# **Original Research Article**

### ASSESSMENT OF PHYSICOCHEMICAL AND BACTERIOLOGICAL PARAMETERS OF BOREHOLE AND HAND DUG WELL WATER IN MICHIKA AND ENVIRONS, ADAMAWA STATE, NIGERIA.

#### Abstract

Physicochemical and Bacteriological Parameters of Borehole and Hand dug well water of Michika town in Michika Local Government Area of Adamawa State, Nigeria and environs were assessed to determine their suitability or otherwise for drinking and domestic purposes. Ten (10) water samples, five each from boreholes and hand-dug wells, from five selected areas in Michika town, were collected during the months of January and February 2018. The water samples which are extensively used for drinking and other domestic purposes, were randomly collected and the results were compared with WHO and NAFDAC standards guidelines for drinking water. These samples were analyzedfor their physicochemical characteristics (pH, temperature, electrical conductivity, TDS, Turbidity, hardness), heavy metals, *Escherichia coli* (E-coli) and coliform counts. The results of the investigation revealed that the physicochemical and bacteriological parameters falls within the maximum permissible limits of NAFDAC and WHO guidelines for drinking water. The physicochemical concentrations were higher in borehole water than in hand dug well water; Lead and Cadmium were not detected in all the samples. All the water samples were free from feacal contamination except in Barikin Dlaka hand dug well which contained  $0.05 \pm 0.001$  MPN/100ml total coliform count which is below the WHO/NAFDAC maximum permissible levels. The suitability of water for domestic and drinking purposes indicated that the water samples were within the standards prescribed for potable water. However, there is need for routine checks to ascertain the suitability or otherwise of these water sources so as to forestall outbreak of water born diseases.

Keywords: Physiochemical, Bacteriological, Borehole, Hand dug well, Michika and Environs.

#### Introduction

Water is one of the most indispensable resources and is the elixir of life. It constitutes about 70% of the body weight of almost all living organisms. Life is not possible on this planet without water. [1]It acts as a media for both chemical and biochemical reactions and also serves as an internal and external medium for several organisms [1]. Additionally, basic functions of a

society require water for cleaning, for public health consumption, for industrial processes and cooling and for electricity generation [1]. Studiesdone by John [2] emphasized that groundwater plays an important role in supplying water to many of the global population for use in agriculture, drinking water, and industrial purposes. Physical and/or economic water scarcity occurs on all of the populated continents, with some parts of the world facing a genuine water crisis [3]. Water quality problems are both natural and anthropogenic in nature, with emerging contaminants playing an increasing role. Groundwater quantity and quality problems constitute a major set of challenges facing the world during this century [4].

Ground water constitutes about 20% of freshwater 5. The value of groundwater lies not only in its wide spread occurrence and availability but also in its consistent good quality, which makes it an ideal supply for drinking water [5]. However, ground water resources are under a serious threat due to growing interest in mechanized agricultural practices, increasing population density and rapid urbanization as well as domestic and industrial usage. Ground water provisions are sometimes unsustainable because of poor water productivity of wells, drying of wells after prolonged drought and sometimes due to poor water quality [6].

Contaminated water resources have important implications on health and environment [7]. The importance of water quality in human health has recently attracted a great deal of interest. In developing world, 80% of all diseases are directly related to poor drinking water and unsanitary conditions [8]. Ground water quality can be affected by varied pollution sources, Hamilton and Helsel, [9] stated that a connection between agricultural and ground water pollution is well established. According to Chandio [10], applications of Nitrogen-Phosphorus-Potassium fertilizer (NPK) have been increasing in Pakistan over the last few decades. As a result, high concentration of NO<sub>3</sub>-N has been reported to be common in ground water sources in the world [11,12].

Water quality is the physical, chemical and biological characteristics of water. It is the measure of the condition of water relative to the requirements of one or more biotic species and to any human need or purpose. Water quality is determined by the concentration of physical, chemical and biological contaminants. Water is never 100% pure as it carries traces of other substances, which bestow physical, chemical and biological characteristics [13].

The natural water analysis for physical, chemical, biological properties including trace elements contents are very important for public health studies. Safe drinking water is defined by World Health Organization as that water having acceptable quality in terms of physical, chemical and bacteriological parameters [14].

Bacteriological parameters, especially *Escherichia coli* (E.*coli*) and total coliforms have been used to determine the general quality of drinking water Worldwide [15]. The E. *coli* in particular has been found to be the most specific indicator of faecal contamination in drinking-water [16]. E. *coli* is an actual bacterium that causes gastroenteritis in humans, and is abundant in human and animal feces (up to 1,000,000,000 E. *coli*'s per gram of fresh feces). The presence of E. *coli* in water always indicates potentially dangerous contamination requiring immediate attention [17]. Its presence indicates contamination of water with faecal waste that may contain other harmful or disease causing organisms, including bacteria, viruses, or parasites [18]. WHO recommends that no faecal coliform should be present in 100 ml of drinking water? The main origins of pollution of boreholes are industrial, domestic and agricultural sources and can be accidental or continuous [19]. Domestic pollution may involve seepage from broken septic tanks, pit latrines, cesspools and privies [19]. WHO, [20] recommends that boreholes should be located at least 30m away from latrines and 17meters from septic tanks.

