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1 **A Comparison of Methods for Processing Drinking Water Samples for the**
2 **Isolation of *Mycobacterium Avium* and *intracellulare*.**

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5

6 **Abstract**

7 Several protocols for isolation of mycobacteria from water exist but there
8 is no established standard method. This study compared methods of
9 processing potable water samples for the isolation of *M.avium* and
10 *M.intracellulare* using spiked sterilized water and tap water
11 decontaminated using Cetylpyridinium Chloride (CPC) 0.005%. Samples
12 were concentrated by centrifugation or filtration, and inoculated onto
13 Middlebrook 7H10 and 7H11 plates, Lowenstein Jensen(LJ) slopes and into
14 Mycobacterial Growth Indicator tubes (MGIT) ± PANTA (polymyxin,
15 azlocillin, nalidixic acid, trimethoprim, amphotericin B). The solid media
16 were incubated at 32°, 35° and 35°C with CO₂ and read weekly. Results
17 suggest filtration of water for the isolation of mycobacteria is a more
18 sensitive method of concentration than centrifugation. The addition of
19 Sodium Thiosulphate may not be necessary and may reduce the yield.
20 M7H10 or 7H11 were equally sensitive culture media. CPC
21 decontamination, whilst effective in reducing growth of contaminants

22 also significantly reduces mycobacterial numbers. There was no
23 difference at 3 weeks between the different incubation temperatures.

24

25

26

27

28 **INTRODUCTION**

29 The isolation of Mycobacteria from both environmental and treated
30 drinking water samples was first reported in the early 1900s. However it has
31 only been in the last 3-4 decades that these environmental mycobacteria
32 have been recognized as pathogens of human disease. As compared to
33 *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, these organisms are generally of low
34 virulence and require a host defect for the establishment of disease (e.g.
35 disseminated disease in AIDS patients, pulmonary disease in patients with
36 underlying structural lung disease). However there is a subset of patients
37 who develop pulmonary disease without an obvious immune defect or
38 one that is yet to be defined. Nontuberculous Mycobacteria (NTM) have
39 been demonstrated in drinking water(1, 7, 11, 12, 15, 16, 18, 26, 35),
40 drinking water distributions systems(17, 18, 23, 32-34), hot water systems(4),
41 spas(6) and pools(14, 19). However several authors have failed to identify
42 NTM in water samples, often because of unsuitable isolation techniques.
43 Variable growth rates, specific growth requirements and different sources

44 of water samples (eg treated/surface/natural) are all variables that will
45 affect the choice of method for identification. Because of their slow
46 growth, pre-treatment methods are necessary to limit bacterial and
47 fungal overgrowth and hence detect mycobacteria. However, the
48 pretreatment method chosen may also prevent the detection of certain
49 species of mycobacteria, reducing the rate of positive samples and
50 number of colonies seen. A number of different protocols have been
51 described(29) but a standard protocol has not yet been established.
52 Du Moulin and Stottmeier(5) first described the use of Cetylpyridinium
53 chloride in 1978. They applied 0.04% to 1L samples of distilled water
54 seeded with dilutions of 5 day old cultures of mycobacteria grown in
55 M7H9 broth and allowed them to stand for 24 hours, prior to filtration,
56 rinsing and applying membrane to M7H10 agar plates. Plates were
57 incubated at 37°C (5-10%CO₂) for 60 days. A control group of samples
58 were processed the same way but without CPC treatment. Survival of
59 mycobacteria in spiked specimens varied from 1 to 100%, depending on
60 the species - *M.kansasii* 18.4%, *M.gordonae* 8.4%, *M.intracellulare* 100%,
61 *M.fortuitum* 1.1% and *M.bovis* 39.9%. These authors actually reported
62 greater survival of *M.intracellulare* in treated (7400 viable units (vu)/L) vs
63 untreated samples (440 vu/L). Schulz-Robbecke et al(27) compared
64 Cetylpyridinium chloride (CPC), sodium hydroxide (NaOH) and
65 formaldehyde (HCHO) for their efficacy as decontamination substances

