbreaks of waterborne cryptosporidiosis and giardiasis occurred in North America and the UK (Tables 3 and 4) it is probable that enhanced surveillance and more effective reporting systems are in place and that lessons have been learnt from earlier outbreaks. Without rigorous investigation and reporting of outbreaks, we cannot determine either the extent to which waterborne pathogenic protozoa affect morbidity and mortality, globally, or the effectiveness of water treatment systems in controlling these pathogens.

G. duodenalis was responsible for the largest number of recorded outbreaks (32%), with *Cryptosporidium* sp. accounting for 23.7% of recorded outbreaks. For drinking water outbreaks, deficiencies in water treatment processes are the most cited reasons (Tables 3, 4 and 8), although post treatment contamination should also be considered (Table 8). Deficiencies include insufficient barriers, inadequate or poorly operated treatment and disinfection systems (Tables 3 and 4), which, when they occur in conjunction with sufficient human infectious (oo)cysts/spores to penetrate such barriers, can lead to waterborne outbreaks. The latest report of the UK Group of Experts on current knowledge on *Cryptosporidium* in Water supplies,

which assessed the lessons learned from suspected waterborne outbreaks of cryptosporidiosis (the results of research carried out since 1995), addressed the need for further advice on protection of water resources, including surface and groundwaters, the provision of additional water treatment, the design of monitoring programmes and strategies and the management of outbreaks of drinking water-related illness, and considered further appropriate research, is available on the Internet (www.dwi.gov.uk/pubs/bouchier/index.htm).

The majority of outbreaks associated with recreational water (63.9%; Tables 6 and 8) are due to *Giardia* (13.6%) or *Cryptosporidium* (50.3%), where the vehicle is normally swimming pool water, frequently contaminated following accidental faecal discharge into the pool water (Tables 6 and 8). Treatment/operational/disinfection failures increase the likelihood of disease transmission because (oo)cysts are not removed or killed by optimized water treatment schedules. These include (a) effective circulation of water with the pool or pool system, (b) effective use of optimally dosed chemical coagulant, and (c) an optimally operated, well designed, constructed and maintained sand filtration system. Toddler pools are the most frequently affected (Table 6). Again, the majority of outbreaks occurred in North America and the UK (94.8%, 92/97; Table 6), and of the 97 documented, 60.8% ($n = 59$) occurred in North America, while 34% ($n = 33$) occurred in the UK. Again, enhanced surveillance and more effective reporting systems are the likely reasons for this

geographical distribution. Guidance on optimizing swimming pools for removing *Cryptosporidium* oocysts is available on the Internet (www.pwtg.org/home.html). The guidance aims to minimize the threat from *Cryptosporidium* by optimizing flow rates, filter operation through effective coagulation and backwash practices, disinfection, and auditing maintenance practice while offering advice for fouling of water and hygiene. Such guidance should also be effective at controlling the larger (oo)cysts of the enteric protozoan parasites listed in Table 1.

Lessons learnt: The example of *Cryptosporidium*

Cryptosporidium poses the biggest threat to the water industry as, initially, many outbreaks were caused by this 'little known' parasite which penetrated multi-barrier water treatment systems that were thought to be effective in providing 'safe' drinking water (Smith & Rose 1990, 1998). The emergence of cryptosporidiosis challenged our knowledge of its occurrence, prevalence, epidemiology, treatment and transmission routes, and as a drinking water-related illness, challenged the adequacy of conventional water treatment processes. Concern about this organism was further heightened by the scant knowledge of its distribution and occurrence in the environment and the absence of a simple and reliable means of detecting the organism in water (Anon 1990; Smith & Lloyd 1997).

Occurrence in humans

The fact that waterborne outbreaks have been documented indicates that a risk of disease is present, but with what frequency? The major drivers for obtaining a clearer understanding of the threat of waterborne disease include: (a) standardized testing for human disease through these pathogens in clinical microbiology laboratories; (b) an effective infrastructure to inform public health professionals; (c) communication between all professionals involved in waterborne disease surveillance; (d) determining the occurrence of these pathogens in the aquatic environment; (e) determining the effectiveness of drinking water technologies for pathogen/surrogate removal and (f) determining the waterborne route of transmission epidemiologically. This has been accomplished to differing degrees in different countries and differing regions of the

same country, for example, for *Cryptosporidium* but during its emergence as a public health threat, relatively little was known of its occurrence and prevalence. Through standardization of diagnostic methods, the importance of human cryptosporidiosis, the reservoirs of infection and major contributors to environmental contamination, waterborne and foodborne disease are better understood, as is the importance of the waterborne route of transmission (Anon 1990, 1995, 1999). Yet, for many of the pathogenic protozoa listed in Table 1, relatively little of the above is known.

