

Prevalence Of Intestinal Parasitic infections Among Inmates Of The New-Bell Central Prison, Cameroon

ABSTRACT

Intestinal parasitic infections (IPIs) remain a public health issue in developing countries where overcrowded settlements and poor sanitation were of most risk factors. Due to paucity of IPIs data in known overcrowded Cameroonian prisons, this cross-sectional study conducted in 2015 in the New-Bell Central Prison (NBCP) aimed to establish biodiversity, prevalence and risk factors of intestinal protozoan and helminthe infections among inmates.

Fresh stool samples collected from the NBCP volunteered inmates were laboratory examined microscopically as fresh mounts plus iodine, Kato-Katz smears, formalin-ether concentration and modified Ziehl-Nelsen stained sediments.

Of a total 374 inmates who participated in the study, overall IPIs prevalence was 39.3%. Helminthe and protozoa prevalence was 16.6% and 24.6% respectively. Parasites species were recorded at following prevalence: *Ascaris lumbricoides* (10.4%), *Trichuris trichiura* (5.1%), *Schistosoma mansoni* (0.5%), *Entamoeba histolytica/dispar* (14.2%), *Entamoeba coli* (16.6%), *Giardia intestinalis* (7.2%), *Chilomastix mesnili* (2.4%), *Blastocystis spp* (2.1%) and *Cryptosporidium* sp (4.3%). Co-infections by two or three parasites were present among infected subjects.

Overall IPIs prevalence was not significantly influenced by gender, age, detention duration, education level, handwashing practices, sanitation and drinking water source. However, highest IPIs prevalence occurred in males aged 30 to 49 years old, less than one year detainees, latrine users and those who drank borehole water. Systematic handwashing practices and education level did not influence significantly IPIs prevalence. All helminthe infections were of light intensities.

Inmates in the New Bell central prison were parasitized by several species of protozoa and intestinal worms in varying prevalence depending on the detention period, the sex, the age and hygiene. A regular IPIs control among prison inmates was recommended to the NBCP managers to prevent related morbidity.

Key words: *intestinal parasites, protozoa, helminthes, prevalence, inmates, New-Bell central prison, Douala*

INTRODUCTION. Intestinal parasitic infections (IPIs) are among the most prevalent neglected tropical diseases (NTDs), affecting one third of the world's population and rely mainly on poor hygiene and sanitation living conditions [1]. Highest IPIs prevalence were reported mostly across sub-Saharan Africa countries where favouring factors were primarily scattered and overcrowded settlements where aggravation factors identified were safe drinking water, lack of hygienic behaviour, improper sanitary habits, poor faecal disposal systems and poor socioeconomic status [2]. Despite significant progress

40 made in most African countries to improve sanitation and access to potable drinking water, in 2012
41 only 74% and 45% of the Cameroonian population used improved drinking water sources and
42 improved sanitation respectively, the remaining population therefore used poor sanitation conditions
43 and doubtful drinking water source [3] therefore giving the way to poor hygiene-related infectious
44 diseases.

45 In 2002, the human rights reported overcrowding in Cameroonian prisons with an approximate 450%
46 population increase than their normal capacity [4,5]. Such high increase in prison population likely
47 worsened living conditions to below acceptable standard and aggravated health problems by
48 contributing to the spread of hygiene-related communicable diseases such as intestinal parasitic
49 infections. The high numbers of persons per unit space create inadequate or poor nutritional quality,
50 and overall low-living standards compared to the general population. Inmates may therefore have
51 limited access to basic potable drinking (clean) water as demand increases, poor sanitation and
52 hygiene conditions in the prison through lack or insufficient waste disposals and convenient latrines.
53 Such unhealthy conditions may therefore favour open air defecation, poor handwashing practices
54 before eating or after defecation in the prison area.

55 Hygiene-related intestinal parasitic infections data made available in prisons from some African
56 countries indicated high overall prevalence of IPIs always over 70% at Ouagadougou [6], **some**
57 **Nigerian prisons namely Keffi prison, Owerri prison and Jos Central Prison** [7,8,9,10] and Ethiopia
58 [11]. In Kajang Prison, Selangor, Malaysia an overall 26.5% IPIs prevalence was reported among
59 inmates [12]. Depending on the laboratory diagnostic techniques used, intestinal parasite found in
60 stool samples in either studies belonged to various Protozoa and/or helminthes species and were
61 recovered singly or in combinations. Such reports on intestinal parasitic infections in any
62 Cameroonian prison were not available in the literature. Thus an evidence-based IPI's control strategy
63 could not be recommended so far. However, previous hospital-based and community-based studies
64 indicated variable prevalence of IPIs among residents of the Douala city [13,14].