66 for the isolation of mycobacteria from drinking water samples. They found
67 that 0.005% CPC had the highest recovery of mycobacteria and the
68 lowest contamination rates, using both spiked samples and environmental
69 samples. This finding was confirmed by Neumann et al(22). Glover et al(10)
70 found that 0.04%CPC decontamination of tap water samples resulted in
71 less contamination than 1-3%NaOH or 5% OA, but also the highest number
72 of samples with no growth. CPC was applied at this concentration for 24
73 hours to sterile water seeded with MAC to a final concentration of 1.5×10^3
74 CFU/500ml. This resulted in a reduction of 89% in viable mycobacteria.
75 NaOH 1% and OA 5% resulted in reductions of 64% and 59% respectively.
76 Le Dantec(18) used membrane filtration followed by decontamination
77 with Na dodecyl sulfate and NaOH, adjusting pH with 40% phosphoric
78 acid. Using *M.gordonae* spiked sterile tap water they showed that this
79 decontamination method reduced mycobacterial numbers to 1% of the
80 original number.

81

82 Falkinham(7, 8) has suggested that for drinking water decontamination
83 may not be required. In his study published in 2001(7) he processed
84 samples initially without decontamination but if plates were overgrown,
85 reprocessed them using CPC. Unfortunately it is not stated in the paper
86 how often decontamination was necessary. Only 15% samples grew slow

87 growing mycobacteria (3% *M.avium*, 1% *M.intracellulare*) and there were
88 2% rapid growers.

89

90 Other variables that may affect the yield of mycobacteria from
91 environmental water samples include sample volume, the use of Sodium
92 Thiosulphate to neutralize chlorine based disinfectants, method of
93 concentration (eg filtration vs centrifugation), culture media and
94 incubation temperature.

95

96 In Queensland the main mycobacterial pathogen associated with
97 pulmonary disease is *M.intracellulare* followed by *M.avium*, *M.abscessus*
98 and *M.kansasii*. It has been postulated that patients acquire disease by
99 inhaling aerosols containing mycobacteria from environmental water
100 sources and water outlets in their homes(20). Patients may also aspirate
101 contaminated water as a result of swallowing disorders or severe gastro-
102 esophageal reflux disease(31).

103

104 This pilot study was undertaken to try and identify the best method of
105 processing water samples for the isolation of mycobacteria prior to a
106 larger environmental survey. The aim of this study was to compare
107 different methods of processing drinking water samples for the isolation of
108 species of mycobacteria pathogenic to humans, particularly

109 *M.intracellulare* and *M.avium*, with regard to concentration
110 (centrifugation vs filtration), culture media (LJ, 7H10, 7H11, MGIT and
111 MGIT+PANTA), and incubation temperature (32°C, 35°C, and 35°C+CO₂).

112

113 **METHODS**

114 *M. avium* (ATCC 35765) and *M. intracellulare* (ATCC 13950) were
115 inoculated in 7H9 broth (0.5 McFarland), correlating to concentration
116 1.5×10^8 CFU/ml and diluted to a concentration of 100 CFU/500ml water.

117 Control samples.

118 Organisms (*M.avium* and *M.intracellulare* separately) were added to 8x
119 500ml samples of sterile water (sterilized by filtration to preserve
120 chlorination using MediaKap-2 - Hollow Fibre Media Filter 0.2µm -
121 Spectrum Laboratories Inc.) to a final concentration of 100CFU/500ml.
122 Sodium Thiosulphate (0.5ml of 10% solution) was added to 4 of the
123 samples (2 *M.avium* and 2 *M.intracellulare*). Half of the samples were
124 processed by filtration and half processed by centrifugation. (**Figure 1**)

125

126 Filtration was performed through 0.45µm cellulose nitrate filters (Sartorius
127 AG 37070 Goettingen, Germany). Filters were then rinsed with 2ml sterile
128 distilled water (SDW) and macerated in 3 ml SDW. From this 3ml, 0.1ml
129 aliquots were then transferred in triplicate to LJ slants, M7H10 and M7H11
130 plates, sealed in gas permeable plastic bags for incubation at 32°, 35°

