

Prevalence of free-living amoebae in swimming pools and recreational waters, a systematic review and meta-analysis

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Abstract

Free-living amoebae (FLA) are cosmopolitan microorganisms known to be pathogenic to humans who often have a history of contact with contaminated water. Swimming pools and recreational waters are among the environments where the greatest human exposure to FLA occurs. This study aimed to determine the prevalence of FLA in swimming pools and recreational waters, through a systematic review and meta-analysis that included studies published between 1977 and 2021. 71 studies were included and an overall prevalence of FLA in swimming pools and recreational waters of 40.89% (95% CI = 33.97–48.00) was found. Considering the studies published up to 2010 (1977 - 2010) and after 2010 (>2010 - 2021) the prevalence were 51.54% (95% CI = 36.65-66.29) and 37.95% (95% CI = 30.34 – 45.86), respectively. The highest prevalence were found in the American continent (59.52%), in Malaysia (89.33%) and in indoor hot pools 52.27%. In studies that used morphological methods, PCR and both methods simultaneously to identify FLA, the prevalence was 56.41, 22.32 and 39.94%, respectively. Considering only PCR-based studies, the prevalence of *Naegleria* spp., *Acanthamoeba* spp., *Hartmannella* spp. and *Vermamoeba* spp. was 10.01, 15.38, 16.40 and 16.06%, respectively. There is considerable risk of AFL infection in swimming pools and recreational waters. Recreational water safety needs to be routinely monitored and, in case of risk, locations need to be identified with warning signs and users need to be educated. Swimming pools and artificial recreational water should be properly disinfected. Photolysis of NaOCl or NaCl in water by UV-C radiation is a promising alternative to disinfect swimming pools and artificial recreational waters.

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Ethics Statement

The authors confirm that the ethical policies of the journal, as noted on the journal's author guidelines page, have been adhered to. No ethical approval was required as this is a review article with no original research data.

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest

SUMMARY

Free-living amoebae (FLA) are cosmopolitan microorganisms known to be pathogenic to humans who often have a history of contact with contaminated water. Swimming pools and recreational waters are among the environments where the greatest human exposure to FLA occurs. This study aimed to determine the prevalence of FLA in swimming pools and recreational waters, through a systematic review and meta-analysis that included studies published between 1977 and 2021. 71 studies were included and an overall prevalence of FLA in swimming pools and recreational waters of 40.89% (95% CI = 33.97–48.00) was found. Considering the studies published up to 2010 (1977 - 2010) and after 2010 (>2010 - 2021) the prevalence were 51.54% (95% CI = 36.65-66.29) and 37.95% (95% CI = 30.34 - 45.86), respectively. The highest prevalence were found in the American continent (59.52%), in Malaysia (89.33%) and in indoor hot pools 52.27%. In studies that used morphological methods, PCR and both methods simultaneously to identify FLA, the prevalence was 56.41, 22.32 and 39.94%, respectively. Considering only PCR-based studies, the prevalence of *Naegleriaspp.*, *Acanthamoeba spp.*, *Hartmanella spp.* and *Vermamoeba spp.* was 10.01, 15.38, 16.40 and 16.06%, respectively. There is considerable risk of AFL infection in swimming pools and recreational waters. Recreational water safety needs to be routinely monitored and, in case of risk, locations need to be identified with warning signs and users need to be educated. Swimming pools and artificial recreational water should be properly disinfected. Photolysis of NaOCl or NaCl in water by UV-C radiation is a promising alternative to disinfect swimming pools and artificial recreational waters.

Keywords: Free-living amoebae, risk of infection, swimming pool, recreational waters.

1. INTRODUCTION

Free-living amoebae (FLA) are cosmopolitan and ubiquitous microorganisms widely distributed in the environment and can be opportunistic and/or pathogenic (Visvesvara et al., 2007). They have been isolated from many natural and anthropogenic environmental matrices, including plants, soil, air conditioning dust, bottled mineral water, drinking water treatment and distribution system, and cooling towers (Landell et al., 2013; Maschio et al., 2015; Javanmard et al., 2017; Soares et al., 2017; Wopereis et al., 2020; Pazoki et al., 2020). They have also been isolated from contact lenses, swimming pools, and other recreational waters (Fabres et al., 2016; Santos et al., 2021; Fabros et al., 2021).

Among its representatives with importance for human health, the genera *Acanthamoeba*, *Naegleria* and *Balamuthia* stand out. *Acanthamoeba* spp. can cause illnesses in healthy people, such as *Acanthamoeba* keratitis (AK) which primarily affects contact lens (CL) wearers, usually due to lens wear while swimming or improper

lens cleaning (Dos Santos et al., 2018). In immunosuppressed individuals, it can cause Granulomatous Amoebic Encephalitis (GAE), which can be fatal (Visvesvara et al., 2007; Sarink et al., 2022). *Acanthamoeba* spp. has also been reported to cause skin infections (Murakawa et al., 1995; Paltiel et al. 2004). In addition, was isolated from 26% (17/63) of critically ill patient urine samples (Santos et al., 2009); similarly, *Acanthamoeba* (T4) was isolated from 22% (11/50) of urine samples collected from patients with recurrent urinary tract infection (Saber et al., 2021).