For some time now, there is either sporadic or no supply of pipe-borne water in Michika. Hence, people in Michika largely depend on boreholes and hand dug wells water for drinking and other domestic purposes. Drinking water should be of high purity, as the magnitude of demand for water is fast approaching the availability supply [21]. Groundwater is being increasingly used for drinking without the knowledge of the level of its purity. With the fast increase in population, there is high need for efficient conservation and usage of water especially boreholes and hand dug wells for healthy and sustainable development [22]. However, water pollution often endangers and negates the benefit of these water resources [21]. This study ascertained the suitability for consumption of boreholes and hand dug wells water of Michika town in Adamawa State, Nigeria.

#### **Materials and Methods**

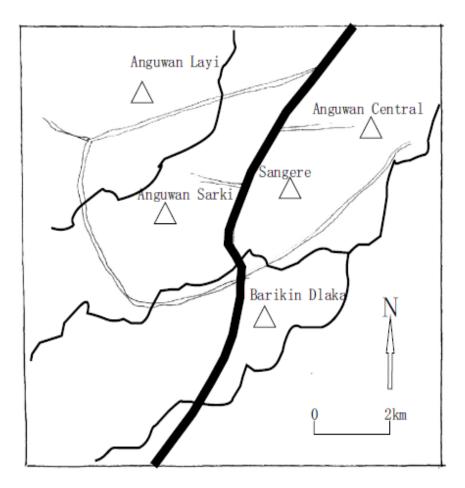
#### Study area:

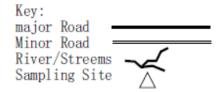
Michika is a town in Michika Local Government Area, being one of the 21 Local Governments Areas of Adamawa State situated in the North Eastern part of Nigeria. Michika lies between latitude 10° 36<sup>1</sup>N- 10° 40<sup>1</sup>N and longitude 13<sup>0</sup>21<sup>1</sup>E [23]. It shares common boundaries

with Madagali Local Government Area to the North, Lassa (Borno State) to the West, Republic of Cameroon to the East and to the South are Mubi North and Mubi South Local Government Areas. It has a land area of about 142,199Km<sup>2</sup>. It has total population of 155, 238 according to 2006 population Census. It has two seasons, dry and rainy seasons, the dry season lasts for a minimum of five months (November to March), while the rainy season spans seven months from April to October. The mean annual rainfall in Michika ranges from 900-1050mm [24].



Fig 1: Map of Adamawa State showing the sampling areas





Fig> 2 Map of Michika Township showing the sampling sites

#### **Sample Collection**

A total of ten (10) water samples, five each from boreholes and hand dug wells water were randomly collected from Michika town. The water samples were collected from Anguwan Central, Anguwan Layi, Anguwan Sarki, Barikin Dlaka and Sangere, the samples were collected from boreholes and hand dug wells which are extensively used for drinking and other domestic purposes, the samples were collected during the dry seasonduring the months of January and February, 2018. The water samples were collected using previously cleaned 11iter polyethene bottles. The bottles were first washed with detergent and rinsed with distilled water and then rinsed with the water to be sampled and filled to the brim with it and covered immediately. The cover of the containers were sealed with masking tape to avoid any form of contamination and labeled. The water samples were preserved with trioxonitrate (V) acid [25].

The water samples for bacteriological analysis were collected in sterilized high density polypropylene bottles covered with aluminum foils [26]. The water samples were transported to the laboratory in insulated containers with ice, stored in a refrigerator at a temperature of  $4^{0}$ C, and analyzed within 24 hour of collection [27]. Some parameters such as pH and temperature were analyzed on sites of sample collection. The bacteriological tests were undertaken within 6 hours after collection to avoid the growth or death of microorganisms in the sample [14].

#### **Physico-Chemical Analysis**

pH and temperature were measured immediately at the points of sample collection. The pH was measured using Jenway 3505 pH meter. The water temperature was measured using a mercury thermometer graduated up to 110 <sup>o</sup>C. Turbidity was measured by Nephelo-turbidity meter (systronic type No 131). Total Dissolved Solid (TDS) and Electrical Conductivity were determined using multipurpose JENWAY portable combined TDS/Conductivity meter (4510 model) the probe portion of the equipment was inserted into the water samples about 1cm depth and the reading was display and recorded [28].

#### **Determination of Heavy metals**

The method described by Tsafe et al., [29] was adopted. Magnesium, calcium Potassium and sodium were determined using Flame Photometer (Sherwood Scientific 410 Model, (UK) and heavy metals concentrations were determined using Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer (Buck Scientific 210 model, (Scotland). The water sample was aspirated into the instrument after all the necessary set up and standardization procedures. Atomic vapour was produced as the sample drop on the acetylene flame, a beam of monochromatic light with a wavelength at which only the element of interest was absorbed, passes through the flame. The atom of the element in flame absorbed some amount of light which corresponded to its concentration. This was detected on the display unit read as the absorbance. A calibration curve of each element was plotted using the absorbance of the standard against their corresponding concentrations and it was used to determine the concentration of the elements in the samples.