65 This study thus aimed to assess the prevalence of intestinal parasitic infections including protozoa
66 and helminthes infections in inmates of one the biggest prison in Cameroon, the New Bell central
67 prison which is located in Douala metropolis. As IPIs may have significant health impact on the
68 affected subjects, knowledge on their prevalence and major favouring factors will enable recommend
69 specific IPIs control safeguard in the New-Bell central prison as well as other prisons in Cameroon.

70 **MATERIAL AND METHODS**

71 **Study type, time and place.** This was a cross-sectional study carried out from December 2014 to
72 May 2015 in the New-Bell Central Prison. The New-Bell Central Prison is located in the New-Bell
73 health area in Douala town and is of the biggest prison among the 10 central prisons in the Cameroon
74 territory. This prison was ranked as a central prison according to a classification made by "The African
75 Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights (ACHPR)" in 2002 [4]. This ACHPPR classification
76 distinguished three main categories of prisons in Cameroon namely central prisons which are located
77 in the capital city of the Regions, principal prisons which are linked to magistrate courts
78 accommodating all categories including pre-trial prisoners, and secondary prisons which only
79 accommodate sentenced prisoners and are spread across the country [4].

80 The New-Bell Central Prison was constructed in the years 50th to host a maximum of 800 prisoners
81 [15,16]. At the time this assessment study was conducted, the New-Bell Central Prison hosted 3002
82 inmates according to census data received from the prison's authority. This population included 12
83 less than 18 years old prisoners named juveniles, 39 female inmates and 2951 adult males. The New-
84 Bell central infrastructures were mostly dilapidated despite some repairs by NOGs.

85 The national observatory for human rights defines a detainee as any person punished by its society's
86 law for misconduct [15]. In the New-Bell Central Prison, males and females inmates were separated,
87 each sex occupying a sector also called quarter. The men's sector was divided into sub-sectors
88 namely minors, eldest persons, previous administrators also named VIP (very important persons),
89 disabled inmates, and an interior main hall for homeless inmates. Inmates in the main hall were the
90 greatest number of prisoners maintained in open air conditions and subjected to any poor living
91 conditions. Access to potable water was limited to five tap water points. Sanitation conditions were
92 made of one toilet for each quarter therefore limiting waste disposals and likely favouring open air
93 defecation. The interior main hall of the New-Bell Central Prison was usually flooded after heavy
94 rains. The New-Bell Central Prison had a health centre with a pharmacy. However, heavy suffering
95 detainees were transferred to reference hospitals in case of necessity [16].

96 Douala town itself is the economic capital of Cameroon and is located close to the Atlantic Ocean in
97 the gulf of Guinea. Douala has a equatorial climate with four seasons including a greater dry season
98 from November to March, a small rainy season which extend from March to June, a small dry season
99 from June to August and a greater rainy season which extends from August to November. Mean
100 annual ambient temperature is 26°C.

101 **Ethics.** Prior to starting the study, an ethical clearance, a research authorization and institutional
102 authorization were secured from the Douala University ethical review board, the Littoral Regional
103 Delegation of Public Health and the Manager of the New-Bell Central Prison respectively. A meeting
104 was then held with the medical staff of the prison, prisoners guards, the leaders of each prison's
105 quarter and the study investigators during which the research investigator presented and explained
106 the study aim and protocol. A recruitment calendar was arranged together with the medical staff of the
107 prison and prisoners guards. Leaders of the prison's headquarters were charged to explain the aim of
108 the research since it was risky for investigators to face inmates for such matter. After inmates had the
109 study information, investigators were therefore allowed to face them for data collection. During each
110 data collection visit, the research team was accompanied by prison wardens and a member of the
111 prison's medical staff who provided protection and assistance.

112 **Study criteria.** Only volunteered inmates of the New-Bell Central Prison irrespective to gender, age,
113 reason of detention and detention duration who signed the study consent form were included in the
114 study. Visitors, the prison staff, inmates who did not sign the study consent sheet and inmates who
115 could not provide sufficient stool sample were not admitted in the study.