Naegleria fowleri is known as a “brain-eating amoeba”, and primarily affects healthy young people using recreational waters, causing primary amoebic meningoencephalitis (PAM) (Fowler and Carter, 1965). PAM is a serious and usually fatal disease if adequate treatment is not initiated at the onset of symptoms (Król-Turmińska & Olender, 2017). The rapid deterioration in the health status of patient affected by PAM, combined with the ease of being confused with bacterial meningoencephalitis (since the symptoms are similar), as well as erratic or late diagnosis, contribute to a high prevalence of deaths (> 97%) (Capewell et al., 2010; Johnson et al., 2016). *Balamuthia mandrillaris* and *Sappinia pedatta* also cause encephalitis (Gelman et al., 2001; Visvesvara et al., 2007; Cope et al., 2019) however, there are no reports of the isolation of *S. diploidea pedatta* from swimming pools and recreational waters.

The FLA essentially have two forms of life, namely, the trophozoite form (with or without flagellum) which is the active form of the protozoan, in which it feeds, reproduces and expresses pathogenicity; and the form of cysts (which is the form of environmental resistance). Cysts have a double-layer wall made essentially of cellulose (Garajová, et al., 2019) that protects the protozoan against unfavorable conditions (e.g., food shortages, dissection, extreme pH and temperatures) or antimicrobial agents (e.g., NaCl, chlorine, drugs, UV, heat) (Aksozek et al., 2002; Thomas et al., 2008; Chaúque and Rott, 2021; Chaúque et al., 2021). FLA are considered the “Trojan Horse” of the microbial world, as phylogenetically diverse microorganisms including bacteria, fungi and viruses survive and multiply within them; these microorganisms are called amoeba-resistant microorganisms (ARM) (Greub & Raoult, 2004; Scheid 2014 ; Delafont et al., 2016; Hubert et al., 2021; Rayamajhee et al. 2021). A wide range of pathogens of public health importance have been described as being ARM, including *Legionella pneumophila*, *Mycobacterium leprae*, *Pseudomonas* spp., *Candida auris* and various viruses (Maschio et al., 2015; Staggemeier et al., 2016; Balczun & Scheid, 2017; Turankar et al., 2019; Nisar et al., 2020; Hubert et al., 2021). All these aspects that characterize the profile of FLA constitute the main attributes that determine the great importance of these protozoa for human health and the environment.

Although increasingly prevalent, diseases caused by FLA remain rare; however, the presence of these protozoa, especially in the aquatic environment, is well documented (Stapleton, 2021; Saburi et al., 2017; Caumo et al., 2009). The presence of FLA in swimming pools and other recreational waters is of concern, as they can be pathogenic or opportunistic and/or lead to the persistence of non-amoebic pathogens in the water, including waters treated with chlorine-based disinfectants (Siddiqui & Khan, 2014; Kiss et al., 2014; Dey et al., 2021). It was determined that the prevalence of *Naegleria* spp in different water sources around the world (considering data from 35 countries) was 26.42%, in recreational water it was 21.27% (10.80 - 34.11) and in swimming pools was 44.80% (16.19 - 75.45) (Saber et al., 2020), however, the global prevalence of AFL in swimming pools and recreational waters remains to be determined. The present systematic review and meta-analysis aimed to determine the prevalence of FLA in swimming pools and recreational waters worldwide.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.1. Article search strategy

The present study, which aimed to determine the prevalence of free-living amoebae in swimming pools and recreational waters, was planned and carried out based on the PRISMA 2020 guidelines (Page et al., 2021) (Figure 1). The search for scientific articles was performed in different databases, including Web of Science, Scopus, PubMed, ScienceDirect, EMBASE, ProQuest and CAPES periódicos, between December 19 and 27, 2021. In these databases, articles were retrieved using a combination of the following search terms

combined with appropriate Boolean operators: 'Free-living amoeba', 'swimming pool', 'recreational water', 'prevalence', 'epidemiology' and 'hot springs'. The references of the selected articles were examined in search of some interesting literature. The search for articles in the database was performed by B.J.M.C and the accuracy of the searches was verified by D.L.S.

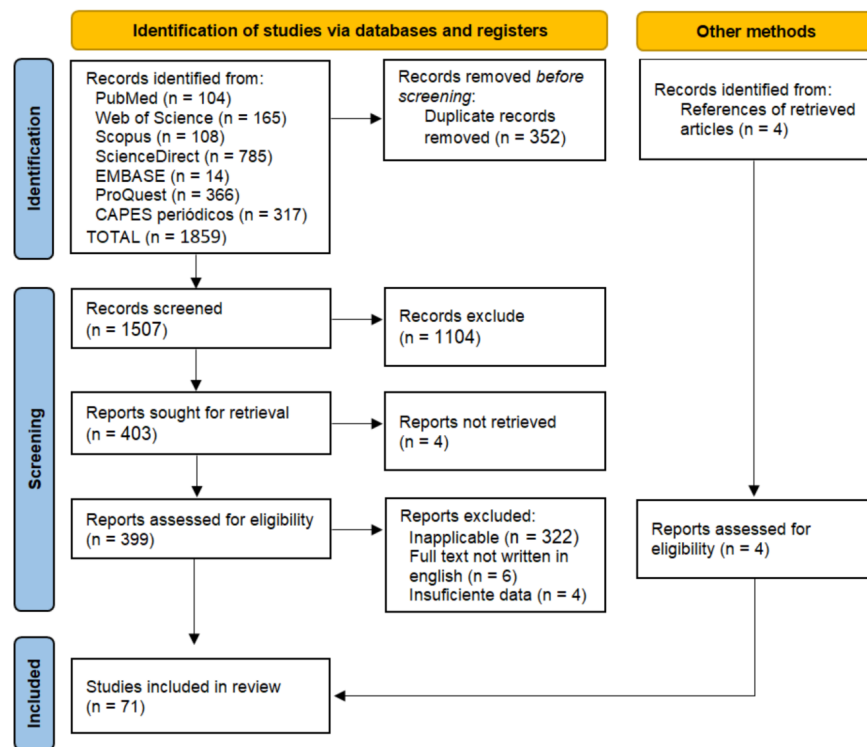


Figure 1: Details of the article retrieval and selection steps based on PRISMA 2020.