131 and 35°C +CO₂. 0.5 ml aliquots were transferred to 2 MGIT tubes, 1
132 containing PANTA (polymixin, azlocillin, nalidixic acid, trimethoprim,
133 amphotericin B).
134
135 Centrifugation: Four - 500ml samples (2 containing Na Thiosulphate -1
136 *M.avium*, 1 *M. intracellulare*) were centrifuged in 250ml sterile bottles at
137 5000gx 20min at 25 °C. The pelleted cells were rinsed twice with
138 Phosphate Buffered Saline (PBS) (21). The resulting suspension was added
139 to sterile diluent to make 3ml and 0.1ml aliquots were used to inoculate in
140 triplicate each of the following: LJ slants, M7H10 and M7H11 plates. Plates
141 were sealed in gas permeable plastic bags and incubated as previously
142 indicated. Additional 0.5 ml aliquots were used to inoculate 2 MGIT tubes,
143 with and without PANTA.

144

145 Tap water.

146 Tap water samples (4x 500ml) were collected after flushing for 2 minutes
147 from a single tap within the laboratory. These tap water samples were
148 spiked with *M.avium* (x2) and *M.intracellulare* (x2) to give a final
149 concentration of 100CFU/500ml. Samples were then decontaminated
150 with 0.005% CPC and incubated at room temperature for 30 minutes. Two
151 samples (1 *M.avium*, 1 *M.intracellulare*) were then processed by filtration
152 and 2 processed by centrifugation, as described for sterile samples.

153

154 All plates were read weekly. At three weeks all plates were photographed
155 digitally and colonies counted. Colonies from plates demonstrating
156 growth were stained to confirm acid fast bacilli, and morphologically
157 different colonies were subcultured on M7H10 agar and incubated at
158 35°C. Subcultured organisms were then identified to the species level
159 using multiplex PCR as described by Wilton and Cousins(36). All colonies
160 grown from the tap water samples were treated similarly.

161

162 Data were analyzed using SPSS v12.0 for Windows 2003 (Apache Software
163 Foundation). Tests of association were performed using Fishers exact test
164 for Chi Squared 2x2 tables. Statistical significance was defined as a 2
165 sided p value<0.05. Colony counts were also compared using the Mann
166 Whitney U test as the values were not normally distributed.

167

168 **RESULTS**

169

170 There were 88 spiked sterile water cultures, and 44 spiked tap water
171 samples. 83.3% of all filtered samples grew mycobacteria compared to
172 12.1% of all centrifuged samples (p<0.0001).

173

174 Of spiked sterile samples not treated with Sodium Thiosulphate, 52.3%
175 grew mycobacteria compared to 43.2% of samples that were treated
176 ($p=0.223$). For filtered samples the addition of Sodium Thiosulphate did not
177 affect recovery. However, for centrifuged samples, 4.5% of treated
178 samples were positive compared to 22.7% of untreated samples ($p=0.058$).
179 Colony counts were lower in filtered sterile samples with Sodium
180 Thiosulphate added (mean \pm SD: 151.7 ± 169.8 vs 259.0 ± 352.8 CFU/L;
181 however this was not statistically significant ($p=0.178$) Mann Whitney U test
182 ($p=0.709$) **(Figure 2)**.

183 There was no overall difference between Middlebrook 7H10 and 7H11
184 with 12 and 13 of 18 filtered samples showing positive growth respectively
185 after 1 week. The LJ slants initially appeared less sensitive, but there was
186 no difference between it and the Middlebrook media at 3 weeks **(Table 1)**.
187 There was no difference overall between the different incubation
188 temperatures **(Table 2)**.

189

190 For filtered samples CPC decontamination did not appear to affect the
191 number of positive cultures at 3 weeks - 86.4% of filtered samples treated
192 with CPC were positive at final reading, compared to 81.8% of those
193 untreated. However colony counts were significantly reduced in spiked
194 tap water samples (Mean \pm SD CFU/L 7.4 ± 8.5) compared to sterile samples

195 (205.4±262.4; p=0.0001). This equates to a mean reduction to 3.6% of
196 original numbers. **(Figure 3)**

197

198 At 3 weeks, 3 samples not treated with CPC were overgrown compared
199 to none of those treated. Nine of 88 (10.2%) spiked sterile samples grew
200 contaminants in addition to mycobacteria compared to 13/44 (29.5%)
201 tap water samples. (p=0.012). These contaminants did not affect the
202 ability to isolate mycobacteria. Of the spiked sterile samples, in 2 of these
203 the plates had fungal overgrowth at week 4 – a week after they had
204 been photographed, and this was likely aerial contamination when the
205 plates were inspected for photography. Of the remaining 7 - 4 plates had
206 single non-buff colonies, 2 had 2 colonies and 1 had 3. Whilst these were
207 not formally identified it is presumed they entered the system during the
208 processing of samples.