116 **Data collection.** Each volunteer inmate of the New Bell Central Prison who was included in the
117 study had to response to a questionnaire and after provided an adequate stool sample. The
118 questionnaire sought demographic information and hygiene practices. Demographic data sought were
119 age, sex, time spent in the jail (also termed as detention duration) and educational level. Hygiene

120 practices referred to systematic handwashing before eating or after defecation, toilet type used for
121 defecation, drinking water source and walking barefooted practices. A pre-labelled screw cap plastic
122 container was then handed out to each participant and the later was asked to provide a thumb-sized
123 fresh stool sample early in the following day morning. Stool containing containers were collected
124 before 10 am and the fresh faecal samples were readily transferred to the parasitology laboratory of
125 the Faculty of Medicine and Pharmaceutical Sciences within 2 to 4 hours post-collection for laboratory
126 analysis.

127 Each stool sample was investigated in laboratory for possible parasites as fresh mount plus lugol's
128 iodine, thick smear according to Kato method and sediment from centrifuged formalin-ether
129 concentration as described by Cheesbrough [17]. Protozoan cysts were confirmed after adding iodine
130 on fresh mount as well as formalin-ether concentrated sediment. The Kato-Katz technique was used
131 for helminthe eggs counting as number of eggs per gram of stool (epg). *Cryptosporidium* sp oocysts
132 were diagnosed after staining each formalin-ether concentration derived sediment by the modified
133 Ziehl-Neelsen technique. Processed stool samples were appropriately examined under light
134 microscope by experienced technicians and the investigators for the presence of intestinal parasites.
135 Data were analyzed using the software STATA CPRO/SE, the Chi-square test for statistical analysis
136 considering a p-value less than 0.05 as statistically significant.

137

138 RESULTS

139 A total 374 inmates who provided adequate stool sample were included in the study. As shown in
140 table I, 95.5% participants were males, less than 18 years old inmates were the least represented
141 group and inmates aged between 18 to 49 years were the most represented groups.

142 **Intestinal parasites biodiversity recorded in stool samples.** Tables I and II indicated that 9
143 intestinal parasites species were diagnosed during the study. These parasites belonged to protozoa
144 and helminthe. These intestinal parasites belonged to four biological classes namely Amoeba,
145 Flagellates, Nematodes and Trematodes. Protozoa species were diagnosed as cysts and for some
146 species also as trophozoites whereas helminthes parasites were diagnosed only as eggs stage.
147 Protozoa species were *Giardia intestinalis*, *Entamoeba histolytica/dispar*, *Entamoeba coli*, *Chilomastix*
148 *mesnili*, *Blastocystis hominis* and *Cryptosporidium* sp. Helminthe parasites belonged to 3 species
149 namely *Ascaris lumbricoides*, *Trichuris trichiura*, *Schistosoma mansoni*.

150 **Overall IPis prevalence.** As indicated in the tables I and table II, 147 inmates had intestinal
151 parasites in their stool sample owing an overall prevalence of intestinal parasitic infections was
152 39.3%. Prevalence of protozoa and helminthe infections was 24.6% and 16.6% respectively. Mixed
153 infections by helminthes or protozoa as well as by protozoa and helminthes were diagnosed in some
154 inmates stool samples. Co-infections recorded were *E.coli* + *A.lumbricoides*, *G.intestinalis* +
155 *T.trichiura*, *E.histolytica/dispar* + *A.lumbricoides*, *E.histolytica/dispar* + *T.trichuira* and *E.coli* +
156 *S.mansoni*. Prevalence of each of the co-infection was 0.5%.

157 One inmate (0.3%) harboured a co-infection by three parasite species namely *E.coli* + *G.intestinalis* +
158 *A.lumbricoides*.

159 **Prevalence of IPIs according to gender and age groups.** Table I indicated that age and gender did
160 not significantly influenced IPIs among inmates. However, prevalence of intestinal infections was
161 significantly different between males and females inmates, males always bearing higher infection
162 prevalence than females. This trend was identical when considering specific infections except the
163 cases of *G.intestinalis*, *Cryptosporidium sp* and *T.trichiura* infections in which female inmates had
164 higher infection prevalence than males.

165 According to age, inmates aged between 18 years and 49 years always had higher overall prevalence
166 of infection by protozoa as well as helminthes infections than juvenile and older inmates. Also,
167 considering specific infection, inmates aged less than 18 years and those aged over 50 years were
168 frequently less parasitized.