#### **Bacteriological Analysis**

Total heterotrophic bacteria in the water samples were obtained using the pour plate method. The enumeration and isolation of coliform bacteria was by the use of the membrane filtration technique and growth on MacConkey agar [30,31. The presence of *Escherichia coli* in the water samples was assessed by growth and colour reaction on Eosin Methylene blue (EMB) agar, together with standard biochemical reactions as described in APHA [32].

#### **Results and Discussion**

The results of the physicochemical parameters of boreholes and hand dug wells water samples were presented in Table 1 and Table 2. In this study the values of pH in Tables 1 and 2 ranged from  $6.8 \pm 0.36$  to  $8.0 \pm 0.41$  for borehole water, and  $6.5 \pm 0.11$  to  $7.8 \pm 0.41$  for hand dug well water. This result indicated the neutral and alkaline nature of both the hand dug well water and borehole water respectively. The highest pH  $8.0 \pm 0.41$  was recorded in Sangere borehole water, while the lowestpH  $6.5 \pm 0.11$  was recorded in Anguwan Layi hand dug wells, and all these values were within the accepted limits prescribed, for various uses of water, including drinking water supplies [14]. The WHO set a pH guideline value of between 6.5 and 8.5 as generally considered satisfactory for drinking water. The values were however in agreement with a similar study done on ground water in Bauchi by Chindo et al.[37]. pH is the most important parameter that serves as an index for pollution and also measures the hydrogen ion concentration (H<sup>+</sup>) and negative hydroxide ion (OH<sup>-</sup>) in water [20]. Although pH usually has no direct impact on consumers, it is one of the most important operational water quality parameters. Low pH water is likely to be corrosive. Alkalinity and calcium management also contribute to the stability of water and control its aggressiveness to pipes and appliances [33].

Turbidity values varied from  $1.00 \pm 0.01$  to  $2.00 \pm 1.02$  NTU for borehole water and  $1.00\pm 0.01$  to  $2.00 \pm 0.01$  NTU for hand dug well water respectively, all the values analysed were very low but were all within the permissible limit for drinking water WHO, [14] (5NUT). The result of this finding was also in agreement with the report of Chindo et al.[37] and Maitera et al.[34]. Turbidity may be defined as the measure of clarity of water, high turbidity may indicate the presence of disease causing organisms such as bacteria, viruses and parasite that causes symptoms like nausea, cramps, diarrhea and headaches [34]. It is also caused by the presence of suspended insoluble materials such as clay and silt particles, discharges of sewage or industrial wastes, or the presence of large numbers of micro-organisms mainly occurring in surface water, which makes them objectionable for almost all uses [35]. Excessive turbidity

8

protects microorganisms from effects of disinfectants and stimulates the growth of bacteria in water [33].

The values of the Electrical conductivity in the present investigation ranged from  $612\pm$  2.71 to  $701\pm1.98$  µs/cm for borehole water and  $480\pm2.61$  to  $711\pm0.00$  µs/cm for hand dug well water samples. The highest concentration  $711\pm0.00$  µs/cm was recorded in Sangere borehole and lowest concentration  $480\pm2.61$  µs/cm was found in Anguwan layi hand dug wells which are considered below the guideline set by NAFDAC[36], (1000 µs/cm) and were considered safe for drinking and other domestic purposes. The values recorded in this study were high compared to similar study by Odiba et al. [31].. Electrical conductivity is a quantitative measure of the ability of water to pass electric current. This ability depends largely on the quantity of dissolved salts present in any water sample [37]. In dilute form conductivity is approximately proportional to dissolved solids (DS) content. Monitoring of conductivity can thus usefully indicate variations in salt concentration in water, but for water quality control, various limitations abound. Thus, organic compounds do not ionize greatly in aqueous solutions; therefore organic pollutants would not be monitored by conductivity measurement [13].

Total Dissolved Solid is given as a number expressing the concentration of filterable solids present in water. Water with high concentration of dissolved solid present has poor taste and may induce unfavorable psychological reaction in the consumer [37]. For this reason, a limit of 500mg/l of dissolved solids is desirable for potable waters. This includes settle able and non-settle able solids [13]. In this investigation, the value of Total Dissolved Solid recorded 101  $\pm$  0.11 to 311 $\pm$ 1.67 mg/l for borehole water and 191 $\pm$ 1.14 to 301 $\pm$ 4.28 mg/l for hand dug well water. Sangere and Anguwan central borehole water had the highest and lowest concentrations (311 $\pm$ 1.67 mg/l and 101 $\pm$ 0.11 mg/l) respectively. A limit of 500 mg/l has been recommended as desirable and 1500 mg/l as maximum permissible limit for drinking water (WHO). However, all the values obtained were within the recommended limit of 500mg/l. In natural water Total dissolved solid (TDS) consist mainly of inorganic salts such as carbonates, chloride, sulphate, phosphate, nitrate, magnesium, calcium, sodium, iron and small amount of organic matter and dissolved gases [38].