2.2. Selection and Exclusion Criteria

The screening focused essentially on the title and then on the abstract of the articles. All retrieved articles written in English (reporting primary data), with accessible full text, dealing with the presence of free-living amoebae in swimming pools and human recreation waters were selected. Studies whose data were insufficient, unclear or duplicated were excluded. Case studies that do not report the prevalence of FLA in swimming pools and human recreation waters were also excluded.

2.3. Data analysis procedure

Data were independently extracted and verified by two authors (B.J.M.C and D.L.S), data verification was performed three times. Data extracted from all articles that met the inclusion criteria were included in the calculation of the global prevalence of FLA in swimming pools and recreational waters. To calculate the prevalence of each FLA genera, only data extracted from articles that included molecular methods for the identification of FLA were used. Data analysis was performed by two authors (D.A and B.J.M.C) using Stata software (version 14; Stata Corp, College Station, TX, USA) and GraphPad prism 8.02. A random-effects model meta-analysis was performed to estimate the combined and weighted prevalence of FLA in swimming pools and recreational waters, using a 95% confidence interval, and the results are visualized using a forest plot. Cochrane's Q test (chi-square) and the Higgins I^2 statistic were used to calculate the heterogeneity index among the selected studies. I^2 values <25%, 25%–50% and >50% meant low, moderate and high heterogeneity, respectively. The Egger's test was used to assess the significance of publication bias among the selected studies, $p < 0.001$ was considered significant.

3. RESULTS

From the total of 1,859 documents returned by the databases accessed, using the search strategy and inclusion criteria described above, 71 articles were selected (Table 1). These studies are distributed in a total of 24 countries, namely Iran (26), Taiwan (10), Egypt (4), Malaysia (4), Brazil (3), Turkey (3), France (2), Italy (2) and USA (2). One study was included from each of the following countries: Belgium, Finland, Germany, Hungary, India, Jamaica, Mexico, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Saudi Arabia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland and Thailand. Among the studies, 76.06% (54/71) used or included molecular methods to identify FLA, while 23.94% (17/71) used only morphological methods.

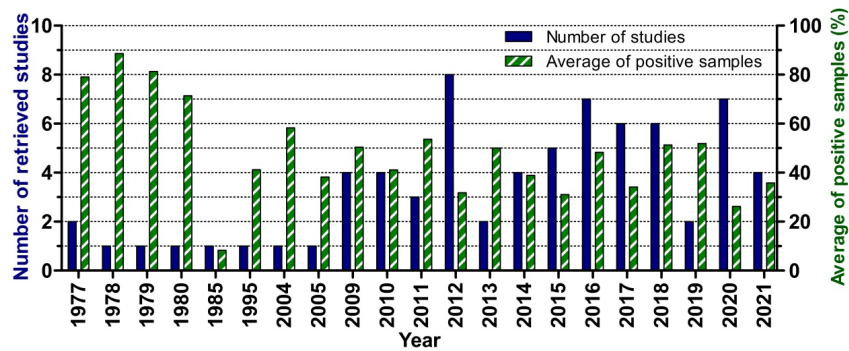


Figure 2. Distribution of selected studies, and mean percentage of positive samples for FLA per year.

The included studies were published between 1977 and 2021, and the distribution of studies by year and the average percentage value of positive samples per year are shown in Figure 2. FLA were detected in at least 1 sample of 98.59% (70/71) of selected studies (Table 1, Table S1).

Table 1. Description of included studies reporting the prevalence of live amoebae in swimming pools and recreational waters

References	Year	Country	Sample source (total)	Analyzed samples	Positive samples	Methods	Identity
Brown And Cursons, 1977	1977	Norway	Swimming areas	50	34	Morphology	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp., <i>Naegleria fowleri</i> and <i>Naegleria gruberi</i>
Lyons and Kapur, 1977	1977	USA	Swimming Pool	30	27	Morphology	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp. And /or <i>Hartmannella</i> spp.
Pernin and Riany, 1978	1978	France	Swimming Pool (9)	44	39	Morphology	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp. <i>Hartmannella</i> spp. <i>Naegleria</i> spp.