169 **Influence of jailed time in the New-Bell Central prison.** Inmates who spent less than 1 year
170 in the NBCP were the most represented group (56.9%). Those who had spent more than 10 years in
171 the prison were the least represented group (3.5%). Neither overall infection prevalence, nor any
172 specific intestinal parasite infection was significantly influenced by the jailed time in the NBCP ($\chi^2=$
173 1.0; df_2 , $p = 0.05$). Inmates who had spent less than one year in the NBCP had the highest infection
174 prevalence (41.3%) whereas those who spent more than 10 years in the prison had the lowest
175 infection prevalence (7.6%). Overall prevalence of protozoa infections was also highest but not
176 statistically significant in inmates who spent less than one year in the NBCP. Overall helminthe
177 prevalence was highest among inmates who spent between 1 year and 10 year in the NBCP.
178 Considering specific infection, inmates who spent 1 year to 10 years in the NBCP, prevalence of
179 *E.histolytica/dispar* and *G.intestinalis* infection showed highest prevalence of protozoa infections while
180 the highest prevalence of helminthe infections was recorded in *A.lumbricoides* infected inmates.

181 **Influence of education level on IPIs prevalence.** According to school attendance, inmates
182 were either illiterate or attended primary, secondary or higher education level. Inmates with a
183 secondary education level were the most represented group (64.4%). There was no significant
184 influence of educational level on IPIs prevalence ($\chi^2= 2.4$; df_3 , $p= 0.05$). IPIs prevalence was
185 however highest among primary level educated inmates (68.2%) whereas inmates who higher
186 education level had the least IPIs prevalence (3.3%). When addressing specific parasite infection,
187 inmates who attended only primary or secondary school had the higher infection prevalence than the
188 other groups.

189 **Influence of handwashing practices and drinking water source.** According to handwashing
190 practices before eating and after defecation, inmates who declared systematically washing hands
191 before eating and after defecation were the most represented groups (73.5% and 74.6%
192 respectively). As shown in table II, highest overall IPIs prevalence was recorded among inmates who
193 systematically washed hands before eating and those who did not systematically wash hands after
194 defecation. Prevalence in specific infections showed similar trend with highest prevalence of infection
195 by either protozoa or helminthe recorded in inmates who reported not systematically washing hands
196 before eating.

197 According to drinking water source, inmates who participated in the study drank water from tap and/or
198 borehole or exclusively mineral water. Those who drank tap water were the most represented group

199 (97.6%). IPIs were recorded in either inmate group. The highest overall prevalence of IPIs was
200 recorded among inmates who drank water from borehole (44.4%). Also, prevalence of helminthe and
201 protozoa infections was highest in inmates water from borehole (17.5% and 26.9% respectively). All
202 inmates who drank exclusively mineral water were infected by a protozoa or a helminthe parasite.
203 *Entamoeba coli* showed the highest protozoa infection prevalence (29.8%) among inmates who
204 exclusively mineral water; whereas *T.trichiura* and *A.lumbricoides* prevalences were highest but
205 similar prevalence among inmates who drank water from borehole.
206 Participants who reported walking sometimes barefooted represented 13.4% of study sample.
207 *Schistosoma mansoni* was the only percutaneous infecting helminthe found in stool samples.
208 *Schistosoma mansoni* infection occurred in one inmate owing a 0.5%.
209 **Helminthe infection loads.** Mean *A.lumbricoides* and *T.trichiura* parasitic loads were 331 eggs
210 per gram of faeces (epg) each. Parasitic loads among inmates infected by *A.lumbricoides* or
211 *T.trichiura* ranged between 48 epg to 1536 epg of faeces and 48 epg to 552 epg of faeces
212 respectively indicating overall light intensities of infection. Parasitic load for *S. mansoni* ranged
213 between 96 and 384 epg of faeces (mean 240 epg of faeces).