209

210 A number of samples grew morphologically different colonies on
211 Middlebrook plates. These were subcultured and then identified to the
212 species level using multiplex PCR and found to be the same organism.
213 PFGE was not performed on these isolates. All colonies grown from the tap
214 water samples were similarly processed. No other mycobacteria (other
215 than the spiked organisms) were identified from the tap water samples.

216

217 **DISCUSSION.**

218

219 In this study we have demonstrated that filtration is a more effective
220 method than centrifugation for isolating mycobacteria from water
221 samples. Apart from having a far greater yield it was also simpler and
222 more time efficient. To our knowledge there have been no published
223 direct comparative studies, but previous authors have been able to
224 isolate mycobacteria from water samples processed by centrifugation.
225 Perhaps it was our technique, but alternatively the success of previous
226 authors maybe related to much higher concentrations of mycobacteria in
227 the water being sampled. In this study low concentrations of target
228 organisms were used as may be expected to exist in suburban, treated,
229 water supplies(3, 7, 9, 12, 18).

230

231 The majority of reported studies have processed samples with Sodium
232 Thiosulphate to neutralize residual chlorine(2). It is not known whether
233 neutralizing residual chlorine interferes with the ability to isolate
234 mycobacteria by increasing bacterial overgrowth, or whether the
235 presence of residual chlorine reduces the yield and diversity of species of
236 mycobacteria subsequently isolated. As most opportunistic pathogenic
237 NTM are relatively resistant to chlorine(18, 24, 25, 28, 30) the addition of

238 Sodium Thiosulfate may not be necessary and may increase
239 contamination rates.

240

241 The Thiosulfate anion characteristically reacts with dilute acids to produce
242 sulfur, sulfur dioxide and water: $S_2O_3^{2-}(aq) + 2H^+(aq) \rightarrow S(s) + SO_2(g) +$
243 $H_2O(l)$. Thiosulfate reduces the hypochlorite and in so doing becomes
244 oxidized to sulfate. The complete reaction is: $4NaClO + Na_2S_2O_3 + 2NaOH$
245 $\rightarrow 4NaCl + 2Na_2SO_4 + H_2O$.(13)

246 From our results it would appear that Sodium Thiosulphate may have some
247 antibacterial properties in water, perhaps by generation of sulfur, as
248 contamination rates and mycobacterial colony counts were less in those
249 treated samples. Though not statistically significant, this is an interesting
250 observation. Of importance, it would seem that for the purposes of
251 isolating mycobacteria from water, the addition of Sodium Thiosulphate is
252 unnecessary.

253

254 The addition of CPC to tap water samples spiked with *M.avium* and
255 *M.intracellulare* resulted in 3.6% survival of organisms, but did not affect
256 the number of positive samples using this concentration of organisms. The
257 organisms used in our study were grown in 7H9 broth. It has been shown
258 that antecedent growth conditions may affect susceptibility to chlorine
259 based disinfectants. Water grown strains of *M.avium* were shown to be

260 significantly more chlorine resistant than those grown in medium(30). The
261 magnitude of reduction of growth we have shown may not necessarily
262 apply to water grown organisms from environmental or distribution system
263 samples.

264

265 There were no differences between the temperatures tested nor between
266 the different solid media overall. However the Middlebrook media were
267 more sensitive at one week and provided the advantage of quantitation
268 of growth over LJ. The MGIT system has recently been introduced for the
269 culture of clinical specimens, and has not been used widely for the
270 processing of water samples. Supplementation with PANTA (Polymyxin,
271 Amphotericin B, Nalidixic acid, Trimethoprim and Azlocillin) is used to
272 reduce contamination. A further study utilizing raw tap water samples (ie
273 no decontamination) and the MGIT system (+PANTA to control
274 contamination) is currently underway. The MGIT without PANTA used in
275 this study did not contain OADC enrichment which may explain the lower
276 yield using this system.