Molecular biology has provided new insights into the taxonomy and epidemiology of *Cryptosporidium*, including previously unrecognized differences in disease, symptomatology, zoonotic potential, risk factors and environmental contamination, using molecular tools appropriate for species, genotype and subtype analysis (Cacciò *et al.* 2005). Seven *Cryptosporidium* species and two genotypes cause human disease, and molecular approaches have enabled a greater understanding of the contributions of humans and livestock as reservoirs of infection. Differences in geographical and temporal distribution, disease presentations and risk factors for infection have been identified for *C. parvum* and *C. hominis*, the most commonly reported causes of human cryptosporidiosis (Cacciò *et al.* 2005). Such typing and subtyping analyses require the use of validated molecular methods, which have proven public health significance, and with their adoption, disease and source tracking become possible. Again, knowledge gained from research into *Cryptosporidium* should be useful in understanding the epidemiology of other enteric pathogenic protozoa.

Occurrence in the aquatic environment

Without knowing the occurrence of (oo)cysts and spores of parasitic protozoa in water, it is difficult to determine what risk they present to consumers of contaminated potable water.

Standardized methods are required to determine the occurrence of (oo)cysts and spores in raw water abstracted for potable water, water treatment systems, potable water and recreational waters. A variety of standardized methods already exist for *Giardia* and *Cryptosporidium* (*Methods for the Examination of Waters & Associated Materials* 1999) and the (oo)cysts of the majority of waterborne parasitic protozoa are similar to, or larger than those of *Giardia* and

Cryptosporidium (Table 1). We anticipate that current methods should prove useful for entrapping the (oo)cysts of the waterborne parasitic protozoa listed in Table 1, possibly with the exception of the microsporidia. Their identification in water concentrates presents issues similar to those encountered with *Giardia* and *Cryptosporidium* (oo)cysts prior to the development of fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC)-labelled genus specific monoclonal antibodies (FITC-mAbs) for their detection (Smith 1996), but the use of quality controlled, validated, PCR-based tools should overcome many of the problems associated with the lack of diagnostic FITC-mAbs.

Although widely used worldwide, current methods for the isolation and enumeration of *Giardia* and *Cryptosporidium* (oo)cysts in water (*Methods for the Examination of Waters & Associated Materials* 1999) have numerous limitations. They are time-consuming and inefficient, and provide minimal information about the biology of the organism. Furthermore, some advocate the analysis of only a fraction of the concentrate. Minimizing the portion of sample concentrate examined can reduce the level of confidence in the result obtained, and this issue requires appreciation by water regulators. Several alternative methods, or modifications to existing methods, have been published in the literature, but many lack corroboration with established methods using a variety of water types in multi-centre investigations. Advances that increase information about the biology and development of these pathogens should be encouraged. Currently, there are few hard scientific data available identifying the advantages of alternative methods and, in such a void, standardized methods are as effective as any alternative, and should be encouraged. Improvements in 'standard' methods can only occur when assurance quality control (AQC) data, accrued by the developers and users of such methods, are released into the public domain (Smith & Hayes 1996). Discussion, dissemination and publication of scientific data are seen as fundamental requirements for generating confidence in alternative methods. Although time-consuming, users, regulators and policy-makers must encourage participation in round robin testing and competent quality assurance schemes. Data generated from such interactive trials should be the final arbitrator.

Furthermore, current methods do not provide information on the infectivity, pathogenicity and virulence of the

organisms detected, nor can they determine the source from which the organism is derived. This presents a major challenge for the future monitoring of waterborne parasites in drinking water supplies.

Removal/destruction in water treatment

Given the common occurrence of *Cryptosporidium* spp. oocysts in source waters (Gold & Smith 2002), its ability to survive in cold aquatic environments, its low infectious dose, and the disinfection resistance of oocysts, optimization of multi-barrier approaches, including appropriate chemical pretreatment, 'best operational practice', and frequent, routine monitoring of filtration performance offer the best options for its control in water treatment systems (Smith & Lloyd 1997; Craun *et al.* 1998; Smith & Grimason 2003). Reductions of between 1.25 and 2.45 log₁₀ oocysts can be achieved in optimally run conventional water treatment systems (Smith & Grimason 2003). Similarly, those disinfectants, such as ultraviolet irradiation and ozone (Wallis & Campbell 2002), that are effective in inactivating waterborne *Cryptosporidium* and *Giardia* (oo)cysts are expected to prove useful for other waterborne protozoa (Smith & Grimason 2003).

