

Comparison of the efficacy of an existing versus a locally developed metabolic fingerprint database to identify non-point sources of faecal contamination in a coastal lake

W. Ahmed*, J. Tucker, J. Harper, R. Neller, M. Katouli

Faculty of Science, Health and Education, University of the Sunshine Coast, Maroochydore DC 4558, Qld., Australia

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ABSTRACT

A comparison of the efficacy of an existing large metabolic fingerprint database of enterococci and Escherichia coli with a locally developed database was undertaken to identify the sources of faecal contamination in a coastal lake, in southeast Qld., Australia. The local database comprised of 776 enterococci and 780 E. coli isolates from six host groups. In all, 189 enterococci and 245 E. coli biochemical phenotypes (BPTs) were found, of which 118 and 137 BPTs were unique (UQ) to host groups. The existing database comprised of 295 enterococci UQ-BPTs and 273 E. coli UQ-BPTs from 10 host groups. The representativeness and the stability of the existing database were assessed by comparing with isolates that were external to the database. In all, 197 enterococci BPTs and 179 E. coli BPTs were found in water samples. The existing database was able to identify 62.4% of enterococci BPTs and 64.8% of E. coli BPTs as human and animal sources. The results indicated that a representative database developed from a catchment can be used to predict the sources of faecal contamination in another catchment with similar landuse features within the same geographical area. However, the representativeness and the stability of the database should be evaluated prior to its application in such investigation. © 2006 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Faecal contamination of surface waters in coastal areas result in the degradation of recreational and commercial waterways in many parts of the world. Non-point and point sources are both regarded as contributors of such contamination (Ahmed et al., 2005a; Barnes and Gordon, 2004; Johnson et al., 2004; McLellan, 2004). Various human enteric pathogens such as *Salmonella* spp., *Shigella* spp. (Faruque et al., 2002) and hepatitis A (Griffin et al., 1999) have been found in receiving water bodies due to human faecal contamination. Wastewater from domestic and/or farm animals such as cattle, horses and poultry may further contribute pathogens such as *Escherichia* coli O157:H7, Cryptosporidium spp. and Giardia spp. (Martin et al., 1986; Ong et al., 1996). Identification of major sources of faecal bacteria and potential pathogens is therefore necessary for the improved management of coastal creeks, lakes and rivers. However, the identification and quantification of pathogens from environmental sources can be a cumbersome task (Payment, 1993). Alternatively, the uses of indicators such as *E. coli* and enterococci commonly found in the intestine of warm-blooded animals in relatively high numbers have been considered as ideal faecal indicators (Baudisöva, 1997). There are reports however, that *E. coli* may replicate in pristine waters in tropical environment (Desmarais et al., 2002) and certain encapsulated strains of *E. coli* can cause bloom in surface waters even in the absence of faecal sources (Power et al., 2005).

^{*}Corresponding author. Tel.: +6107 5479 0875; fax: +6107 5430 2887. E-mail address: shuhat@yahoo.com (W. Ahmed).

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Nonetheless, the presence of such indicator bacteria in surface waters can only be seen as a measure of the quality of the water but does not provide definitive information with respect to possible sources (McLellan, 2004; Whitlock et al., 2002). Genotypic and phenotypic methods have been developed to distinguish the various sources of human and animal contamination (Carson et al., 2001; Hagedorn et al., 2003; Wallis and Taylor, 2003) in surface waters. Some of these methods (i.e. ribotyping, rep-PCR, antibiotic resistance profiles) require the development of a known source database from host groups, based on the hypothesis that phenotypic or genotypic characteristics of specific bacterial strains are associated with specific animals (Johnson et al., 2004; McLellan, 2004). The developed database is then used to compare fingerprints from these same indicator bacteria found in surface waters.

Despite the successful application of these databasedependent methods, several questions have arisen regarding their utility. For instance, the size and the representativeness of the database need to be addressed prior to developing a database for optimal performance. It has further been reported that temporal and geographical variability exists in *E*. coli populations, which may restrict the use of this organism for a universal database (Hartel et al., 2002). In response to these factors it has been suggested that a specific database should be developed for each catchment of interest (Hartel et al., 2002; Wiggins et al., 2003). This approach, however, is unlikely to be cost effective and to become an accepted monitoring tool for regulating authorities.