214

215 DISCUSSION

216 This study aimed to establish the biodiversity, prevalence and identify main risk factors of intestinal
217 protozoa and helminthe infections among inmates of the New-Bell central prison in Douala,
218 Cameroon. Intestinal parasites recorded in this study belonged to protozoan and helminthes namely
219 *E.histolytica/dispar*, *E. coli*, *G.intestinalis*, *Chilomastix mesnili*, *Blastocystis hominis*, *Cryptosporidium*
220 sp, *Isospora* sp, *A.lumbricoides*, *T.trichiura* and *S. mansoni*. Among these parasites species
221 identified, some are known highly harmful to human being and others less pathogenic. Also, all the
222 parasites were of the most common species commonly found in stool samples in Cameroon and most
223 African countries in community-based as well as hospital-based studies. Studies among inmates in
224 Keffi and Owerri prisons reported the same protozoa parasites species exception of *Chilomastix*
225 *mesnili* and *Blastocystis hominis* [7,8]. In a previous study focussed on laboratory analysis of stool
226 samples from both HIV positive and HIV negative adult male inmates in Kajang Prison in Malaysia,
227 both study groups harboured *Blastocystis* sp., *Strongyloides stercoralis*, *Entamoeba* spp.,
228 *Cryptosporidium* spp., *Giardia* spp., and *T.trichiura* as the major intestinal parasites using Kato-katz,
229 formaline-ether concentration and Ziehl-Nelsen stained formalin ether-concentrated sediment with
230 no statistical influence of HIV infection status [12]. Concerning helminthe infections, a greater
231 diversity was reported in 2014 in the Jos prison in Nigeria [9] and the Shewa Robit prison in Ethiopia
232 [11] with an additional occurrence of hookworm, *S.stercoralis* and *Taenia* sp. The greater biodiversity
233 reported in the Nigerian and Ethiopian prisons may be due to the fact authors used also specific
234 techniques namely Willis flotation technique, Graham tape test technique. IPIs parasites recorded in
235 the New-Bell prison milieu show more parasites species than community-based [7] and hospital-
236 based [6] studies recorded which did not found *Chilomastix mesnili* and *Blastocystis hominis* in the
237 Douala town in 2013 and 2010 respectively.

238 Beyond the biodiversity, parasites co-infections by two or three intestinal parasites were recorded
239 within the same inmates. Such parasites co-infections though at low prevalence indicated a risk to
240 acquire multiple IPIs in the New-Bell central prison setting. Some of the parasites co-infections found
241 were between known pathogenic parasites like *Entamoeba histolytica/dispar-Giardia intestinalis*,
242 *Entamoeba histolytica/dispar-Ascaris lumbricoides* and *Giardia intestinalis-Ascaris lumbricoides*.
243 Such combination may likely result to frequent complicated morbidity with clinical symptoms. Such
244 intestinal polyparasitic infections were also reported in stool samples from inmates in the Nigerian
245 prison [7], the Ethiopian prison [11] and the Malaysian prison [12].

246 The overall IPIs prevalence in New-Bell central prison was lower than reports from Nigerian prisons
247 namely the Keffi prison in 2006 [7], the Owerri prison [8], as well as the Ouagadougou prison in
248 Burkina-Faso [6] and the Shewa Robit prison in Ethiopia [11] where IPIs prevalence was always over
249 70%. Prevalence of IPIs in the New-Bell central prison was however higher than recent report from
250 inmates in the Kajang prison, Selangor, Malaysia where in 2015 an overall 26.5% IPIs prevalence
251 was reported among inmates [12]. These differences may not be due to laboratory techniques used
252 since the studies undergone in Nigerian prisons, the Burkina-Faso prison and Ethiopia combined
253 fresh mount and formol-ether concentration. Although other techniques were used in the study
254 undergone in the Ouagadougou prison namely Willis and Scotch test anal, these latest techniques
255 had specific goals. Interestingly, IPIs prevalence in the New-Bell prison setting was almost twofold
256 high than overall prevalence previously reported from community-based [13] and hospital-based [14]
257 studies in the Douala city. Such data indicated that inmates in the prison area were likely to acquire
258 IPIs than subjects living outside of the prison or a lack of frequent management of infected inmates or
259 that may be related to poor hygiene living conditions in the prison compared to standard. In fact, as
260 indicated in material and methods section, the majority of the inmates in the New-Bell central prison
261 are poor and homeless with limited access to potable water as well as sanitation. Such living
262 conditions likely favoured poor handwashing practices before eating or after defecation in the prison
263 area and also favoured open air defecation. As the interior main hall of the New-Bell central prison
264 was usually flooded after heavy rains, parasitic infections among prisoners will be aggravated as the
265 floods will spread parasites from any open air defecation.

