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## Accepted Manuscript

Molecular Characterisation of *Cryptosporidium* outbreaks in Western and South Australia

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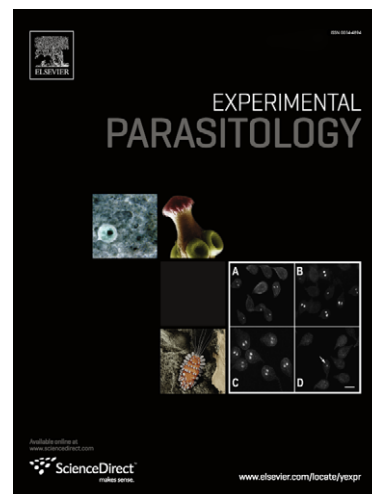
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1 **Molecular Characterisation of *Cryptosporidium* outbreaks in Western and South**  
2 **Australia.**

3

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5

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15 **Abstract**

16 Molecular typing at the 18S rRNA and *Gp60* loci was conducted on *Cryptosporidium*-  
17 positive stool samples from cases collected during 2007 Western Australian and South  
18 Australian outbreaks of cryptosporidiosis. Analysis of 48 Western Australian samples  
19 identified that all isolates were *C. hominis* and were from five different *Gp60 C. hominis*  
20 subtype families. The IbA10G2 subtype was most common across all age groups (37/48). In  
21 South Australia, analysis of 24 outbreak samples, identified 21 *C. hominis* isolates, two *C.*  
22 *parvum* isolates and one sample with both *C. hominis* and *C. parvum*. All *C. hominis* isolates  
23 were identified as the IbA10G2 subtype.

24

25 **Keywords:** *Cryptosporidium*; Outbreak; *Gp60*; 18S rRNA; Glycoprotein; Western Australia;  
26 South Australia.

27 **1. Introduction**

28

29 *Cryptosporidium* species are parasites that infect a wide range of hosts including  
30 humans, domestic and wild animals. In most cases, including those in humans,  
31 *Cryptosporidium* infection results in gastrointestinal problems such as severe diarrhoea.  
32 Currently 21 species of *Cryptosporidium* are recognised as valid and at least eight of them  
33 have been reported in humans; *C. hominis*, *C. parvum*, *C. meleagridis*, *C. felis*, *C. canis*, *C.*  
34 *muris*, and *C. suis*, and the *Cryptosporidium* cervine genotype. Of these, *C. hominis* and *C.*  
35 *parvum* are responsible for the majority of infections in humans (Xiao and Fayer, 2008; Xiao,  
36 2009).

37 To understand the transmission dynamics of *Cryptosporidium*, various  
38 fingerprinting/subtyping tools have been developed, one of the most popular of which is  
39 sequence analysis of the 60 kDa glycoprotein (*Gp60*, also called *gp15/40*). It is the most  
40 polymorphic marker identified so far in the *Cryptosporidium* genome (Gatei et al., 2006;  
41 Leoni et al., 2007; Wielinga et al., 2008). It is also biologically relevant as it encodes surface  
42 glycoproteins (*gp45* and *gp15*), both of which are implicated in zoite attachment to and  
43 invasion of enterocytes (Strong et al., 2000).

44 In Australia, *Cryptosporidium* is a notifiable disease and evidence to date suggests that  
45 *C. hominis* is the predominant species infecting humans but that there is a higher prevalence  
46 of *C. parvum* in the human population in New South Wales (NSW) and South Australia (SA)  
47 than in Western Australia (WA) (Robertson et al., 2002; Chalmers et al., 2005; Jex et al.,  
48 2007; Ng et al., 2008; O'Brien et al., 2008; Morgan et al., 2008; Jex, et al., 2008; Alagappan  
49 et al., 2008; Waldron et al., 2009a; 2009b).