The values of temperature presented in tables 1 and 2 varied from sample to sample. The temperature of the study area ranged from  $28\pm1.00 - 33\pm0.00^{\circ}$ C for borehole water and  $26\pm0.52$ 

 $-29\pm0.20^{\circ}$ C for hand dug well water, with the lowest temperature  $26\pm0.52^{\circ}$ C recorded in Anguwan central hand dug well, and highest temperature  $33\pm0.00^{\circ}$ C found in Sangere borehole water. The result of this investigation was higher compared to reports from Chindo et al.[37] and Odiba et al [31]. These temperatures are considered desirable as they fall within the permissible limit. It has been suggested that solar radiation, clear atmosphere and low water level increases the temperature of water body [14]. The temperature of water to a large extent determines the degree of microbial activity. Water temperature could be raised as a result of both natural volcanic activities and industrial discharges [39]. Normally, water with lower temperature is palatable [14,40,41]. High water temperature enhances the growth of microorganisms and may increase taste, odour, and colour problems of drinking water [20,42].Temperature also affects the concentration of dissolved oxygen and can influence the activity of bacteria in water bodies [43].

Hardness may be defined as the concentration of all multivalent metallic cations in solution. The principal ions causing hardness in natural water are calcium and magnesium. Others, which may be present though in much smaller quantities, are iron, manganese, strontium and aluminum [44]. Ground water is much prone to hardness due to high concentration of calcium and magnesium ions. An elevated hardness, however, makes water unsuitable for domestic and industrial use [13]. The values of hardness of water samples recorded for borehole water in this study area ranged from  $30\pm0.01 - 50\pm0.16$  mg/l and  $20\pm0.11 - 35\pm0.01$  mg/l for hand dug well water. The highest concentration  $50\pm0.16$  mg/l was recorded in Sangere borehole and lowest concentration  $20 \pm 0.11$  mg/l was found in Anguwa layi hand dug well. The values are below the guidelines set by WHO and NAFDAC, of (150mg/l and100mg/l). Hardness of water **do** not have any health implications but **might** affect the taste of water as well as influence its lathering ability when used for washing [13].

The results of the heavy metals and essential elements as presented in tables 3 and 4 indicated that the concentration of iron recorded for all the water samples ranged from  $0.10\pm 0.01- 0.20\pm 0.01$  mg/l and  $0.10\pm 0.10- 0.20\pm 0.11$  mg/l for boreholes and hand dug wells respectively. The desirable limits and maximum permissible limits of iron in drinking water are 0.3mg/l and 1.0mg/l respectively according to WHO. The entire water sample analyzed had their iron concentration very low but falls within the desirable limits for drinking water. The result was in agreement with a similar study done by Shittu et al. [45] and Alexander et al. [38]. Iron in drinking water may be present as geological sources, industrial waste and domestic discharges

and also from mining products [45]. Excess amount of iron, (more than 10.00mg/kg) causes rapid increase in respiration, pulse rate, coagulation of blood vessels and hypertension [36].

Copper is essential to humans, the daily adult requirement has been estimated at 2.0mg/l. Copper salts are used in water treatment to control biological growths in reservoir and distribution pipes and to catalyze the oxidation of manganese [44]. Copper is also an essential nutrient that the body requires in very small amounts. However, drinking water containing very high levels of copper can cause nausea, vomiting and diarrhoea, and can damage the liver and kidneys [20]. The stipulated Cu level in drinking water according to the WHO, [20] is 1.0 mg/l. The concentration of copper recorded in this study ranged from  $(0.01\pm 0.50 \text{ to } 0.30 \pm 0.10 \text{ mg/l})$  and  $(0.10\pm 0.03 \text{ to } 0.20\pm 0.75 \text{ mg/l})$  for borehole and hand dug well water respectively. Highest concentration was recorded in Barkin dlaka borehole  $(0.3\pm 0.10 \text{ mg/l})$  and lowest concentration was found in Anguwan layi borehole,  $(0.01\pm 0.50 \text{ mg/l})$ . All the samples in this study falls within the WHO and NAFDAC maximumlimit of 1.0mg/l. However, copper was not detected in Anguwan central borehole water. The value of Cu recorded in this study was lower compared to report given by Chindo et al.[31],

The Fluoride concentration in the ground water analysed varied from  $0.10\pm0.01$  to  $0.50\pm0.01$  mg/l and  $0.01\pm0.01$  to  $0.30\pm0.50$  mg/l for borehole water and hand dug well water respectively. The recorded values in all the water samples studied were very low compared to the WHO and NAFDAC standards set for drinking water (1.00 to 1.50mg/l). However, when fluoride is present in drinking water at concentrations much above the guideline value of 1.5mg/l, long term use can result in the development of dental fluorosis or at its worst bone fluorosis [41,46].