266 Risk factors which influence on the IPIs prevalence were sometimes controversial among African
267 prisons. Data from this study indicated highest IPIs prevalence in male inmates than females, young
268 inmates and those who spent less than one year in the New-Bell central prison. Data according to
269 gender corroborated trend from recent findings among inmates in Maiduguri prison in 2013 [18] and
270 Jos Prison [9] in Nigeria who reported IPIs only among male inmates but were in accordance with
271 data recorded in 2008 in Owerri prison in Nigeria who reported higher IPIs among female inmates
272 than males [8]. Such lesser IPIs prevalence among female inmates of the New-Bell central prison
273 may be due to better cleaner living environment found by the study investigators in their quarter
274 compared to the open air quarters of most homeless male inmates. However, highest IPIs prevalence
275 and parasites biodiversity recorded among less than 50 years old inmates was in general main trend
276 in all African prisons as indicated in reports from some Nigerian prisons namely Jos, Owerri and Keffi

277 prisons and in Honduras prison [7,8,9,19]. Occurrence of high IPIs prevalence may be due to the fact
278 youngest inmates are mostly financially poor and live predominantly in the open air.

279 This study data also indicated higher IPIs prevalence among inmates who spent less than one year in
280 the prison compared to other groups corroborate reports from data other prisons where newly jailed
281 inmates were all parasitized in the Nigerian Keffi and Maiduguri prisons [7,18]. Such high parasitic
282 infections frequency may either indicate that they were infected before the custody or also be a result
283 of the almost despaired often reported among newly jailed persons who may abandon major hygiene
284 practices regulation.

285 According to education level, data showed an unexpected observation pointing illiterates to be less
286 frequently infected than literates although higher education level has often been considered as a
287 factor of good hygiene practice adherence. We could not find an explanation to such data as data from
288 a community-based investigation in the Douala town one year before found illiterates bearing higher
289 IPIs prevalence compared to literates [13]. Data indicated higher IPIs prevalence among inmates who
290 did not systematically wash hands before eating or after defecation compared to those who
291 systematically washed were relevant therefore calling for improvement of hygiene practices among
292 inmates. Good handwashing practices before eating and after defecation remains the main tool
293 recommended for IPIs prevention in endemic areas [3].

294 Data from this study call for the New-Bell central prison workers to improve drinking water quality from
295 tap and borehole since these two groups were predominant and had the greater number of
296 parasitized inmates. Those who declared drinking exclusively mineral water were also parasitized.

297 Although *Schistosoma mansoni* was recorded in this study, this percutaneous transmitted intestinal
298 parasitic infection seemed not to be transmitted in the prison area where only pocket waterbodies
299 were found in the New-Bell jail area only after rainfall and which dried some hours after the rainfall.
300 Transmission sites of this parasite were therefore not found in the study site. No other percutaneous
301 infection was recorded in this study therefore not corroborating data from stool samples analysis
302 collected from inmates in the Jos Prison in Nigeria where significant *Ancylostoma duodenale*, *S.*
303 *mansoni* and *Strongyloides stercoralis* infections were reported [9].

304 IPIs transmission risk factors included in this study were not the only which could be investigated. In
305 fact, other living practices like eating raw, uncooked or unwashed food as well as person to person
306 transfer through handshake might be regarded as a probable source of intestinal parasitic infections
307 especially protozoan infections among inmates of the New-Bell Central Prison. Also, overcrowding in
308 the prison likely worsen waste disposal also favouring hygiene-related parasitic infections.

309 **Protozoa infections prevalence.** Protozoa infections biodiversity recorded in this study was
310 higher than earlier data reported in other African prisons unlike in Nigerian prisons [7,8,9],
311 Ouagadougou prison [6] and the Ethiopian prison[11]. However pathogenic intestinal protozoa
312 infections were also reported in these African prisons indicating a widespread of such IPIs. Of the
313 protozoa infections identified, *E coli*, *C.mesnili* and *B.hominis* are known non pathogenic whereas the
314 others namely *E.histolytica*, *G.intestinalis* are known pathogenic. Presence of *E.histolytica*
315 trophozoites stages indicated therefore that the carrier inmates were experiencing a patent
316 amoebiasis. *Giardia* sp infections prevalence recorded was higher than data from previous studies in

317 two quarters of Douala town [13]. *Cryptosporidium* sp and *Isospora belli* oocysts recorded in the New-
318 Bell central prison inmate's stool samples have not yet been reported in previous studies in other
319 prisons. These intestinal Sporozoa are always considered as opportunistic in HIV patients indicating
320 that they may likely worsen the morbidity stage in case of HIV infections in these subjects. Prevalence
321 of intestinal protozoa infections was however lower than values reported earlier in the Owerri Nigerian
322 prison [8].