The European perspective

Water shortage is an urgent public health problem currently facing some mainland European countries, particularly those in southern and eastern Europe (WHO 2002). Ongoing demographic changes can affect both water quality and demand through increased agricultural, industrial and domestic use, while unplanned urbanization leads to over-exploitation of local water resources and threatens the quality of local water bodies through release of inadequately treated wastewater (WHO 2002). Effective wastewater treatment safeguards public health against infections. Partnerships and co-operation between European countries are needed, at all levels, to provide financial and institutional support for improved wastewater disposal and better management and protection of water resources.

Enteric protozoan pathogens of humans have increased in importance in Europe, particularly since their association with waterborne transmission. In the UK, cryptosporidiosis

is the most common cause of outbreaks linked to mains water supply (Hunter 2000). Based on the likelihood of waterborne *Cryptosporidium* contamination from the catchment following risk assessment, the UK Government introduced legislation that requires water providers to implement continuous monitoring for *Cryptosporidium* (Barrell *et al.* 2000). In England and Wales, a continuing risk of cryptosporidiosis from treated water supplies has been confirmed, reinforcing government advice to water utilities for optimizing particle removal (Furtado *et al.* 1998). Such advice has reduced *Cryptosporidium* contamination of UK drinking water (Drury 2004).

Mainland Europe

Giardia and *Cryptosporidium* (oo)cysts have been detected in selected German surface and drinking waters (Gornik & Exner 1991; Karanis *et al.* 1998). Limited data are available regarding the occurrence and distribution of pathogenic protozoa in water in southern and eastern European countries. In Greece, *Giardia* and *Cryptosporidium* were detected in surface water reservoirs, swimming pools and drinking water samples (Karanis *et al.* 2001, 2002). In Russia, monitoring of treated water for the presence of *Giardia* cysts, prior to it entering the distribution system, has been required for all water treatment plants using surface waters since 1997. Treated wastewater analyses showed that contamination of surface waters with *Giardia* cysts mainly results from secondary wastewater discharges in the Moscow Region (Larin & Kashkarova 2002). High *Giardia* cyst densities (305 cysts l^{-1}) were detected in surface water sources in the Moscow region (Larin & Kashkarova 2002) during 1999–2000 together with an increase in the cyst densities during autumn/winter. Two of the four water treatment plants in Moscow that receive water from the Moscow River were contaminated periodically with a considerable number of *Giardia* cysts (Larin & Kashkarova 2002). In contrast, *Cryptosporidium* oocysts (0.891 l^{-1}) occurred randomly in samples, without identifiable seasonality. Giardiasis and cryptosporidiosis are not reportable in Russia.

Dolejs *et al.* (2000) reported the presence of *Cryptosporidium* oocysts (up to 74 l^{-1}) and *Giardia* cysts (up to 4.9 l^{-1}) in Czech raw water sources. Preliminary investigations on the

occurrence of *Giardia* and *Cryptosporidium* in Bulgarian (Sofia, Varna) and south Russian (Rostov) water supplies indicate high levels of (oo)cyst contamination (Karanis *et al.* 2005). In Sofia, (oo)cysts were detected in rivers (*Giardia* = 280 cysts l^{-1} ; *Cryptosporidium* = 92 oocysts l^{-1}), reservoirs (20 cysts l^{-1}), wells (4 oocysts l^{-1}) and sewage effluent (604 cysts l^{-1} ; 32 oocysts l^{-1}). No other reports on the occurrence and distribution of *Giardia* and *Cryptosporidium* in eastern European countries are available. Better surveillance and reporting systems and outbreak management strategies are needed to assess the risk of waterborne transmission of protozoa in European countries.

CONCLUSIONS

We reviewed 325 outbreaks of human disease attributed to the waterborne transmission of pathogenic protozoa. The presence of enteric protozoan parasites in aquatic ecosystems and their redistribution by such ecosystems make it imperative to develop prevention strategies for water and food safety. Determining the incidence and prevalence of human enteric protozoan parasites such as *Giardia*, *Cryptosporidium*, *Entamoeba*, *Cyclospora*, *Toxoplasma*, *Isospora*, *Blastocystis*, *Balantidium*, the microsporidia, *Acanthamoeba*, *Naegleria* and *Neospora* in different populations using parasitological, serological and molecular diagnostic tools will provide baseline data against which the risk factors associated with waterborne and foodborne transmission can be identified. While current diagnostic tests for enteric protozoa are effective for detecting clinically ill cases, they may not be sufficiently sensitive for detecting asymptomatic carriers. Standardized methods in both clinical and environmental settings are required to maximize public health surveillance, while reporting of outbreaks will provide better insight into the public health impact of waterborne pathogenic protozoa.

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