We have recently reported on the development of a large metabolic fingerprint database and used that to identify the sources of faecal contamination in Eudlo Catchment, Qld., Australia (Ahmed et al., 2005b). The aim of this study was to assess the representativeness and stability of this existing database and therefore, evaluate the efficacy of such database to trace the sources of faecal contamination in another catchment with similar landuse patterns within the same geographical area.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Host groups sampling

Six host groups (i.e. horses, cattle, ducks, chickens, dogs and humans) were sampled between March 2005 and May 2005 on four occasions from a Caloundra City catchment in southeastern Qld., Australia. Host groups were carefully chosen as they were identified as potential contributors. In all, 155 samples were collected, including horses (32 samples from 10 farms), cattle (29 samples from 11 farms), chickens (30 samples from 4 farms), ducks (34 samples), dogs (27 samples) and humans (3 samples). Faecal samples from domestic farm animals were collected from farms within the catchment whilst those for dogs were collected from city dog parks and a dog kennel within 200 m of the studied lake. Samples containing bacteria of human origin were collected as composite samples from the primary influent of a sewerage treatment plant (STP) servicing residential areas. All samples (except STP) were collected from fresh defecation of individual animals with sterile swabs and inserted into Amies transport medium (Interpath, Melbourne, Australia) and transported on ice to the laboratory and tested within 6 h.

2.2. Isolation of enterococci and E. coli

STP samples were suspended in 100 ml of buffered water (0.0425 g/l KH₂PO₄ and 0.4055 g/l MgCl₂) and vortexed for 3 min. Serial dilutions were made and filtered through a 0.45 µm pore size (47 mm-diameter) nitrocellulose membranes (Advantec, Japan) and placed on m-enterococcus (Difco, UK) and RAPID' E. coli 2 (REC 2) with supplement (Bio-rad, USA) agar plates. Faecal samples from animal host groups were directly streaked on m-enterococcus and REC 2 agar plates. Plates were then incubated at 37 °C for 48 h (for faecal streptococci) and at 44 °C for 24 h (for E. coli). The REC 2 medium, used for isolation of E. coli is based on the detection of two enzyme activities; β -D-glucuronidase (β -gluc) and β -Dgalactosidase (β -gal). The hydrolysis of chromogenic substrates results in purple E. coli (β -gluc positive/ β -gal positive) and blue coliform colonies (β -gluc negative/ β -gal positive). The supplement added to the medium inhibits interfering Gram-negative flora, which can be found in wastewater and natural waters. Single purple colonies from this medium were streaked on McConkey agar (Oxoid, USA) for purity and also tested for indole production and citrate cleavage. Indole positive and citrate negative isolates were identified as E. coli. All isolates from m-enterococcus plates were also tested for esculin hydrolysis on to Bile Esculin Agar (Oxoid, UK) and incubated at 45 °C for 1h to confirm their identification as enterococci (i.e. black coloration) (Manero and Blanch, 1999).

2.3. Biochemical fingerprinting

In this study, we used two types of micro plates specifically developed for typing of enterococci (PhP-RF plates) and E. coli strains (PhP-RE plates) (PhPlate system, PhPlate AB, Stockholm). The 11 substrates used for enterococci and E.coli have been described before (Iverson et al., 2002; Kühn et al., 1995). The growth medium for PhP-RF and RE was prepared according to the manufacturer instructions. To maximize the metabolic fingerprint, from each host up to seven colonies of E. coli and seven colonies of enterococci were randomly selected and picked with sterile toothpicks and suspended into the first well of each row containing only 350 µl of growth medium. Aliquots of 25 µl of bacterial suspension were transferred into each of the other 11 wells containing 150 µl growth medium. Plates were then incubated at 37 °C and A₆₂₀ was measured at 7, 24 and 48 h for E. coli and at 16, 40 and 64 h for enterococci using a micro plate reader (Lab-systems Multiskan, Finland). Using the PhPlate software version 4001 (PhPlate system, PhPlate AB, Stockholm), data were transferred to a computer connected to the reader and multiplied by 10 to give scores ranging from 0 to 30 for each reaction. After the final reading the mean value for all three readings was calculated for each isolate giving scores ranging from 0 to 30 (biochemical fingerprint) as previously described by Kühn et al. (1995). Similarities between isolates were determined as correlation coefficient after pair-wise comparisons of the isolates using the PhPlate software according to the method

described before (Kühn et al., 1995). This produced a similarity matrix that contains N (i.e. number of isolates) \times (N-1)/2 correlation coefficients which was clustered according to the UPGMA clustering method (Sneath and Sokal, 1973) to yield a dendrogram. In the dendrogram, each line represents one isolate and they are connected to each other at the similarity level they show to each other. An identity (ID) level of 0.965 was established based on the reproducibility of the system after testing 20 isolates in duplicates. The mean similarity of all 20 isolates minus two standard deviations (95% confidence level) was taken as the ID-level.