50 From January to May 2007, there was a large increase in the number of notified  
51 cryptosporidiosis cases in WA, with 476 cases reported. This was three times the mean  
52 notification rate from the previous four years (Gibbs et al., 2008). Cases ranged in age from 4

53 months to 89 years (median 8 years), with 43% of cases in the <5 year age group. No gender  
54 disparity was observed, with 49% of cases male and 51% female. The majority of cases  
55 (67%) resided in the Perth metropolitan area. Non-Aboriginal people represented 69% of  
56 notified cases, with 13% of cases from Aboriginal people, predominantly from the north of  
57 WA. Indigenous status was unknown for 18% of cases. The total number of cases reported for  
58 2007 was 625, which was a rate of 30 cases per 100,000 population (Gibbs et al., 2008). The  
59 demography of cases from this outbreak year was similar to cases from non-outbreak years  
60 (2004, 2005 and 2006) with the exception of geography and indigenous status. In the outbreak  
61 year the proportion of cases from the metropolitan area was higher, and the proportion of  
62 indigenous cases was lower.

63 Similarly in SA in 2007, there was a large increase in the number of notified cases of  
64 cryptosporidiosis between January and the end of April with 393 cases reported (Anon, 2007).  
65 Cases ranged in age from <1 month to 87 years (median 10 years), with 32% of cases within  
66 the 0-4 year age group. No gender disparity was observed, with 45% of cases male and 55%  
67 female. The majority of cases (78%) resided in the Adelaide metropolitan area. Non-  
68 Aboriginal people represented 82% of notified cases, with 1% of cases from Aboriginal  
69 people. Indigenous status was unknown for 17% of cases. The total number of cases reported  
70 for 2007 was 449 cases, which was over twice the notification for the preceding year and  
71 seven times the number of cases for the subsequent year (Anon, 2007).

72 The aim of the present study was to identify the *Cryptosporidium* species present in  
73 the WA and SA outbreaks and to subtype the isolates at the *Gp60* locus to determine the  
74 subtypes present.

75

76 **2. Materials and methods**

77

78 *2.1 Specimens and DNA extraction*

79

80 A total of 72 faecal samples associated with the *Cryptosporidium* outbreaks were  
81 received from various pathology centers, of which 48 were from Western Australia and 25  
82 were from South Australia. Total DNA was extracted immediately upon receipt, using a  
83 QIAmp DNA Stool Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and stored at -20°C.

84

85 *2.2 PCR Amplification and DNA sequencing*

86

87 Initial genotyping of the samples were carried out by a two-step nested PCR of the  
88 18S rRNA locus (Ryan et al., 2003). The secondary PCR products were purified using a  
89 Power Soil DNA Kit (MolBio, Carlsbad, California, USA) according to manufacturer's  
90 protocol and sequenced using an ABI Prism Dye Terminator Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster  
91 City, California).

92 Isolates were sub-genotyped at the *Gp60* gene locus using a two-step nested PCR  
93 which amplifies a secondary PCR fragment of ~832bp as previously described (Strong et al,  
94 2000). Purification and sequencing of the amplified DNA fragments were carried out as  
95 described above.

96 Nucleotide sequences were analyzed using Chromas lite version 2.0  
97 (<http://www.technelysium.com.au>) and aligned using Clustal W (<http://clustalw.genome.jp>).

98

99 **3. Results**

100

101 *3.1 Western Australia*

102

103 All of 48 isolates from WA were identified as *C. hominis* at the 18S locus (Table I).  
104 At the *Gp60* locus, five different *C. hominis Gp60* subtype families were identified; Ib, Id, Ie,  
105 If and Ig (Table I). Within the *C. hominis* Ib family, IbA10G2 was the only subtype identified  
106 and was the most common subtype identified in the WA cases genotyped (37/48). The second  
107 most common *Gp60* subtype family was the *C. hominis* Id family (6/48). Three subtypes were  
108 identified within the *C. hominis* Id family; IdA16 (3/6), IdA15G1 (2/6) and IdA17 (1/6). The  
109 other subtypes identified included *C. hominis* IeA11G3T3 (1/48), *C. hominis* IfA12G1 (1/48)  
110 and *C. hominis* IgA17 (3/48).

111 Although not systematically sampled, the samples genotyped were representative of  
112 the overall outbreak in terms of age and gender distribution (Table II). A lower proportion of  
113 samples from rural cases were typed compared to the overall outbreak, which may have  
114 decreased the probability of identifying *C. parvum*. The majority of the samples typed (94%)  
115 were collected during the outbreak period again demonstrating that the typing results were,  
116 for the most part, representative of the overall outbreak.