References	Year	Country	Sample source (total)	Analyzed samples	Positive samples	Methods	Identity
De Jonckheere, 1979.	1979	Belgium	Swimming Pool	16	13	Morphology	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp. and <i>Naegleria</i> spp.
Janitschke et al., 1980	1980	Germany	Swimming Pool	14	10	Morphology	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp.
Gogate and Deodhar, 1985	1985	India	Public swimming pool	12	1	Morphology	<i>N. fowleri</i>
Vesaluoma et al., 1995	1995	Finland	Public swimming pools and whirlpools (21)	34	14	Morphology	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp., <i>Vexillifera</i> spp., <i>Flabellula</i> spp., <i>Hartmannella</i> spp., and <i>Rugipes</i> spp.
Górnik and Kuźna-Grygiel, 2004.	2004	Poland	Public swimming pools (13)	72	42	Morphology	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp.
Lekkla et al., 2005	2005	Thailand	Hot springs (13)	68	26	Morphology	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp. and <i>Naegleria</i> spp.
Caumo et al., 2009	2009	Brazil	Swimming pools	65	13	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp.
Gianinazzi et al., 2009	2009	Switzerland	Indoor hot swimming pools	1	1	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba lenticulata</i>
Hsu et al., 2009	2009	Taiwan	Recreational hot springs	55	9	PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba griffini</i> and <i>Acanthamoeba jacobsi</i>
Hsu et al., 2009a	2009	Taiwan	Mud recreation area water	34	20	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp., <i>Hartmannella</i> spp., and <i>Naegleria</i> spp.

References	Year	Country	Sample source (total)	Analyzed samples	Positive samples	Methods	Identity
Init et al., 2010	2010	Malaysia	Public swimming pools (14)	14	14	Morphology	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp. and <i>Naegleria</i> spp.
Huang and Hsu, 2010	2010	Taiwan	Hot springs and waste water in recreation areas	52	11	PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> T1, <i>Acanthamoeba</i> T2, <i>Acanthamoeba</i> T3, <i>Acanthamoeba</i> T4, <i>Acanthamoeba</i> T5, <i>Acanthamoeba</i> T6 and <i>Acanthamoeba</i> T15
Gianinazzi et al., 2010	2010	Sweden	Hot springs (4)	31	9	Morphology and PCR/DNA sequencing	<i>Acanthamoeba healyi</i> , <i>Stenoamoeba</i> sp., <i>Hartmannella vermiciformis</i> and <i>Echinamoeba exundans</i>
Huang and Hsu, 2010a	2010	Taiwan	Hot springs and hot spring facilities	106	15	Morphology and PCR/DNA sequencing	<i>Naegleria lovaniensis</i> , <i>Naegleria australiensis</i> , <i>Naegleria clarki</i> , <i>Naegleria americana</i> and <i>Naegleria pagei</i>
Huang and Hsu, 2011	2011	Taiwan	Recreational waters	107	19	PCR	<i>Naegleria</i> spp.

References	Year	Country	Sample source (total)	Analyzed samples	Positive samples	Methods	Identity
Ithoi et al., 2011	2011	Malaysia	Recreational pools, lakes and streams	33	33	Morphology and PCR	<i>Naegleria</i> spp.
Badirzadeh et al., 2011	2011	Iran	Recreational hot springs	28	12	Morphology and PCR	Vahlkampfiid and <i>Acanthamoeba castellanii</i> T4
Alves et al., 2012	2012	Brazil	Public swimming pools (7)	7	7	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp.
Kao et al., 2012	2012	Taiwan	Recreation and drinking water sources (2)	211	13	PCR	<i>Naegleria philippinensis</i> , <i>N. clarki</i> , <i>Naegleria gálica</i> , <i>N. americana</i> , <i>N. australiensis</i> , <i>Naegleria dobsoni</i> , <i>N. gruberi</i> and <i>Naegleria schusteri</i>
Nazaret et al., 2012	2012	Iran	Recreational waters (22)	50	8	Morphology and PCR	<i>Hartmannella vermiciformis</i> and <i>Vannella persistens</i>
Niyyati et al., 2012	2012	Iran	River recreation areas (10)	55	15	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp. (T4 e T15) and <i>Naegleria</i> spp. (<i>N. pagei</i> , <i>N. clarki</i> and <i>Naegleria fultoni</i>)

References	Year	Country	Sample source (total)	Analyzed samples	Positive samples	Methods	Identity
Solgi et al., 2012	2012	Iran	Hot springs	30	8	Morphology and PCR	<i>Hartmannella vermiciformis</i> and <i>Naegleria</i> (<i>N. carteri</i> and <i>Naegleria</i> spp.)
Solgi et al., 2012a	2012	Iran	Therapeutic hot springs	60	12	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> T4 and T3
Kao et al., 2012a	2012	Taiwan	Recreational hot springs (4)	60	9	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> T15, <i>Acanthamoeba</i> T4, <i>Acanthamoeba</i> T2 and <i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp.
Kao et al., 2012b	2012	Taiwan	Hot springs	60	26	Morphology and PCR / DNA sequencing	<i>N. australiensis</i> , <i>N. lovaniensis</i> , <i>Naegleria mexicana</i> and <i>N. gruberi</i>
Moussa et al., 2013	2013	France	Recreational geothermal waters (6)	73	35	Morphology and PCR	<i>N. fowleri</i> and <i>N. lovaniensis</i>
Tung et al., 2013	2013	Taiwan	Hot springs (1)	25	13	Morphology and PCR / DNA sequencing	<i>Naegleria</i> spp. (<i>N. fowleri</i>) and <i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp.
Kiss et al., 2014	2014	Hungary	Swimming pools (20)	164	68	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp.
Al-Herrawy et al., 2014	2014	Egypt	Swimming pools (10)	120	59	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp.