Isolates with similarity higher than the ID-level were regarded as identical and assigned to the same biochemical phenotype (BPT). The phenotypic diversity among the isolates was measured with Simpson's index of diversity (Di) (Atlas, 1984). Di in the present study depends on isolates distribution into different BPTs. Diversity is high (maximum 1) for a population consists of different BPTs and is low (minimum 0) if the population contains of few dominating BPTs. All data handling, including optical readings, calculations of correlations and coefficients, diversity indexes and as well as clustering and printing dendrograms, was performed using the PhPlate software version 4001 (PhPlate system, PhPlate AB, Stockholm).

2.4. Lake sampling

Water samples were collected from seven sites (CU1–CU7) from Currimundi Lake (Fig. 1) during March 2005 to April 2005. Currimundi Lake, being located in the heart of the city, is mainly used for recreational activities and the surrounding population of the lake is entirely serviced by STPs. The lake is subject to tidal inundation from the ocean and the entrance periodically closes following the formation of sand plugs due to tidal wave action. Once closed, the entrance will only be reopened by storm run-off following heavy rainfall events. The

sample sites were located at various points along the entire length of the lake. Sample site CU1 was located in the upper reaches of the lake borders on rural landuse with both animal and cultivated practices. Sample site CU2 was located adjacent to residential landuse connected to a centralized STP. Sample sites CU3–CU5 are also situated in a residential area and are proximal to a number of storm water outlets and serviced by STPs. Sample site CU6 was located close to the coastal National Park, and is surrounded by non-residential landuse. Sample site CU7 was located at the mouth of the lake (being separated from the ocean by a sand plug) and is extensively used for recreational activities.

In all, 28 samples were collected from these seven sites (four samples from each site over a two week intervals). Water samples were collected in 1l sterile bottles from 30 cm below the water surface and transported on ice to the laboratory and tested within 6 h. The membrane filtration method was used to process all the water samples as described above. The identification and typing of these isolates with the PhPlate system were carried out as described earlier. From each water sample a maximum of 32 (where possible) enterococci and 24 *E.* coli isolates (where possible) were typed with the PhPlate system for comparison with the database.

2.5. Bacterial source tracking

To identify the sources of faecal indicator bacteria, a local database was developed and used that alone and/or in combination with the larger existing database from a previous microbial source tracking study (Ahmed et al., 2005b). This existing database comprised of 4057 enterococci and 3728 *E. coli* isolates from 10 host groups including six host groups (i.e. cattle, horses, humans, chickens, ducks and dogs) tested for the development of the local database. This existing database has been successfully used previously in another



Fig. 1 - Map of the Currimundi Lake showing sampling sites (CU1-CU7) and landuse patterns of Currimundi sub-catchment.

catchment (i.e. Eudlo Catchment) located at a distance of 30 km from the present studied catchment.

2.6. Representativeness and stability of the existing database

The representativeness of the existing database was tested according to Wiggins et al. (2003). A database could be considered highly representative, if it can classify more than 95% of non-database isolates into correct host groups. In all, 31 fresh faecal samples were collected from six host groups (i.e. humans, horses, dogs, ducks cattle and chickens) from the Eudlo Catchment after 10 months of development of the existing database. A total of 328 enterococci isolates and 290 E. coli isolates were typed from these samples and the BPTs obtained from these non-database isolates were cross-referenced with the BPTs of the existing database to determine its representativeness. In addition, the stability of the existing (i.e. larger database) database was tested after 10 months by comparing with the local database developed for this study.

3. Results

3.1. Diversity of faecal indicator

In all, 649 enterococci and 505 E. coli isolates from all sites (i.e. CU1–CU7) were tested with the PhPlate system. The mean diversity index of both faecal indicator bacteria (0.84 ± 0.11 for enterococci and 0.84 ± 0.10 for E. coli) was quite high (maximum 1) for all sites and ranged between 0.78 and 0.91 for enterococci and 0.79 and 0.98 for E. coli indicating a diverse range of indicator bacteria (Table 1).