Calcium concentration in all the water samples investigated varied from  $(0.10\pm 0.20-0.20\pm 0.18 \text{ mg/l})$  and  $(0.10\pm 0.20-0.20\pm 0.01 \text{ mg/l})$ , for borehole and dug well water respectively. According to WHO and NAFDAC the desirable standard unit for calcium specified is 75mg/l. Distribution of calcium in all the water samples analysed had very low concentrations. Its low concentration in drinking water may cause defective teeth and rickets. Calcium is essential for nervous system, cardiac function and coagulation of blood [20].

In this investigation the concentration of magnesium recorded in all the water samples analysed was very low compared to the WHO and NAFDAC maximum permissible standard limits for drinking water 30mg/l. The average concentration of magnesium recorded in all the water samples analysed was (0.01±0.03 mg/l) for both the hand dug well and borehole water respectively.

The study revealed that the concentrations of sodium and potassium recorded in the water quality investigated were very low compared to the WHO and NAFDAC (20 mg/l and 30mg/l) for sodium and potassium respectively. Nevertheless, lead and cadmium were not detected in all the water samples.

Bacteriological analysis: The coliform group of bacteria was the principal indicator of suitability of water for domestic uses. The density of coliform group was the criteria for the degree of contamination and had been the basis for bacteriological water quality standard [41]. The results obtained for microbial analysis was presented in tables 5 and 6. The results of the investigation indicated that all the water samples were free from faecal coliforms (faecal contamination). This indicated good quality water and safe for drinking and domestic purposes.

SAMPLE	pН	Temperature	Electrical	TDS	Turbidity	Hardness
SITE	( <sup>0</sup> C)		Conductivity	(mg/L) (NTU)		(CaCO <sub>3</sub> )
			(µs/cm)			(mg/L)
Anguwan	7.3±0.36	28±1.00	630±2.41	101±0.11	ND	40.0±0.62
Central						
Anguwan	7.1±0.21	29±0.20	612±2.71	200±2.11	1.00±0.21	30.0±0.01
Layi						
Anguwan	6.8±0.36	29±1.02	631±4.11	201±1.11	1.0±0.60	30.0±0.01
Sarki						
Barikin	7.1±0.30	32±1.01	628±2.51	203±0.25	$1.0\pm0.01$	30.0±0.00
Dlaka						
Sangere	8.0±0.41	33±0.00	701±1.98	311±1.67	$2.0{\pm}1.02$	50.0±0.16
Range	6.8±0.36-	28±1.00-	612±2.71-	101±0.11-	1.00±0.01-	30±0.01-
	8.0±0.41	33±0.00	701±1.98	311±1.67	$2.00{\pm}1.02$	50±0.16
WHO	6.5-8.5		1000	500	5.00	100

 Table 1: Physicochemical Parameters of Borehole water

NAFDAC	6.5-8.5	Ambient	1000	500	5.00	150	

**Results were presented as mean ± standard deviation of five determinations.** 

<b>..</b> . <b>..</b> . <b>..</b>			8			
		Temperature	Electrical	TDS	Turbidity	Hardness
SAMPLING	рН	(°C)	Conductivity	(mg/L)	(NTU)	(CaCO <sub>3</sub> )
SITES			(µs/cm)			(mg/L)
Anguwan	7.7±0.32	26±0.67	567±2.67	201±2.13	ND	30.0±0.22
Central						
Anguwan	$6.8 \pm 0.00$	26±0.52	480±2.61	191±1.14	1.0±0.01	20.0±0.11
Layi						
Anguwan	6.5±0.11	27±0.42	623±1.00	234±3.12	1.0±0.13	25.0±0.00
Sarki						
Barkin	7.5±0.31	28±2.18	540±1.12	200±6.11	1.0±0.52	30.0±0.20
Dlaka						
Sangere	7.8±0.41	29±0.20	711±0.00	301±4.28	2.0±0.01	35.0±0.01
-						•••••
Range	6.5±0.11-	26±0.52-	480±2.61-	191±1.14-	1.0±0.01-	20±0.11-
	7.8±0.41	29±0.20	711±0.00	301±4.28	2.0±0.01	35±0.01
$\langle \rangle$					2.0±0.01	
WHO	6.5-8.5		1000	500	5.00	100
NAFDAC	6.5-8.5	Ambient	1000	500	5.00	150
	0.0 0.0	1 morent	1000	200	5.00	150