117 As genotyping was conducted towards the end of the epidemiological investigation,  
118 only a quarter of those cases that had isolates genotyped were interviewed. Therefore it was  
119 not possible to examine subtype specific risk factors. However, 171 interviews were  
120 conducted out of the 476 notified cases. All interviewed cases, resided in the metropolitan  
121 area. The case series identified that in the two weeks prior to onset of symptoms, 64% of  
122 cases swam in a pool, 53% had contact with pets, 22% were children that attended day care  
123 centres, 16% reported contact with a person with a diarrhoeal illness, 14% had contact with



124 farm animals and 10% drank water from a private (untreated) water supply (Gibbs et al.  
125 2008). Eleven of the interviewed cases were hospitalized as a result of their illness.

126 The age range for these 48 WA isolates genotyped was <1 to 76 (Table I). The  
127 highest prevalence was amongst children <5 years of age (39.6%) but was also common  
128 amongst older age groups with the second highest peak, amongst the 16-39 age group (Table  
129 I). The IbA10G2 subtype was identified across all age groups.

130

### 131 3.2 South Australia

132

133 Of the 24 isolates from SA, 21 were *C. hominis*, 2 were *C. parvum* and 1 isolate was a  
134 mixed *C. hominis/C. parvum* infection (Table I). At the *Gp60* locus, all 21 of the *C. hominis*  
135 isolates belonged to the *C. hominis* IbA10G2 subtype. The two *C. parvum* isolates belonged  
136 to the *C. parvum* IIaA18G3R1 subtype. Isolate SA17, which was a mixed *C. parvum/C.*  
137 *hominis* infection exhibited the *C. hominis* IbA10G2 and the *C. parvum* IIaA19G3R1  
138 subtypes respectively.

139 The age range for the 24 SA isolates was <1 to 74 (Table II). The highest prevalence  
140 occurred in the 16-29 age-group (37.5%), followed by the <5 age group (29.2%). As with the  
141 WA outbreak, the IbA10G2 subtype was distributed across all age-groups (Table I). Of the 24  
142 isolates examined, 30% were from regional locations in SA and the remainder (n = 15) were  
143 from metropolitan Adelaide. Of the 8 isolates from rural locations, only one was identified as  
144 *C. parvum*.

145 Limited epidemiological investigations were conducted in SA. Initial phone interviews  
146 with 30 individuals identified that 20 people had used public swimming pools, 3 had used  
147 private swimming pools, 1 drank rainwater, 1 swam in the Murray River, 1 swam in a farm  
148 dam, 1 had fallen into a septic tank and 3 had family members with gastrointestinal illness  
149 consistent with cryptosporidiosis, but did not submit faecal specimens for testing.

150 3.3 *Gp60* nucleotide sequence accession numbers

151

152 Representative *Gp60* subtypes identified during the present study have been deposited  
153 in the GenBank database under accession numbers GU810905-GU810914.

154

#### 155 4. Discussion

156

157 In the present study, the anthroponotic *C. hominis* was the most prevalent  
158 *Cryptosporidium* species identified in both cryptosporidiosis outbreaks in WA and SA. In  
159 WA, all isolates genotyped (48) were *C. hominis*, whereas in SA, *C. hominis* was identified in  
160 87.5% (21/24) of isolates, *C. parvum* was identified in 8.3% of samples (2/24) and a mixed *C.*  
161 *hominis/C. parvum* infection was identified in one patient.

162 There was a broad spread of age groups infected during both the WA and SA  
163 outbreaks. In WA, 32% of cases were in children less than 5 years of age, with a second peak  
164 (27%) in the 16-39 age group. In SA, the highest infection rate was amongst the 16-39 age  
165 group (37.5%), followed by the <5 age group (29.2%). Cryptosporidial infections are  
166 predominately reported in children <5 years of age (Fayer, 2007), but the present results  
167 reveal a higher peak of infection in the 16-39 age group in SA and highlight the fact that all  
168 age-groups are susceptible to infection with *Cryptosporidium*. The peak in the 16-39 age  
169 group, may be due to adults and teenagers caring for infected children becoming infected  
170 themselves.