References	Year	Country	Sample source (total)	Analyzed samples	Positive samples	Methods	Identity
Sifuentes et al., 2014	2014	USA	Recreational water (33)	103	18	PCR	Thermophilic amoebae and <i>N. fowleri</i>
Ji et al., 2014	2014	Taiwan	Hot springs	61	29	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp.
Ji et al., 2014	2014	Taiwan	Hot springs	61	17	Morphology and PCR	<i>Naegleria</i> spp.
Ji et al., 2014	2014	Taiwan	Hot springs	61	11	Morphology and PCR	<i>Vermamoeba vermiciformis</i>
Behniafar et al., 2015	2015	Iran	Recreational water (Cold and hot springs, and river)	40	7	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp.
Evyapan et al., 2015	2015	Turkey	Swimming pools and hot springs	50	21	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp., <i>Acanthamoeba griffini</i> T3, <i>Acanthamoeba castellanii</i> T4, and <i>A. jacobsi</i> T15
Niyyati et al., 2015	2015	Iran	Recreational water (lakes, pools and streams)	60	9	Morphology and PCR	<i>N. australiensis</i> and <i>N. pagei</i>
Todd et al., 2015	2015	Jamaica	Recreational waters	83	42	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> T4, <i>Acanthamoeba</i> T5, <i>Acanthamoeba</i> T10 and <i>Acanthamoeba</i> T11
Niyyati et al., 2015a	2015	Iran	Recreational waters	50	15	Morphology and PCR	<i>A. castellanii</i> T4

References	Year	Country	Sample source (total)	Analyzed samples	Positive samples	Methods	Identity
Fabres et al., 2016	2016	Brazil	Hot tubs and thermal pools	72	20	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> T3 <i>Acanthamoeba</i> T4 <i>Acanthamoeba</i> T5 <i>Acanthamoeba</i> T15
Al-Herrawy et al., 2016	2016	Egypt	Swimming pools (1)	48	30	Morfologia e PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp., <i>Naegleria</i> spp. and <i>Hartmannella</i>
Mafi et al., 2016	2016	Iran	Recreational water sources (40)	75	18	Morphology	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp., <i>Hartmannella</i> spp. and Vahlkampfiids (<i>Naegleria</i> spp.)
Niyyati et al., 2016	2016	Iran	Recreational and therapeutic geothermal water sources	40	20	PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> T4 and T2
Niyyati et al., 2016a	2016	Iran	Recreational waters	25	25	Morphology	Vahlkampfiidae spp., <i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp., <i>Thecamoeba</i> spp. and <i>Miniamoebae</i> spp.
Armand et al., 2016	2016	Iran	Swimming pool	17	12	Morphology and PCR	<i>Vermamoeba</i> spp. and <i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp.
Latifi et al., 2016	2016	Iran	Hot springs	66	2	Morphology and PCR	<i>Balamuthia man-drillaris</i>

References	Year	Country	Sample source (total)	Analyzed samples	Positive samples	Methods	Identity
Mafi et al., 2017	2017	Iran	Swimming pool and Park Ponds (40)	75	18	Morphology	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp., <i>Hartmannella</i> spp. and <i>Vahlkampfiids</i> (<i>Naegleria</i>)
Al-Herrawy et al., 2017	2017	Egypt	Swimming pool (2)	144	37	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp. and <i>Naegleria</i> spp.
Reyes-Batlle et al., 2017	2017	Spain	Recreational waters (10)	10	1	Morphology and PCR	<i>Naegleria</i> spp.
Latifi et al., 2017	2017	Iran	Recreation hot springs	22	12	Morphology and PCR	<i>Naegleria</i> spp. (<i>N. australiensis</i> , <i>N. americana</i> , <i>N. dobsoni</i> , <i>N. pagei</i> , <i>N. polaris</i> , and <i>N. fultoni</i>)
Javanmard et al., 2017	2017	Iran	Public swimming, natural pool and hot springs	33	6	Morphology and PCR	<i>N. pagei</i> and <i>N. gruberi</i>
Di Filippo et al., 2017	2017	Italy	Geothermal springs	36	26	Morphology and PCR / DNA	<i>N. australiensis</i> , <i>Naegleria italica</i> , <i>N. lovaniensis</i> and <i>Naegleria</i> spp.
Vijayakumar, 2018	2018	Saudi Arabia	Pools and recreation waters	27	7	Morphology	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp.
Hikal et al., 2018	2018	Egypt	Swimming pool (5)	100	79	Morphology and PCR	<i>Naegleria</i> spp.
Hikal et al., 2018	2018	Egypt	Swimming pool (5)	100	24	Morphology and PCR	<i>Naegleria fowleri</i>

References	Year	Country	Sample source (total)	Analyzed samples	Positive samples	Methods	Identity
Poor et al., 2018	2018	Iran	Swimming pools and hot tubs (10)	40	8	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> T3 and <i>Acanthamoeba</i> T4
Dodangeh et al., 2018	2018	Iran	Recreational hot springs	24	11	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba castellanii</i> T4
Latiff et al., 2018	2018	Malaysia	Recreational hot springs (5)	52	38	Morphology	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp. <i>Naegleria</i> spp.
Lares-Jiménez et al., 2018	2018	Mexico	Hot springs (1)	8	8	Morphology and PCR / DNA sequencing	<i>N. lovaniensis</i> , <i>A. jacobsi</i> , <i>Stenamoeba</i> sp., and <i>Vermamoeba vermiformis</i>
Haddad et al., 2019	2019	Iran	Hot springs	54	15	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba castellanii</i> T4, <i>Vermamoeba vermiformis</i> , <i>N. australiensis</i> , <i>N. pageii</i> and <i>N. gruberi</i>
Hussain et al., 2019	2019	Malaysia	Recreational hot springs (5)	50	38	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> T4, T15, T3, T5, T11 and T17
Sarmadian et al., 2020	2020	iran	Swimming pools (6)	6	1	Morphology	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp.
Değerli et al., 2020	2020	Turkey	Thermal swimming pool	434	148	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp. and <i>Naegleria</i> spp.
Latifi et al., 2020	2020	Iran	Hot springs and beaches	81	54	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> (T3, T4 e T5), <i>V. vermiformis</i> and <i>Naegleria</i> spp.