 Table 2: Physicochemical Parameters of Hand dug well water

**Results were presented as mean ± standard deviation of five determinations.** 

SAMPLE	Zn	Cu	Cd	Pb	Fe	F	Mg	Na	K	Ca
SITES										
Anguwan	0.30±0.04	ND	ND	ND	0.10±0.10	0.20±0.30	0.10±0.01	$0.01 \pm 0.00$	$0.10 \pm 0.00$	0.01±0.00
Central										
AnguwanLayi	0.10±0.10	$0.01 \pm 0.50$	Nm	ND	0.10±0.11	0.40±0.33	$0.02 \pm 0.00$	0.10±0.02	0.10±0.22	0.10±0.20
AnguwanSarki	0.09±0.03	$0.10 \pm 0.00$	ND	ND	ND	0.20±0.00	0.10±0.12	0.10±0.03	$0.10 \pm 0.10$	$0.01 \pm 0.00$
BarkinDlaka	0.20±0.01	0.30±0.10	ND	ND	ND	0.10±0.01	0.01±0.00	0.10±0.01	0.10±0.10	$0.20 \pm 0.00$
Sangere	$0.40 \pm 0.00$	$0.02 \pm 0.17$	ND	ND	0.10±0.11	0.50±0.01	0.02±0.01	$0.01 \pm 0.00$	0.10±0.30	$0.20 \pm 0.00$
Range	$0.09 \pm 0.03$	0.01±0.50-	-	-	0.10±0.10-	0.10±0.01-	0.01±0.02-	0.1±0.01-	0.10±0.00-	0.1±0.2-
	$-0.4 \pm 0.00$	0.3±0.10			0.10±0.11	0.5±0.01	$0.01 \pm 0.02$	0.10±0.03	0.1±0.3	0.2±0.18
WHO	50	1.0	0.003	0.01	0.30	1.5	50	20	100	75
NAFDAC	50	1.0	0.003	0.01	0.3	1.0	30	20	100	75

## Table 3: Elemental concentrations for Borehole water (mg/L)

**Results were presented as mean ± standard deviation of five determinations.** 

ND= Not Detected

SAMPLE	Zn	Cu	Cd	Pb	Fe	F	Mg	Na	K	Ca
SITES										
Anguwan	0.10±0.01	0.10±0.01	ND	ND	ND	0.20±0.71	0.01±0.10	0.01±0.00	0.10±0.13	0.10±0.00
Central										
Anguwan Layi	0.20±0.10	$0.20 \pm 0.01$	ND	ND	ND	0.20±0.63	0.01±0.01	$0.10 \pm 0.00$	$0.10{\pm}1.00$	0.20±0.14
Anguwan	0.09±0.41	0.10±0.03	ND	ND	0.10±0.20	ND	$0.01 \pm 0.00$	$0.01 \pm 0.00$	0.10±1.12	$0.20 \pm 0.00$
Sarki										
Barkin Dlaka	0.30±0.11	$0.20 \pm 0.75$	ND	ND	0.10±0.53	0.12±0.02	0.01±0.00	$0.01 \pm 0.00$	$0.21 \pm 0.10$	0.20±0.18
Sangere	$0.41 \pm 0.00$	$0.02 \pm 0.61$	ND	ND	0.20±0.01	0.30±0.50	0.01±0.13	0.20±0.21	0.20±0.03	0.22±0.00
Range	0.09±0.03-	$0.01 \pm 0.00$	-		0.10±0.10-	$0.10 \pm 0.01$	$0.01 \pm 0.00$	$0.01 \pm 0.00$	$0.10 \pm 0.00$	0.1±0.2-
	$0.4\pm0.00$	-0.2±0.75			0.20±0.11	-0.5±0.01	-	-	-0.1±0.3	$0.2\pm0.00$
							$0.01 \pm 0.02$	0.10±0.03		
WHO	5.00	1.0	0.003	0.01	0.3	1.5	50	20	100	75
NAFDAC	5.00	1.0	0.003	0.01	0.3	1.0	30	20	100	75

 Table 4: Elemental concentrations for Hand dug well water (mg/L).

**Results were presented as mean ± standard deviation of five determinations** 

ND= Not Detected

## Table 5: Bacteriological Parameters for Hand dug well water

SAMPLE SITES	Total Coliform count (TPC) (MPN/100M/))	E. <i>Coli</i> (TPC) (MPN/100ml) )
		(
Anguwan Central	ND	ND
Anguwan Layi	ND	ND
Anguwan Sarki	ND	ND
Barkin Dlaka	$0.05 \pm 0.001$	ND
Sangere	ND	ND
ND= Not Detected		

**TPC = Total coliform count** 

MPN= Most probable number of coliform

## Table 6: Bacteriological Parameters of Borehole water

Sample Sites	Total Coliform count (TPC)	E. Coli (TPC)
	(MPN/100 ml)	(MPN/100ml)
Anguwan Central	ND	ND
AnguwanLayi	ND	ND
AnguwanSarki	ND	ND
BarkinDlaka	ND	ND
Sangere	ND	ND

ND= Not Detected

## Conclusion

From the results of this investigation, the concentrations of the physicochemical and bacteriological parameters studied were all within the standard desirable limits for drinking water

quality recommended by WHO and NAFDAC; except that the physicochemical concentrations are higher in borehole water samples than hand dug well water; the levels of trace and heavy metals investigated were all below the WHO guidelines levels. All the water samples were free from feacal contamination except Barikin Dlaka hand dug well which contained 0.05±0.001 MPN/100ml total coliform count which was below the WHO/NAFDAC maximum permissible levels. From this study it was concluded that the ground water of Michika town in Michika Local Government Area of Adamawa State, Nigeria is generally, suitable for drinking and domestic purposes. The suitability of water for domestic and drinking purposes indicates that water samples were within the standards prescribed for potable waters. However, there is need for routine checks to ascertain the suitability or otherwise of these water sources so as to forestall outbreak of water born diseases, as human activities are regularly changing the concentrations of these water quality parameters.