323 **Intestinal helminthes infections prevalence.** Of helminthe species recorded in this study,
324 *Ascaris lumbricoides* infections were the most frequent as in general rule from many epidemiological
325 studies in tropical areas [2]. *Trichuris trichuira* which is always considered as a less pathogenic
326 intestinal helminthe parasite was less prevalent.

327 Overall intestinal helminthes infections prevalence was high than data reported in some African
328 prisons namely Jos prison [9,10] and Ouagadougou prison [6] but was some twofold to threefold
329 lesser than prevalence reported in other Nigerian prisons namely Keffi prison [7] and Owerri prison[8]
330 in 2006 and 2008 respectively. These higher helminthes infections prevalence may have been due to
331 additional specific techniques used by the authors namely the Willis flotation and Graham tape test
332 techniques. Overall intestinal helminthes infection prevalence in the New-Bell central prison was
333 however higher than previous data from community-based and hospital-based studies in Douala main
334 town [13,14] indicating existence of high risk factors in the New-Bell setting. Helminthes infection
335 prevalence in the New-Bell central prison though of light intensity infection need special attention from
336 the prison medical staff for periodic management of intestinal parasitic infection. *Schistosoma*
337 *mansoni* infection recorded in this study could not have any explanation linked to the prison
338 environment since standing waterbodies found in the prison yard resulted from the rain and dry up
339 rapidly before the next day. This *Schistosoma* infection cases were probably out-of-prison infections.

340

341 **CONCLUSION.** Data from this study sorted the vulnerability of the New-Bell central prison inmates
342 to IPIs, the high diversity of parasitic infections among the inmates, and poor living conditions which
343 likely aggravated the intestinal parasites infection process. These data which can be generalized to
344 almost all prisons in Cameroon call for the New-Bell central prison manager and the prisons
345 authorities in the whole country to improve living conditions of inmates such limitation of
346 overcrowding, increase clean water supply and sanitation access which will in turn limit poor hygiene
347 related infections such as IPIs. Also, a control scheme for intestinal parasitic infections through
348 regular administration of antiprotozoa and antihelminthic drugs may be implemented in completion of
349 water and sanitation access.

350

351 REFERENCES

352 1. World Health Organization. Soil-transmitted helminthiases: eliminating soil-transmitted
353 helminthiases as a public health problem in children: progress report 2001-2010 and strategic plan
354 2011-2020 WHO 2011.

355 2. Hotez PJ, Bundy DAP, Beegle K, Brooker S, Drake L et al. Helminth infections: soil-transmitted
356 helminth infections and schistosomiasis. In: Jamison DT, Breman JG, Measham AR, et al., editors.
357 Disease Control Priorities in Developing Countries. 2nd edition. Washington (DC): World Bank; 2006.
358 Chapter 24, pages 467-482.

359 3. World Health Organization 2014. World health statistics 2014.

360 4. The African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights. Prisons in Cameroon: report of the
361 special rapporteur on prisons and conditions of detention in Africa. Report to the Government of the
362 Republic of Cameroon on the visit of the Special Rapporteur on Prisons and Conditions of Detention
363 in Africa from 2 to 15 September 2002. ACHPR/37/OS/11/437 1

364 5. Sarkin J. Prisons in Africa: an evaluation from a human rights perspective. International Journal on
365 Human Rights, 2008, N° 9, São Paulo, December 2008.

366 6. Zida A, Sangare I, Bamba S, Sombie I, Traore LK, Coulibaly S et al. Intestinal parasites in
367 prisoners in Ouagadougou (Burkina Faso). *Medecine et Sante Tropicales* 2014 Nov, 24(4) : 383-387.
368 [in French]

369 7. Amuga G, Usman D, Onwuliri C. Human intestinal parasites among inmates of Keffi prison,
370 Nasarawa State, Nigeria. *Inter Jr of Nat Appl Sces* 2006. Vol. 2(1): 7-11

371 8. Okolie N. Intestinal parasites distribution among inmates of Owerri prison. *The Internet J Parasitic*
372 *Dis* 2008, 4(1). DOI:10.5580/1se 7.

373 9. Mamman A, Reuben C. Intestinal helminthiasis among inmates of Jos prison, Plateau State,
374 Nigeria. *World Journal of Biology and Biological Sciences*, July 2014, 2 (4), pp. 067-071. Available
375 online at <http://wsrjournals.org/journal/wjbbs>

376 10. Ishaleku D, Mamman AS. Co-Infection of Malaria and Helminthes Infection among Prison
377 inmates. *Journal of Microbiology Research and Reviews*. 2014 Jan.Vol. 2(1): 1-5.