References	Year	Country	Sample source (total)	Analyzed samples	Positive samples	Methods	Identity
Esboei et al., 2020	2020	Iran	Swimming pools	30	12	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> T4
Paknejad et al., 2020	2020	Iran	Water from swimming pools and bathtubs	166	31	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> T3, <i>Acanthamoeba</i> T4, <i>Acanthamoeba</i> T11, <i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp., <i>Protacanthamoeba bohemica</i> and <i>N. lovaniensis</i>
Sarmadian et al., 2020	2020	Iran	Swimming pools (6)	576	1	Morphology	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp.
Attariani et al., 2020	2020	Iran	Swimming pools	42	3	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp.
Eftekhari-Kenzerki et al., 2021	2021	Iran	Indoor public swimming pools (20)	80	32	Morphology and PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp.
Aykur and Dagci, 2021	2021	Turkey	Swimming pools	26	3	PCR	<i>Acanthamoeba</i> T2, T4 and T5
Reyes-Batlle et al., 2021	2021	Portugal	Swimming pool facilities (20)	20	0	PCR	
Berrilli et al., 2021	2021	Italy	Hot Springs (2)	36	33	Morphology and PCR	<i>V. vermiformisi</i> , <i>N. australiensis</i> , <i>Acanthamoeba</i> T4 and <i>Acanthamoeba</i> T15

Publication bias checked by Egger's regression test, showed that it may have a substantial impact on total prevalence estimate (Egger; bias: 7.0, $P < 0.0001$) (Figure 3).

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Figure 3. Result of Egger’s bias assessment for the prevalence of free-living amoebae in swimming pools and recreational waters.

Based on the random-effects model meta-analysis, the pooled prevalence of FLA in swimming pools and recreational waters was 40.89% (95% CI = 33.97– 48.00) (Figure 4). The included studies demonstrated a strong heterogeneity ($Q = 1900.4$, $df = 74$, $I^2 = 96.1\%$, $P < 0.0001$).

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Figure 4. Forest plot of the worldwide prevalence of free-living amoebae in swimming pools and recreational waters.

The global prevalence of FLA in swimming pools and recreational waters considering studies published up to 2010 (1977-2010) was considerably higher 51.54% (95% CI = 36.65 – 66.29) than in studies published after 2010 (>2010-2021) 37.95% (95% CI = 30.34 – 45.86). Considering the continents covered by the selected studies, the highest prevalence 59.52% (95% CI = 31.12 – 84.81) was reported in America and the lowest 34.65% (95% CI = 26.08 – 43.75) in Asia. Among the countries from which more than one study was included, Malaysia had the highest prevalence of FLA in swimming pools and recreational waters 89.33% (95% CI = 70.71 – 99.12), and the lowest prevalence 27.91% (95% CI = 18.73 – 38.13) was recorded in Taiwan. Considering the different sampling sources, the highest prevalence of FLA 52.27% (95% CI = 14.55– 88.50) was obtained in indoor heated pools, and the lowest prevalence 34.75% (95% CI = 20.85– 50.14) was obtained in other recreational waters. The analysis of studies that used only morphological methods to identify free-living amoebae showed the highest prevalence 56.41% (95% CI = 30.09 – 80.92), the lowest prevalence 22.32% (95% CI = 12.28 – 34.33) was obtained from studies based only on molecular methods (PCR), an intermediate prevalence value 39.94% (95% CI = 33.64 – 46.41) was obtained by analyzing studies that simultaneously used morphological and molecular methods (Table 2).

The subgroup analysis revealed that there were statistically significant differences between the overall prevalence of FLA in water sources and year ($X^2 = 223.0$, $P < 0.001$), continent ($X^2 = 71.9$, $P = 0.002$), country ($X^2 = 46.4$, $P < 0.001$), sample source ($X^2 = 21.8$, $P = 0.003$) and diagnostic method ($X^2 = 274.0$, $P < 0.001$) (Table 2).

Table 2. Subgroup analysis of FLA in water sources

Subgroup variable	Prevalence (95% CI)	I^2 (%)	Heterogeneity (Q)	P-value	Interaction test (X^2)	P-value
Year [?]2010 > 2010	51.54 (36.65 – 66.29)	93.6% 96.4%	250.1 1584.3	$P < 0.001$	223.0	$P < 0.001$
Continent	48.24 (30.49 – 66.22)	95.1% 95.4%	102.2 108.1	$P < 0.001$	71.9	$P = 0.002$
Africa	59.52 (31.12 – 84.81)	96.2% 91.2%	1186.2 169.7	$P < 0.001$		
America	34.65 (26.08 – 43.75)			$P < 0.001$		
Asia	53.88 (42.63 – 64.93)					
Europe						