277

278 There have been a number of studies published using different methods to
279 isolate mycobacteria from water samples, and no established standard.

280 We have demonstrated that SodiumThiosulphate may not be necessary
281 and may interfere with growth. We have confirmed the findings of

282 previous authors that CPC controls contamination, but significantly
283 reduces mycobacterial growth also. Whilst it would be appealing to
284 process samples without decontamination, the utility of this method would
285 depend on the origin of the samples.

286

287 This study has added refinement to concentration and culture techniques
288 for the isolation of mycobacteria from water; however the major
289 challenge remains the need for decontamination to reduce bacterial
290 and fungal overgrowth. We and others have demonstrated that the
291 addition of CPC is effective for this purpose; however we have quantified
292 the reduction in yield of *M.intracellulare* and *M.avium*, two of the main
293 pathogens associated with lung disease and found it is significant. Given
294 that that major environmental niche for *M.intracellulare* is in biofilms(7)
295 and only small numbers are found in water samples, the detection of low
296 concentrations of organisms is important. Perhaps a metagenomic study
297 may obviate the need for any decontamination and culture method, and
298 developments in this area are awaited with interest.

299 **Table 1. Positive cultures for mycobacteria after concentration by filtration**
 300 **using different culture media after 1 week and 6 weeks (n=66).**

301

302

Culture media	Week 1			Final Culture Result		
	Contaminated	Negative	Positive	Overgrown	Negative	Positive
7H10 (n=18)	1	5	12	0	2	16
7H11 (n=18)	0	5	13	1	0	17
LJ (n=18)	2	16	0	0	1	17
MGIT (n=6)	0	6	0	0	5	1
MGIT+PANTA (n=6)	0	3	3	0	2	4

303 **Table 2. Comparison of incubation temperatures for culture of**
 304 **mycobacteria in both spiked sterile and tap water samples processed by**
 305 **centrifugation or filtration.**