#### **References:**

- Rajankar PN, Galhane SR, Tambekar DH, Ramteke DS, and Wate SR.(2009). Water Quality Assessment of Ground Water Resource in Nagpur Region (India) based on Water Quality Index WQI. Journal of Chemistry, 6 (3): 905 – 908.
- 2. John Luczaj (2016) Groundwater Quantity and Quality. Resources.; 5 (10): 1-4.
- Bigas H (2012). The Global Water Crisis: Addressing an Urgent Security Issue; Papers for the Inter Action Council, 2011–2012. UNU-INWEH: Hamilton, Canada, 2012. Available online:http://inweh.unu.edu/wp-content/uploads/201/05/WaterSecurity\_The-Global-Water-Crisis.pdf (accessed on 16 December 2015).
- USA Today—Pumped Dry (2015): The Global Crisis of Vanishing Groundwater. Available online: <u>http://www.usatoday.com/pages/interactives/groundwater</u> / (accessed on 16 December 2015).
- 5. UNESCO (2006).Water a Shared Responsibility, the United Nation World Water Development Report 2, UNESCO and Berghahn Books, NewYork.
- Xu Y, Usher BH (2006).Groundwater Pollution in Africa. Taylor and Francis/Balkema, Leiden, The Netherlands, PP. 355

- UNEP(United Nations Environment Program) (2006). Water quality for ecosystem and human health: United Nations environment program/global environment monitoring system (UNEP/GEMS) program 2006, pp. 1-132.
- Adekoyeni O, Salako S (2012), Microbiological, Physicochemical and Mineral Quality of Borehole Water in Ijebu Land, Ogun State, Nigeria, International Journal of Science and Advanced Technology, 2, 23- 30.
- Hamilton P A, Helsel D R (1995). Effects of Agriculture on Groundwater Quality in Five Regions of the United States. Groundwater, 33: 217-226
- Chandio BA (1999). Groundwater Pollution by Nitrogenous Fertilizers: UNESCO Case Study. In: UNESCO Report, Lahore, Pakistan.
- 11. Wassenaar L (1995). Evaluation of the Origin and Fate of Nitrate in the Abbotsford Aquifer using the Isotopes of 15N and 180 in NO3. Applied Geochemistry, 10, 391–405.
- Goulding K (2000). Nitrate Leaching from Arable and Horticultural Land, Soil use and Management. pp 145 – 151.
- 13. NIS, (2007). Nigerian Standard for Drinking Water Quality. Nigerian Industrial Standard, Standard Organisation of Nigeria, Abuja.16-17.
- 14. World Health Organization (WHO) (2006).Guidelines for Drinking Water Quality, First Addendum to 3rd ed. Recommendations, World Health Organization, Geneva.1:185-186
- 15. Ashbolt NJ 2004. Microbial contamination of drinking water and diseases outcomes in developing regions. Toxicology 198: 229-238.
- Plate, D. K, Strassmann B. I, Wilson M. L (2004). Water sources are associated with childhood diarrhoea prevalence in rural east-central Mali. *Trop. Med. Inter. Health*, 9(3): 416–425.
- WHO, (World Health Organisation). 1993. Guidelines for Drinking Water Quality. 2nd Edition. World Health Organisation, Geneva, Switzerland.
- Zvidzai, C,, Mukutirwa T, Mundembe R, Sithole-Niang I (2007). Microbial community analysis of drinking water sources from rural areas of Zimbabwe. *Afri.J. Microbiol. Res.* 1 (6):100-103.
- Adeyemi GO, Adesile AO, Obayomi O B (2003). Chemical Characteristics of Some Well waters in Ikire, Southwestern Nigeria. Water Resources, NAH, 14: 12-18