Subgroup variable	Prevalence (95% CI)	I ² (%)	Heterogeneity (Q)	P-value	Interaction test (X ²)	P-value
Country	Brazil 46.14 (17.16 – 76.64)	91.7% 96% - 96.3%	24.2 101.1 22.5	P < 0.001	P < 46.4	P < 0.001
	Egypt 47.80 (26.75 – 69.27)	96.3% - 88.2%	675.2 4.6 25.3	0.001 P <		
	Iran 30.33 (19.52 – 42.37)	91.2% 76.3% -	136.5 8.4 60.1	0.001 P <		
	Malaysia 69.62 (27.07 – 97.94)			0.001 P =		
	Taiwan 30.33 (19.52 – 42.37)			0.031 P <		
	Turkey 82.10 (60.30 – 96.35)			0.001 P <		
	USA 89.33 (70.71 – 99.12)			0.001 P =		
				0.014 P <		
				0.001		
Sample source	40.93 (31.53 – 50.68)	92.6% - 97.6%	350.5 1.8	P < 0.001	P = 21.8	P = 0.003
Hot springs	52.27 (14.55– 88.50)	95.8%	1124.2 330.6	0.169 P <		
Indoor hot swimming pools	45.31 (32.37– 58.58)			0.001 P <		
Public swimming pool	34.75 (20.85– 50.14)			0.001		
Recreational waters						
Diagnostic method	56.41 (30.09 – 80.92)	98.4% 91.3%	961.8 80.8	P < 0.001	P < 274.0	P < 0.001
	22.32 (12.28 – 34.33)	92.6%	664.5	0.001 P <		
Morphology				0.001		
PCR	39.94 (33.64 – 46.41)					
Morphology and PCR						

The global prevalence of different genera of FLA in swimming pools and recreational waters (considering only studies that used molecular identification methods) is 10.01%, 15.38%, 16.40% and 16.06% for *Naegleria* spp., *Acanthamoeba* spp., *Hartmannella* spp. and *Vermamoeba* spp. respectively (Table 3). The results of Egger’s regression test, as well as the forest plot of the worldwide prevalence of each of these free-living amoeba genera in swimming pools and recreational waters can be seen in figures S1, S2, S3 and S4 of the supplementary material, respectively.

Table 3. Global prevalence, publication bias, and heterogeneity of FLA in water sources

Genus	Prevalence, % (95% CI)
<i>Naegleria</i> spp. <i>Acanthamoeba</i> spp. <i>Hartmannella</i> spp. <i>Vermamoeba</i> spp.	10.01 (6.59 – 14.05) 15.38 (11.27 – 19.99) 16.40

CI: confidence interval; df: degree of freedom.

4. DISCUSSION

FLA are cosmopolitan microorganisms ubiquitous in all matrices of natural and anthropogenic environments, including water resources. The presence of FLA in pools and recreational waters is worrying, since some of these microorganisms are human pathogens, as well as being widely implicated in persistence and / or pseudo-

resistance of pathogenic bacteria, viruses and fungi in water, including water treated with disinfectants (Thomas et al., 2004; Staggemeier et al., 2016; Mavridou et al., 2018; Gomes et al., 2020; Hubert et al., 2021).

The studies included in present review are distributed by five continents, however, they have a heterogeneous spatial distribution within the territories of the continents, this can suggest differences in the level of FLA importance for health in the contexts of different countries, as well as differences in the frequency of cases diseases associated with the FLA. The frequency of cases of FLA related diseases can be influenced by the difference in the predominance of risk factors, the sensitivity of the health surveillance strategy of each country, as well as the heterogeneous distribution of trained professionals carrying out research in this area. In addition, the ease of confusing symptoms of diseases associated with the FLA with those caused by other microorganisms, combined with some cases of rapid deterioration of the patient's health and death (Jahangéer et al., 2020) can contribute to the rarity of reports or even the lack of association of diseases with FLA, especially in contexts where post-mortem study policies are not robust.

Our findings show that the general prevalence of FLA in swimming pools and recreational waters is 44.785%, however, a higher (51.54%) and lower (37.95%) prevalence value was obtained when considering the data from studies published up to 2010 and studies published after 2010, respectively (Table 2). A similar result was reported in a study that aimed to determine the prevalence of *Naegleria* spp. in water resources (Saber et al., 2020). This reduction in the prevalence reported in most recent studies was attributed to the most accurate diagnosis and reduction of false positive results (Jahangeer et al., 2020; Saber et al., 2020), as contrary to studies published up to 2010, the vast majority of studies published after 2010 used molecular methods for FLA identification. Curiously our results show that the general prevalence of FLA considering studies that they have simultaneously used morphological and molecular methods coincides with the average prevalence obtained considering data from studies that used only one of the methods (Table 2). This may suggest that the simultaneous use of these two methods reduces the extreme values obtained separately by each of the methods, and that these methods can be complementary, especially in studies that aim to assess the presence or absence of viable FLA in water samples. The authors agree that the morphological method (generally based on culture) is more laborious and less precise than molecular methods in the identification of FLA (Saber et al., 2020; Hikal & Dkhil, 2018).