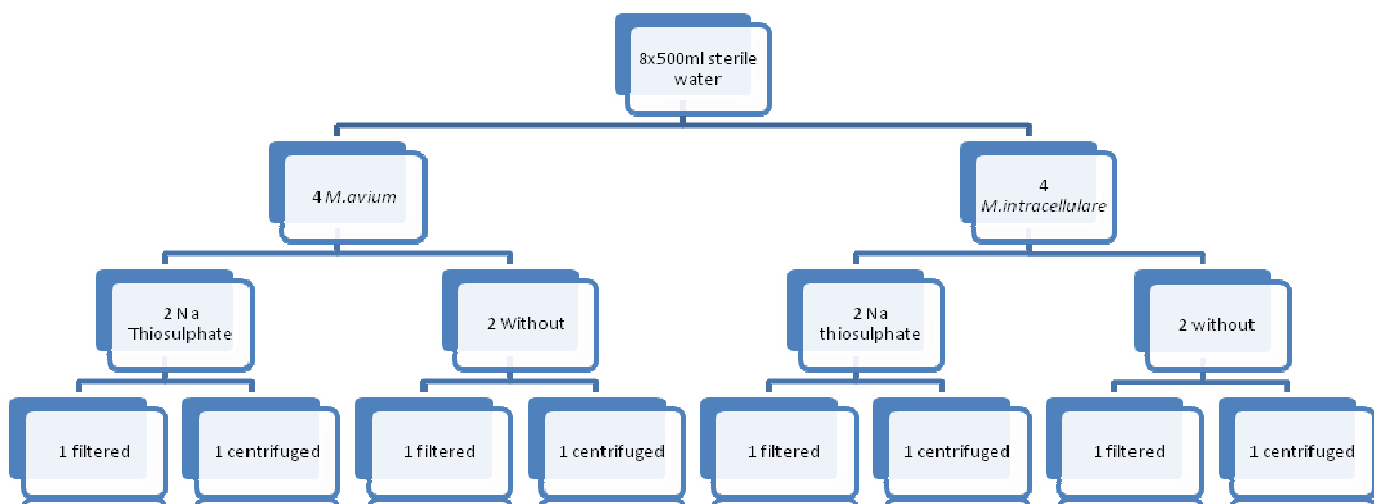
306

Concentration	Incubation Temperature				Total
	32°C	35°C	35°C+CO ₂	BACTEC	
<u>Centrifugation</u>					
Contaminated	2	2	3	0	7
Negative	14	14	12	11	51
Positive	2	2	3	1	8
Total	18	18	18	12	66
<u>Filtration</u>					
Contaminated	0	0	1	0	1
Negative	0	0	0	7	7
Positive	18	18	17	5	58
Total	18	18	18	12	66

307

308

309 **Figure 1. Flow chart for processing of sterile water samples**

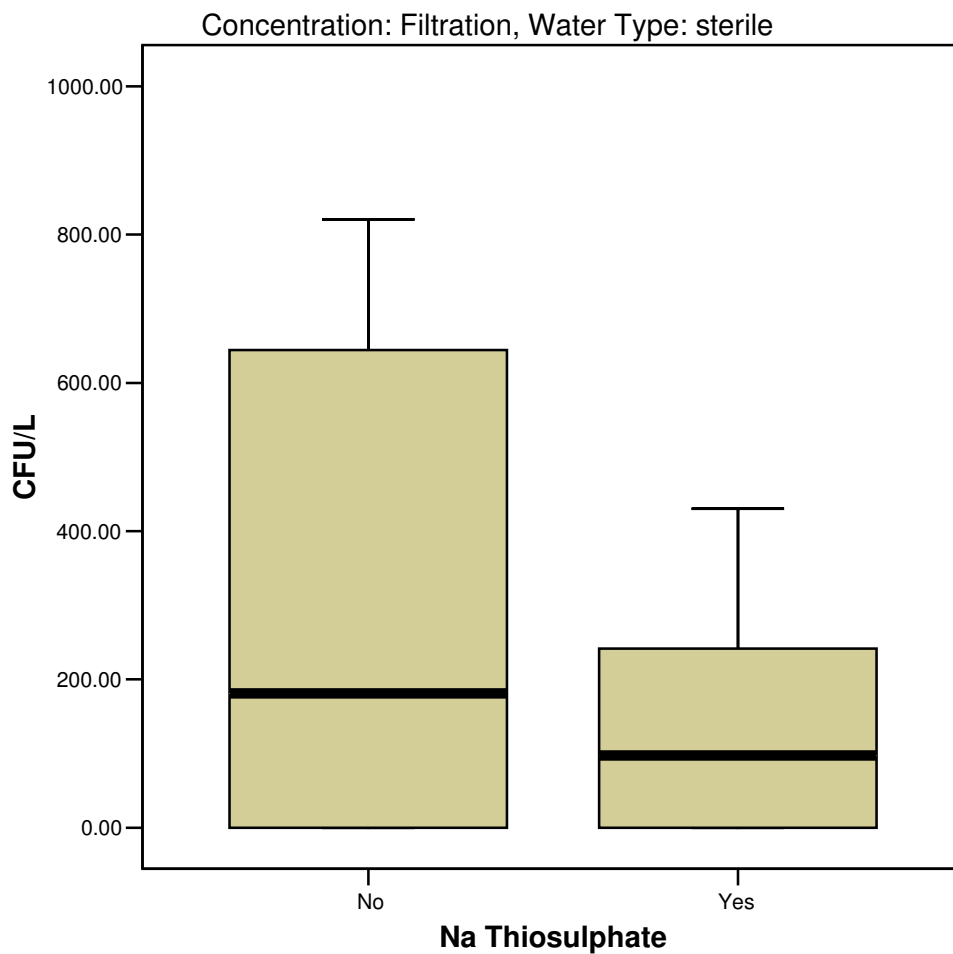


310

311 **Figure 2.** Boxplot demonstrating Median CFU/L (black bar), middle 2
312 **quartiles (box) and range (extent of bar) of CFU/L Mycobacteria in spiked**
313 **sterile water concentrated by filtration processed with and without the**
314 **addition of NaThiosulphate.**

315

316



317

318

319

320

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