3.2. Database development

The local database was initially developed by testing 776 enterococci and 780 *E.* coli isolates from faecal samples. Within each host group, BPTs were compared with each other and a representative of each BPT was selected. In all, 189

enterococci and 245 E. coli BPTs were found in all host groups. These BPTs were named as total-BPTs (Table 2). The existing database contained 526 enterococci and 530 E. coli total-BPTs. However, when the total-BPTs of these two databases were compared, it was found that many BPTs from the local database were identical to those of the existing database and therefore excluded. In this manner, a merged database was created, which contained 594 enterococci and 598 E. coli total-BPTs (Table 2).

The total-BPTs from all host groups were compared with each other and if identical, they were regarded as SH-BPTs (shared between two or more host groups). In contrast all non-identical BPTs were regarded as unique (UQ) BPTs (specific to individual host group). In the local database, 118 enterococci UQ-BPTs and 137 *E.* coli UQ-BPTs were found (Table 3). These figures for the existing database were 295 UQ-BPTs (for enterococci) and 273 UQ-BPTs (for *E.* coli) (Table 3). When these two databases were merged, it was found that 84.7% of enterococci UQ-BPTs and 78.1% of *E.* coli UQ-BPTs in the local database were already present in the existing database.

We also calculated the number of UQ isolates (i.e. in all UQ-BPTs) over the total isolates tested for each host group in all databases and found that the percentage of total UQ isolates over total isolates tested in the local database was 30.8% (for enterococci) and 39.5% (for E. coli) (Table 4). These figures for the existing database were 22.0% (for enterococci) and 27.3% (for E. coli). However, when these two databases were merged, these figures rose to 27.3% (for enterococci) and 23.4% (for E. coli) (Table 4).

In all databases, certain SH-BPTs were only found in animals whereas some were shared between human and animals. The latter was excluded from all databases, as they could not differentiate the sources between human and animal host groups. All BPTs (i.e. UQ and SH-BPTs) from animal host groups that were not found in humans were collectively categorized as animal-BPTs. In the local database the animal-BPTs consisted of 161 enterococci and 188 E. coli BPTs of which 99 (61%) enterococci and 93 (49%) were UQ-BPTs (see Tables 2 and 3). For the existing database, these figures were 432 enterococci BPTs and 438 E. coli BPTs of

Sampling sites	No. of isolates tested (no	. of total-BPTs found)	Mean diver	sity \pm S.D.
	Enterococci	E. coli	Enterococci	E. coli
CU1	104 (31)	62 (21)	0.78±0.09	0.80 ± 0.05
CU2	84 (32)	54 (14)	0.83 ± 0.18	0.84 ± 0.05
CU3	72 (28)	69 (31)	0.91 ± 0.07	0.89 ± 0.06
CU4	119 (29)	67 (27)	0.83 ± 0.09	0.89 ± 0.06
CU5	113 (26)	69 (25)	0.82 ± 0.11	0.89 ± 0.04
CU6	94 (26)	92 (37)	0.82 ± 0.19	0.86 ± 0.07
CU7	63 (25)	92 (24)	0.91 ± 0.03	$0.79 \!\pm\! 0.22$
Total	649 (197)	505 (179)	0.84 ± 0.11^{a}	$0.84 {\pm} 0.10^{a}$
^a Overall mean diversity				

Table 1 – Number of isolates tested from seven sampling site (i.e. CU1–CU7) in Currimundi Lake and their mean diversity

Table 2 – Number of isolates tested from each host group and the number of total-biochemical phenotypes (BPTs) in the local, existing and merged databases