The subgroup analysis considering the distribution of the studies by the continents showed that FLA are more prevalent in the swimming pools and recreational water from America (59.52%), followed by Europe (53.88%). In relation to countries, the highest value of the prevalence of FLA was obtained in Malaysia (89.33%), followed by Italy (82.10%) and France (69.62%), and the lowest values were obtained in Taiwan (27.91), Iran (30.33) and Turkey (30.55). As for the sample source, the indoor hot swimming pools presented a higher value (52.27%) of FLA prevalence, followed by public swimming pools (45.31%) and hot springs (40.93%), recreational waters presented a relatively low value (34.75%). These results are in accordance with other authors whose studies reported high prevalence of FLA (*Acanthamoeba* spp. 48.5%, *Naegleriaspp.* 46.0%, *Vermamoeba* spp. 4.7% and *Balamuthia* spp. 0.7%) in hot springs (Fabros et al., 2021). Saber et al. (2020) reported the following prevalence values for *Naegleria* spp. 44.80%, 32.88% and 21.27%, in swimming pools, hot springs and recreational waters, respectively. The subgroup analysis showed that prevalence values are statistically different ($p < 0.001$) for all variables studied (Table 2). These findings are in accordance with other studies that reported a variable distribution in abundance and diversity of FLA species around the world (Jahangéer et al., 2020; Saber et al., 2020; Fabros et al., 2021).

Our results also show that *Vermamoeba* spp., *Hartmannellaspp.* and *Acanthamoeba* spp. are more prevalent, presenting the following prevalence values, 16.06%, 16.40% and 15.38%, respectively (Table 3). The lowest prevalence value was for *Naegleria* spp. (10.01%). These results are in disagreement with the findings of other authors who reported higher prevalence values (Saber et al., 2020; Fabros et al., 2021). The lower prevalence values found in this study can be explained by the fact that only data from studies that included molecular methods in the identification of amoeba were used to calculate the prevalence of different genera of FLA. As discussed in the previous paragraphs, studies based on molecular methods for identifying FLA

report lower prevalence values.

The global prevalence of FLA reported in the present study (44.79%) is worrying, since direct contact between humans and these waters is often established. In addition, several studies have reported the isolation of several potentially pathogenic FLA (Caumo et al., 2009; Alves et al., 2012; Behniafar et al., 2015;) and others with proven pathogenicity in *ex-vivo* and *in-vivo* trials (Brown and Cursons, 1977; Janitschke et al., 1980; Rivera et al., 1983; Rivera et al., 1993; Gianinazzi et al., 2009). Most of these FLA are identified as *N. fowleri*, *Acanthamoeba* spp. and *Balamuthia mandrillaris*. Most isolates of *Acanthamoeba* spp. reported as pathogens are distributed among the T5, T11, T15, T3 and T4 genotypes, and among them, the T4 genotype is more prevalent in hot springs (Mahmoudi et al., 2015; Fabros et al., 2021) and is associated with most cases of *Acanthamoeba* keratitis (Diehl et al., 2021).

The presence and abundance of FLA in swimming pool water clearly indicates that in addition to these microorganisms being resistant to chlorine in the dosage used in the treatment of drinking water (Thomas et al., 2004; Gomes et al., 2020) they are also resistant to chlorine, and other disinfectants in the dosage used for swimming pools and artificial recreational waters (Rivera et al., 1983; Kiss et al., 2014). *Acanthamoeba castellanii* trophozoites and cysts have been reported to be resistant to exposure for more than 2 h to NaOCl and NaCl at concentrations up to 8 mg/L and 40 g/L, respectively. On the other hand, exposure to the combined effect of NaOCl or NaCl with ultraviolet C (UV-C) radiation resulted in rapid inactivation of trophozoites even when lower concentrations of NaOCl and NaCl were used (Cháuque & Rott, 2021). Cyst inactivation was achieved by twice as long exposure (300 min) to the combined effect of NaOCl or NaCl and UV-C, with redosing of NaOCl. Despite having demonstrated that both methods are effective, and that they have a strong potential to be used in the effective disinfection of swimming pool water, it was found that the use of NaCl is more cost-effective, as it is cheaper, has a residual effect, redosing is not necessary and is simple to apply (Cháuque & Rott, 2021).

The main aspects that constituted limitations for the present study are: the lack of studies carried out in most countries of the world; the heterogeneous distribution of the number of studies among the included countries; difference in FLA identification methods among many studies and discrepancy in the number of samples considered positive by the morphological and molecular method in the same study. The loss of isolates from positive samples in some studies, due to fungal contamination of non-nutrient agar plates prior to molecular identification of the amoebae, was also a limitation.

It is concluded that the prevalence of FLA in swimming pools and recreational waters is high and, therefore, of concern, since there is a risk of contracting infection by pathogenic amoebae or other pathogens (such as fungi, bacteria and viruses) that may be harbored and dispersed by FLA in water (Mavridou et al., 2018). Thus, it is necessary to implement disinfection techniques that are effective in eliminating microorganisms, including FLA, in swimming pools and artificial recreational waters. The use of the combined effect of NaCl and UV-C has great potential to be used to eliminate or minimize the risk of infection by FLA in swimming pools and other artificial recreational waters. The potential risk of infection by FLA in natural recreational waters needs to be routinely quantified by health surveillance. Warning signs need to be placed where there is minimal risk of infection by free-living amoebae, and people using these water bodies need to be educated about the potential risk and possible safety measures. These measures include not diving in recreational waters wearing contact lenses, preventing water from entering the airways and eyes, and avoiding jumping into the water. Health care workers (especially those working near recreational water use sites with risk of infection by FLA) need to be trained to be on the lookout for symptoms suggestive of infection by FLA, especially in summer.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

B.J.M.C. conceived the idea, wrote the project, collected and analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript. D.S. participated in the conception of the idea, performed the data verification, wrote and revised the manuscript. D.A. performed data analysis and manuscript review. M.B.R. managed the project and reviewed the manuscript. All authors approved the publication of this version of the manuscript.

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