171 A case series conducted in WA identified that 64% of interviewed cases swam in a  
172 pool prior to onset of illness. Twenty-three SA cases reported swimming in a pool prior to  
173 onset of illness. While these data indicate that swimming pools could be a source of infection,  
174 it is important to note that neither state conducted a case-control study. Therefore, the

175 proportion of non-infected people that swam in that time frame was unknown, and it could not  
176 be determined whether swimming was a significant risk factor *Cryptosporidium* infection.

177 Waterborne transmission of *Cryptosporidium* through swimming in contaminated  
178 pools is now recognized as an important transmission route for *Cryptosporidium* and  
179 approximately 50.3% (83) of the reported outbreaks of cryptosporidiosis worldwide have  
180 been due to contamination of swimming pools (Karanis et al., 2007). Contamination in  
181 swimming pools is often associated with accidental faecal contamination and poorly  
182 constructed and/or maintained plumbing (Joce et al., 1991). It is possible that outbreaks begin  
183 in swimming pools but then become transmitted from human to human through contact with  
184 children, fomites etc. To date, no studies have been conducted in Australia on  
185 *Cryptosporidium* contamination levels and genotypes in public swimming pools. This work is  
186 urgently needed to better understand the transmission dynamics in the human population in  
187 Australia.

188 In the present study, all the WA isolates genotyped were *C. hominis*, whereas in the  
189 SA isolates, *C. parvum* was detected in 3 isolates. This supports previous research reporting a  
190 higher prevalence of *C. parvum* in the human population in NSW, Victoria and SA than in  
191 WA (Robertson, et al., 2002; Chalmers et al., 2005; Jex et al., 2007; Ng et al., 2008; O'Brien  
192 et al., 2008; Jex, et al., 2008; Alagappan et al., 2008; Waldron et al., 2009a; 2009b). For  
193 example, in NSW, a recent study of 69 sporadic cases of cryptosporidiosis identified *C.*  
194 *hominis* in ~53% (37/69) and *C. parvum* in ~46% (32/69) (Waldron et al., 2009a). Why this  
195 appears to be the case is difficult to determine. In the present study, an analysis of the SA  
196 outbreak samples indicated that only one of the *C. parvum* isolates identified from SA was  
197 from a rural location.

198 Determining the prevalence of *C. hominis* and *C. parvum* in human populations is  
199 important as recent reports strongly suggest that there are different clinical manifestations  
200 between *C. parvum* and *C. hominis*, particularly in children. In a study of sporadic

201 cryptosporidiosis in the UK, illness was more severe in persons infected with *C. hominis* than  
202 in those infected with *C. parvum* (Hunter et al., 2004a; 2004b). In addition, *C. hominis* but not  
203 *C. parvum* was associated with an increased risk of non-intestinal symptoms such as joint  
204 pain eye pain, headaches, dizzy spells and fatigue (Hunter et al., 2004b). In a study of  
205 children infected with *Cryptosporidium* in Brazil, *C. hominis* infections were associated with  
206 higher oocyst shedding in stools as well as with greater shortfalls in growth in the post-  
207 infection period even in the absence of symptoms (Bushen et al., 2007). A 4-year longitudinal  
208 birth cohort of 533 children in Peru, reported that *C. hominis* was associated with diarrhea,  
209 nausea, vomiting, general malaise, and increased oocyst shedding intensity and duration. In  
210 contrast, *C. parvum*, *C. meleagridis*, *C. canis*, and *C. felis* were associated with diarrhea only  
211 (Cama et al., 2008).

212 *Gp60* subtyping indicated that the *C. hominis* IbA10G2 subtype was the most  
213 prevalent subtype identified in both the WA and SA outbreaks. The *C. hominis* Ib subtype  
214 family is the most frequently detected *Cryptosporidium* spp. in waterborne outbreaks of  
215 cryptosporidiosis in industrialized nations (Xiao, 2009). The *C. hominis* IbA10G2 subtype  
216 has been common in sporadic human cryptosporidiosis cases in the UK, US, Peru, Slovenia  
217 and South Africa (Peng et al., 2001; Leav et al., 2002; Zhou et al., 2003; Chalmers et al.,  
218 2005; Alves et al., 2006; Soba and Logar, 2008). The IbA10G2 subtype is also common in  
219 NSW (Ng et al., 2008; Waldron et al., 2009b), and is the subtype responsible for the 2009  
220 NSW outbreak (Waldron et al., 2009c). Previous studies in WA and SA have reported a  
221 prevalence of ~20-50% of the IbA10G2 subtype amongst sporadic *C. hominis* infections (Jex  
222 et al., 2008; O'Brien et al., 2008). Few studies have examined the association between  
223 specific *Gp60* subtype families and clinical symptoms. A recent study has reported that while  
224 all *C. hominis* subtype families were associated with diarrhoea, only *C. hominis* subtype  
225 family Ib was also associated with nausea, vomiting, and general malaise (Cama et al., 2008).