Host groups (no. of samples tested)	Local dat	abase	Existing d	atabase	Merged da	atabase
testeuj	No. of isolates t total-BPTs	ested (no. of found)	No. of isolates t total BPTs	tested (no. of -found)	No. of isolates t total-BPTs	ested (no. of found)
	Enterococci	E. coli	Enterococci	E. coli	Enterococci	E. coli
Human (3)	137 (28)	161 (57)	1072 (94)	621 (92)	1209 (101)	782 (101)
Horses (32)	109 (31)	131 (34)	407 (76)	407 (60)	516 (78)	538 (66)
Dogs (27)	126 (21)	121 (36)	404 (49)	408 (64)	530 (60)	529 (73)
Ducks (34)	136 (42)	110 (33)	408 (58)	404 (69)	544 (72)	514 (74)
Cattle (29)	145 (40)	126 (41)	411 (47)	401 (61)	556 (71)	527 (73)
Chicken (30)	123 (27)	131 (44)	408 (74)	408 (59)	531 (84)	539 (78)
Pigs (NT)	NT	NT	312 (54)	400 (53)	312 (54)	400 (53)
Sheep (NT)	NT	NT	287 (21)	367 (30)	287 (21)	367 (30)
Deer (NT)	NT	NT	204 (28)	200 (31)	204 (28)	200 (31)
Kangaroos (NT)	NT	NT	144 (25)	112 (19)	144 (25)	112 (19)
Total (155)	776 (189)	780 (245)	4057 (526)	3728 (530)	4833 (594)	4508 (598)
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NT: Not tested for the local database.

Table 3 – Number of unique (UQ) and shared (SH) biochemical phenotypes (BPTs) of host groups in the local, existing and merged databases

Host groups		Local da	tabase			Existing d	latabase			Merged o	latabase	
	Entero	ococci	E. 0	coli	Entero	ococci	E. (coli	Enter	ococci	E. coli	
	UQ	SH	UQ	SH	UQ	SH	UQ	SH	UQ	SH	UQ	SH
Human	19	9	44	13	66	28	69	23	70	31	71	30
Horses	21	10	17	17	54	22	32	28	55	23	36	30
Dogs	16	5	19	17	24	25	32	32	25	35	38	35
Ducks	30	12	11	22	29	29	32	37	34	38	33	41
Cattle	21	19	22	19	23	24	24	29	28	43	31	42
Chicken	11	16	24	20	41	33	33	26	38	46	43	35
Pigs	NT	NT	NT	NT	28	26	25	28	28	26	25	28
Sheep	NT	NT	NT	NT	7	14	11	19	7	14	11	19
Deer	NT	NT	NT	NT	13	15	9	22	13	15	9	22
Kangaroos	NT	NT	NT	NT	10	15	6	13	10	15	6	13
Total	118	71	137	108	295	231	273	257	308	286	303	295
NT: Not tested.												

which, 229 (53%) enterococci BPTs and 204 (47%) E. coli BPTs were UQ-BPTs (see Tables 2 and 3). For the merged database, these figures were 493 enterococci BPTs and 497 E. coli BPTs of which, 238 (48.2%) enterococci BPTs and 232 (46.7%) E. coli BPTs were UQ-BPTs (see Tables 2 and 3).

3.3. Representativeness and stability of the existing database

The representativeness of the existing database was determined by adding non-database isolates from the same catchment (i.e. Eudlo Catchment). Of the 328 enterococci and 290 E. coli isolates tested from six host groups, 79 (92.9% over total-BPTs found) enterococci BPTs which were represented by 303 (92.4%) enterococci isolates and 63 (86.3% over total-BPTs found) were represented by 273 (94.1%) E. coli isolates were already present in the existing database indicating a high representativeness.

Stability of the BPTs in the existing database was tested by comparing the total-BPTs (i.e. UQ and SH-BPTs) from the local database. The results showed that 121 (64.0% over total-BPTs found) enterococci total-BPTs which were represented by 665 isolates (85.7% over total isolates tested) and 177 (72.2%) *E. coli* total-BPTs which were represented by 683 isolates (87.6%)

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Host		Local da	atabase			Existing o	latabase			Merged o	latabase	
groups	Enterc	ococci	E. 0	coli	Entero	cocci	E. 0	coli	Entero	ococci	E. 0	oli
	No. of isolates	% over total isolates										
Human	54	39.4	120	74.5	367	34.2	360	57.9	421	34.8	480	61.4
Horses	37	33.9	21	16.0	91	22.3	80	19.6	128	24.8	101	18.8
Dogs	18	14.3	53	43.8	59	14.6	81	19.8	77	14.5	134	25.3
Ducks	43	31.6	19	17.3	41	10.0	136	33.6	84	15.4	155	30.1
Cattle	69	47.6	53	42.0	95	23.1	71	17.7	164	29.5	124	23.5
Chicken	18	14.6	42	32.0	87	21.3	71	17.4	105	19.8	113	21.0
Pigs	ΝT	ΤN	ΤN	ŦN	74	23.7	114	28.5	74	23.7	114	28.5
Sheep	NT	ΤN	ΤN	ΤN	32	11.1	77	21.0	32	11.1	77	21.0
Deer	NT	ΤN	ΤN	ΤN	30	14.7	13	6.5	30	14.7	13	6.50
Kangaroo	NT	ΤN	ΤN	TN	16	11.1	13	11.6	16	11.1	13	11.6
Total	239	30.8 ^a	308	39.5 ^a	892	22.0 ^a	1016	27.3 ^a	1131	23.4a	1324	29.4a
NT: Not tested. ^a Mean percent	age over total i	solates tested.										