- 20. WHO (World Health Organisation)(2004a). Guidelines for Drinking Water Quality. 3<sup>rd</sup> Edition. World Health Organisation, Geneva, Switzerland.
- 21. Osunkiyesi AA (2012). Physicochemical analysis of Ogun River (water samples) within two locations (Akin Olugbade and Lafenwa) in Aboekuta, Ogun State. IOSR Journal of Applied Chemistry.1 (4):24-27.
- 22. Olatunji JA, Odediran OA, Obaro R I, Olasehinde PI (2015). Assessment of Groundwater Quality of Ilorin Metropolis using Water Quality Index Approach. Nigerian Journal of Technological Development, 12 (1):18-21.
- 23. Google Map Data 2011
- 24. Adebayo A A, Bashire BA (2002). Seasonal Variation in Water Quality and Occurrence of Water-Borne Diseases in Yola, Nigeria. In Proceedings of the National Conference on Population, Environment and Sustainable Development in Nigeria. University of Ado-Ekiti .
- 25. Alexander P Janyo ND, Hassan WG (2018). Quality Assessment of Surface and Ground Water of Hong Local Government Area of Adamawa State, Nigeria. Asian Journal of Applied Chemistry Research. 2(2): 1-11.
- Adegboyega AM, OlaludeC, OdunolaOA (2915). Physicochemical and Bacteriological Analysis of Water Samples used For Domestic Purposes in Idi Ayunre, Oyo State, Southwestern Nigeria. IOSR Journal of Applied Chemistry. 8 (10): 46-50
  - 27. Joshua BO, Janet OO, Ademola AA, Adebukola KD, Oluwabusayo OI, Julius KO (2014). Bacteriological and Physicochemical Assessment of Water from Student Hostels of Osun State University, Main Campus, Osogbo, Southwset Nigeria.
  - Ishaku, M, Kaigama U, Onyeka NR (2011). Assessment of ground water quality using factor analysis in Mararaba-Mubi area, Northeastern Nigeria. Journal of earth sciences and Geochemical Engineering, Vol. 1, No. 1,2011,9-33.
  - 29. Tsafe AI, Hassan LG, Sahabi DM, Alhassan Y, Bala BM. (2012). Assessment of heavy metal and mineral composition in some soil minerals deposit and water from gold mining area in Northern Nigeria. International Journal of Geology and Mining. 256.

- Edema MO, Omemu AM, Fapetu OM (2001). Microbiologicaland physicochemical analysis of different sources of drinking water. Nigerian Journal of Microbiology 15: 57-61.
- Odiba John Oko, Matthew Olaleke Aremu, Raphael Odoh ,Gary Yebpella and Gideon Adue Shenge (2014). Assessment of Water Quality Index of Borehole and Well Water in Wukari Town, Taraba State, Nigeria. journal of Environment and Earth Science, 4(5): 1-19
- 32. APHA (American Public Health Association) (1992). Standard methods for Examination of water and waste water, 17th ed; 1268-1270.
- Alexander P, (2008). Evaluation of ground water quality of Mubi town in Adamawa State Nigeria. African Journal of Biotechnology..7(11): 1712-1715
- 34. Maitera ON, Ogugbuaja VO, Barminas JT (2010). Anassessment of the organic pollution indicator of river Benue in Adamawa state, Nigeria. Journal of Environmental Chemistry and Ecotoxicology. 2(7): 110-116.
- Tebbutt T H Y (1983). Principles of Water Quality Control, 3rd Edition.Pergamon Press, pp. 6-18
- 36. NAFDAC. Recertification of water producers in Nigeria (2012)27-47.
- 37. Chindo Y Istifanus, Elisha Karu, Ishaku Ziyok, Ephraim D. Amanki (2013). Physicochemical Analysis of Ground Water of Selected Areas of Dass and Ganjuwa Local Government Areas, Bauchi State, Nigeria. World Journal of Analytical Chemistry, 1(4): 73-79.
- 38. Alexander P, Maitera ON, Kawuwa B. (2011). Quality assessment of groundwater in Vimtim community of Mubi North, Adamawa State, Nigeria. Journal of Physical Science and Innovation. 3:34-40\
- 39. EPA (2003). US Environmental Protection Agency Safe Drinking Water Act. EPA 816
   -F-03-016
- 40. Volk CJ, Hofmann Chauret, C, Gagnon GA, Ranger G, AndrewsRC

(2002). Implementation of Chlorine Dioxide Disinfection: Effects of the Treatment Change on Drinking Water Quality on Full -Scale Distribution System. J. Environ. Eng. Sci. 1, 323-330

- 41. WHO (1997). Guidelines for drinking-water quality, Surveillance and control of community supplies. V.3, 2nd ed. World Health Organizations, Switzerland, Geneva
- 42. Mombal M, Tyafa Z Malaka, Brouckaert B.M, Obi CL (2006). Safe Drinking Water Still a Dream in Rural Areas of South Africa: The Eastern Cape Province. J. of Water Science Res. and Technol. 32 (5): 208-213
- 43. Murphy S (2007a). General Information on Specific Conductance. Water Quality Monitoring. City of Boulder/USGS.
- 44.EPA (2002). US Environment Protection Agency, Safe Drinking Water Act Ammendment http:// www. epa. gov/safe water /mcl.Html
- 45. Shittu OB, Olaitan JO Amusa TS (2008).Physico-Chemical and Bacteriological Analyses of water Used for Drinking and Swimming Purposes in Abeokuta, Nigeria. African Journal of Biomedical Research, Vol. 11; 285 -290.
- 46. Kataria HC, Gupta M, Kumar M, Kushwaha S, Kashyap S, Trivedi S, Bhadoria R, Bandewar K(2003). Study of physio-chemical waters in Ikire, southwestern Nigeria. Water Resources, NAH. ;14:12-1