226 The *C. hominis* subtypes Id, Ig, Ie and If were also detected in the WA outbreak

227 isolates. Id subtypes are common in industrialised countries and the Ig subtype has previously  
228 been reported in a drinking-water associated outbreak in Northern Ireland (Glaberman et al.,  
229 2002). Subtype If is less common. All the Id, Ig, and If subtypes identified in the present  
230 study, have been previously reported in WA human isolates (O'Brien et al., 2008). Subtype  
231 IeA11G3T3 found in a single isolate from WA, is a cause of sporadic cryptosporidiosis  
232 around the world (Xiao, 2009). Amongst the SA *C. parvum* isolates, subtype IIaA18G3R1 was  
233 identified in 2/3 *C. parvum* positive human isolates. This subtype has been identified as the  
234 most common subtype in cattle in Perth, WA (O'Brien et al., 2008), Tamworth, NSW (Ng et  
235 al., 2008), Canada (Trotz-Williams et al., 2006) and Northern Ireland (Thompson et al.,  
236 2007).

237 In conclusion, the *C. hominis* IbA10G2 was the pre-dominant subtype identified in  
238 both the WA and SA outbreak samples. No conclusive link between the outbreak and a source  
239 of contamination was determined.

240

241

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248

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251

252

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371

372 Table I. Distribution of *Cryptosporidium* species and subtypes in different age groups in WA

373 and SA outbreaks, for samples that were genotyped.

374

State	Age range (yrs)	No of cases	%	Species	Gp60 subtype	No. of subtypes
WA	<5	23	47.9	<i>C. hominis</i>	Ib A10G2	18
					Id A16	1
					Id A17	1
					1g A17	3
	5-15	6	12.5		1b A10G2	5
					1d A16	1
	16-39	13	27.1		1b A10G2	10
					1d A16	1
					1d A15G1	2
	40-90	6	12.5		1b A10G2	4
					1e A11G3T3	1
					IfA21G1	1
<b>Total</b>		<b>48</b>				<b>48</b>
SA	<5	7	29.2	<i>C. hominis</i>	Ib A10G2	7
	5-15	3	12.5	<i>C. hominis</i>	Ib A10G2	3
	16-39	9	37.5	<i>C. hominis</i>	Ib A10G2	8
				+ <i>C. parvum</i>	IIa A18G3R1	1
	40-90	4	16.7	<i>C. hominis</i>	1b A10G2	3
			+ <i>C. parvum</i>	IIa A19G4R1*	1	
	UK	1	4.1	<i>C. parvum</i>	IIa A18G3R1	1
<b>Total</b>		<b>24</b>				<b>24</b>

375 UK = age unknown

376 \*mixed *C. parvum* IIa A19G4R1 and *C. hominis* Ib A10G2 infection.

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378

379 Table II. Comparison of demographic information for samples that were genotyped and

380 overall outbreak data for WA and SA.

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382

	<b>Demographic Information</b>	<b>Overall outbreak</b>	<b>Samples typed</b>
WA	Age range	0-89 years	0-76 years
	Median age	8 years	6.5 years
	< 5 years old (%)	43	46
	Male (%)	49	42
	Female (%)	51	58
	Urban (%)	67	79
	Rural (%)	33	19
	Date of specimen collection	1/1/2007 31/5/2007	13/3/2007 15/8/2007
SA	Age range	0-87 years	0-74 years
	Median age	10 years	25 years
	<5 years old (%)	32	29
	Male (%)	45	35
	Female (%)	55	65
	Urban (%)	78	70
	Rural (%)	22	30
	Date of specimen collection	N/A	N/A

383 NA = not available.

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