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Sampling		Local da	tabase			Existing o	latabase			Merged d	latabase	
sites	No. of BPTs human isola	s unique to (no. of ites)	No. of ani (no. of i	imal BPTs solates)	No. of BPTs human isola	unique to (no. of tes)	No. of ani (no. of i	mal BPTs solates)	No. of BPTs human isola	s unique to (no. of ites)	No. of ani (no. of is	mal BPTs solates)
	Ent	E. coli	Ent	E. coli	Ent	E. coli	Ent	E. coli	Ent	E. coli	Ent	E. coli
CU1	4 (18)	1 (2)	14 (29)	9 (32)	2 (16)	1 (2)	19 (65)	14 (41)	2 (16)	1 (2)	22 (76)	16 (49)
CU2	1 (2)	(0) 0	12 (50)	7 (42)	(0) 0	1 (4)	20 (62)	8 (28)	0 (0) 0	1 (4)	21 (66)	9 (29)
CU3	1 (2)	3 (5)	9 (35)	17 (48)	0 (0)	3 (5)	17 (45)	19 (53)	0 (0)	4 (6)	21 (53)	21 (57)
CU4	2 (4)	2 (7)	12 (50)	12 (37)	3 (9)	2 (7)	13 (73)	16 (43)	3 (9)	2 (7)	15 (83)	17 (48)
CUS	1 (1)	3 (9)	12 (39)	8 (21)	1 (1)	3 (7)	17 (81)	11 (38)	2 (2)	5 (11)	19 (90)	13 (43)
CU6	2 (3)	4 (4)	16 (30)	17 (35)	3 (7)	2 (3)	14 (61)	20 (38)	4 (9)	2 (3)	19 (70)	21 (41)
CU7	1 (4)	0) 0	12 (32)	12 (27)	5 (11)	2 (6)	9 (31)	14 (65)	7 (14)	2 (6)	12 (38)	16 (73)
Total	12 (34)	13 (27)	87 (265)	82 (242)	14 (44)	14 (34)	109 (418)	102 (306)	18 (50)	17 (39)	131 (476)	113 (340)
Ent: Enterococci												

from the local database were present (i.e. same biochemical pattern) in the existing one (Table 2).

3.4. Source tracking

In order to identify the non-point source(s) of faecal contamination, BPTs from the local, existing and merged databases were compared with the BPTs found in water samples. From all sampling sites, 197 enterococci BPTs and 179 E. coli BPTs were obtained (see Table 1). Of the 197 enterococci BPTs, 12 (6%) were identical to human (i.e. UQ-BPTs) and of the 179 E. coli BPTs obtained from the same water samples, 13 (7.2%) were of human BPTs when compared with the local database (Table 5). In addition, 87 (44%) enterococci BPTs and 82 (45.8%) E. coli BPTs belonged to animals (i.e. animal-BPTs). The remaining 98 (50%) enterococci BPTs and 84 (46.9%) E. coli BPTs could not be identified to any host groups. These figures for the existing database were 14 (7.1%) enterococci BPTs and 14 (7.8%) E. coli BPTs for human (i.e. UQ-BPTs) and 109 (55.3%) enterococci BPTs and 102 (57.0%) E. coli BPTs for animals (Table 5). In contrast, the ability of the merged database to identify environmental BPTs was much higher than that of the local database. Eighteen enterococci BPTs (9.1%) and 17 (9.5%) E. coli BPTs were identified as humans, therefore the efficacy of the merged database has improved 50.0% (for enterococci) and 30.0% (for E. coli) over the local database. Similar improvements were observed in identifying animal-BPTs (i.e. 50.0% for enterococci and 37.0% for E. coli) when compared with the merged database (Table 5).

Comparison of total-BPTs found in water samples over the sampling period with the local database showed that 44.0% enterococci and 45.8% E. coli BPTs were identical to animal-BPTs whereas these figures for the existing database were 55.3% for enterococci and 57.0% for E. coli. The merged database also showed an improvement over both databases (i.e. 66.0% for enterococci and 63.0% for E. coli) (Fig. 2). Importantly, certain animal-BPTs were shown to be UQ to an individual animal group. Distribution of enterococci and E. coli human UQ-BPTs, animal-BPTs and as well as animal UQ-BPTs according to the (a) local, (b) existing and (c) merged database as shown in Fig. 2. The level of human (UQ-BPTs) contribution was higher than any other animal host groups with an exception in the local database, where duck (7.6%) enterococci UQ-BPTs contributed more than those of humans (6.0%). According to the local database, among animal groups, ducks contributed more than any others (7.6% for enterococci and 6.0% for E. coli) followed by cattle and horses. Similar results were also found with the existing and merged database, which identified that, the contribution from ducks, was highest followed by cattle and dogs (Fig. 2).

4. Discussion

Questions have arisen regarding the reliability of currently used faecal indicators especially *E.* coli in terms of temporal and geographical stability (Gordon, 2001). It has been reported that genetic variation exists in *E.* coli (Gordon, 1997) and this may increase with the increased distance for certain host groups (Hartel et al., 2002) or during the transition from a



Fig. 2 – Percentage identification of unique (UQ) enterococci (\blacksquare) and Escherichia coli (\Box) biochemical phenotypes (BPTs) found in the Currimundi Lake determined by the (a) local, (b) existing and (c) the merged database. * indicates total biochemical phenotypes (BPTs) (unique and shared BPTs) found among all animal host groups. NT: Not tested.

primary habitat (e.g. human) to a secondary habitat (e.g. septic tanks) (Gordon, 2001). Despite these limitations, we postulated that if a database is developed for one catchment and is highly representative and the fingerprints in the database are stable over time it can be valid for another catchment of similar landuse features within the same geographical region. This will certainly circumvent the need for developing individual database for each catchment. To validate this assumption, a local database was developed and used that in combination to trace non-point sources of faecal contamination in a coastal lake. The local database although smaller than the existing one, was comparable with other databases reported in the literature in terms of the number of isolates tested (Carson et al., 2001; Dombek et al., 2000; Hartel et al., 2002; McLellan, 2004; Parveen et al., 1997). The local database was capable of identifying the sources of more than 50% of the faecal bacterial contamination in the studied lake. In contrast, the existing database, although developed from another catchment, at approximately 30 km distance from the lake, identified the sources of more than 63% of the faecal bacterial contamination. Nonetheless, special care should be taken when such a relatively small database (i.e. the local database) is used to identify the unknown environmental

isolates found in large water-bodies as it may identify the host groups incorrectly. For instance, our local database identified four UQ-BPTs of enterococci as human at site CU1. However, when the existing database was also used, two of these were found to be shared with other host groups, further suggesting that results from a database comprising a small number of isolates (i.e. up to 500) should be interpreted with care. However, we believe that the high efficacy of our existing database was due to its representativeness which was achieved due to the stringent sampling program used during the course of the development of this database (Ahmed et al., 2005b).

The representativeness of the existing database was measured prior to its application in the studied lake by comparing with isolates that were external (i.e. Eudlo Catchment) to the database. The results showed that 92.9% of the enterococci BPTs and 86.3% of the *E*. coli BPTs were already present in the existing database, which can be considered as highly representative (Wiggins et al., 2003). Another important factor needs to be addressed in crosscatchment application is the stability of the fingerprints of the faecal indicator bacteria in the database over time (Wiggins et al., 2003). If the fingerprints are not stable, it is not practical to use such database in cross-catchment study. In the present study, we found that 10 months after the development of the existing database, more than 85% of enterococci isolates (i.e. 64% BPTs) and 87% of *E. coli* isolates (i.e. 72% BPTs) from the local database were present in the existing one, indicating a high stability of the fingerprints of the indicator bacteria used in the existing database.

A previous study has reported that the antibiotic resistance profile of enterococci isolates is stable up to 12 months (Wiggins et al., 2003). In addition, the stability of the UQ-BPTs were also shown to be highly stable as more than 84% enterococci and 78% E. coli UQ-BPTs from the local database were identical to the existing database. Furthermore, when the total-BPTs found in the local database were crossreferenced with the existing one, the ID of UQ-BPTs within each host group did not change to SH-BPTs with few exceptions, also suggesting that these UQ-BPTs were highly specific to each host group. However, it is known that bacteria are ubiquitous in the environment and therefore can be found in many animals. There is a possibility that these UQ-BPTs can be found in other host groups in wider geographical area. We are currently investigating this hypothesis by collecting isolates from wider geographical areas.

Using any of the local, existing or merged databases, it was shown that there is an agreement between both enterococci and *E*. coli databases as they were equally capable of identifying the sources of faecal bacterial contamination. This certainly increases the confidence level that the sources are correctly identified. For example, more than 7% of BPTs from human host groups for both faecal indicator bacteria were identical to those found in water samples suggesting that the sources are correctly identified. Another advantage of using a combination of both databases was that they can compliment each other when one database failed to identify the source at a particular site. For instance, contamination at sites CU2 and CU3 could not have been identified as human if only the enterococci database had been used.

The existing database, although developed from host groups residing in another catchment, identified 7.1% of enterococci BPTs and 7.8% of E. coli BPTs as being of human origin, which was higher than that identified by the local database (i.e. 6% for enterococci and 7.2% for E. coli). Similarly, the existing database identified more than 55% (for both faecal indicator bacteria) of the BPTs as animal-BPTs, which was also higher than that of the local database (i.e. approx. 45% for both indicator bacteria). As expected, the overall performance of the existing database was improved to 75.6% for enterococci and 70.6% for E. coli when the two databases were merged. However, a recent method comparison study reported low efficacy of a metabolic fingerprint database (based on the carbon source utilization) (Harwood et al., 2003). The author concluded that the size of the database was small and therefore, comparison with unknown diverse environmental isolates is difficult in laboratory condition.

It is notable that all databases identified human faecal contamination in the lake although the surrounding population of the lake is entirely serviced by STPs. The human faecal contamination was higher than any other individual host groups. This could be due to the failure of STPs. However,

when percentage contribution from all animal groups was combined it outnumbered the human contamination. This was expected as the upstream of the lake is characterized by intensive farming practices which contributing to the faecal load in the lake. Our existing database also included samples from deer, sheep and pigs that were not included in the local database as these animals either do not exist in this catchment or their numbers and therefore faecal contribution to the studied lake was considered negligible. Despite this, we compared the UQ-BPTs of these host groups with the water samples and found that only a few UQ-BPTs (one enterococci BPT from deer and one E. coli from sheep) were identical with those found in water samples. We postulate that either these two BPTs are not UQ to deer and sheep or they may have come from a very small number of these host groups that may exist in the catchment. Certain BPTs of both faecal indicator bacteria found in water samples did not match the database. In all, 50% of the enterococci BPTs and E. coli BPTs from water samples could not be identified to any host groups when we used the local database. This could be due to the fact that the local database was developed from a relatively small number of isolates and therefore not representative enough to identify the source of these BPTs. It is possible that they may have come from other sources such as wild birds or other wild animals, which are not included in our database. However, an improvement has been observed when we used the existing (i.e. around 37% could not be identified) and the merged database (25% could not be identified) over the local database indicating that representative databases are capable of identifying more faecal bacterial contamination in environmental samples. It has also to be noted that, certain SH-BPTs in host groups (i.e. shared between humans and animals), could be found in water samples. However, these SH-BPTs were excluded during the development of the database as these cannot be used to differentiate among humans and animals. Therefore presence of such BPTs in water samples could not be identified to any host groups.

5. Conclusions

The efficacy of any database-dependent method for identifying the sources of faecal contamination in cross-catchment studies has been questioned due to the temporal and geographical variability that exist among indicator bacteria. This study, to our knowledge is the first that challenges this question and propose the concept that a representative database, such as the one used in this study, developed for a particular catchment can be used in cross-catchment studies, at least within the same geographical area. Regional water quality managers/authorities would be benefited from this work as a representative database can be in crosscatchment studies to identify faceal indicator bacterial contamination and this would circumvent the need for developing specific database for each catchment. However, the degree of the reliability of such a database relies on the stability of the fingerprints of faecal indicators, which should be assessed before its application in cross-catchment studies.

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