378 11. Mamo H. Intestinal parasitic infections among prison inmates and tobacco farm workers in Shewa
379 Robit, north-central Ethiopia. *Plos One*. 2014 Jun 13;9(6)

380 12. Angal L, Mahmud R, Samin S, Yap NJ, Ngui R, Amir A, Ithoi I, Kamarulzaman A, Al Lim Y.
381 Determining intestinal parasitic infections (IPIs) in inmates from Kajang Prison, Selangor, Malaysia for
382 improved prison management. *BMC Infect Dis* 2015 Oct29; 15: 467. Doi: 10.1186/s12879-015-1178-
383 3.

384 13. Kuete T, Yemeli FLS, ESSONO MVOA E, NKOA T, MOYOU SOMO R, SAME EKOBO A.
385 Prevalence and risk factors of intestinal helminth and protozoa Infections in an urban setting of
386 Cameroon: the case of Douala. *American Journal of Epidemiology and Infectious Disease*, vol. 3, no.
387 2 (2015): 36-44. Doi: 10.12691/ajeid-3-2-4.

388 14. Lehman LG, Kouodjip L, Bilong Bilong CF. Diagnostic des parasitoses intestinales à l'aide de la
389 microscopie à fluorescence. *Médecine d'Afrique Noire*. 2012;59(7):377-85.

390 15. Cameroon National Human Rights Observatory. Report on human rights situation: report of the
391 National Human Rights Observatory 2008-2010; P 34 [in French].

392 16. Christian Action for torture abolition (ACAT)-Littoral. Humanisation of detention conditions in
393 Cameroon: Imperative to adopt alternatives penalties to imprisonment. Report on situation in
394 Cameroon prisons, December 2011; p 29. [in French]

395 17. Cheesbrough M. Medical Laboratory Manual for Tropical Countries. 2nd Edition 2000, (11).
396 Cambridge University Press. p.605

397 18. Colman S, Mangoro Z, Isa L. Incidence of intestinal and urinary parasites among prison inmates.
398 Acad J Microbiol Res 2013. 1(1):011-015. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.15413/ajmr.2012.0103>

399 19. Schapiro M, Molina JJ. Intestinal parasitism among the inmates of the Central Penitentiary,
400 Tegucigalpa, Honduras. Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg 1959. 53 (3): 270-277.

401 20. J.J. Windsor, L. MacFarlane, G. Hughes-Thapa, S.K.A. Jones & T.M. Whiteside, « Incidence of
402 *Blastocystis hominis* in faecal samples submitted for routine microbiological analysis » , Vol. 59, Iss.
403 3, 2002, Pages 154-157

404 21. J.Utzinger^a, S.Botero-Kleiven, F.Castelli, P.L.Chiodini, H.Edwards, N.Köhler, M.Gulletta, M.Lebbad^e
405 M.Manser, B.Matthys^e E.K.N'Goran^e E.Tannich^h, P.Vounatsou, H.Marti ; « **Microscopic diagnosis of**
406 **sodium acetate-acetic acid-formalin-fixed stool samples for helminths and intestinal protozoa: a**
407 **comparison among European reference laboratories** "March 2010, Pages 267-273, Volume 16, Issue
408 3,

409 22. RAGAA ISSA, « Non-pathogenic protozoa (review article)" 2014, Vol 6, Suppl 3, 30-40.

410 23. Aleixandre Rodrigo-Navarro, Patricia Rico, Anas Saadeddin, Andres J. Garcia, and Manuel
411 Salmeron-Sanchez, « **Living biointerfaces based on non-pathogenic bacteria to direct cell**
412 **differentiation**" 2014; 4: 5849.

413
414
415
416
417
418
419
420
421

422 Table I. Prevalence of intestinal parasites carriage according to gender, age groups, detention duration and education level

Infection type	Total	GENDER		AGE GROUPS (years)				DETENTION DURATION (years)				EDUCATION LEVEL						
		M	F	< 18	18-30	31- 49	≥ 50	< 1	1-10	>10	P	Illiterate	Primary	Colleg e	High er	P		
Sample size	374	357	17	P	9	150	185	30	P	213	148	13		18	85	241	30	
Overall prevalence	39.3	39.7	29.4	0.46	11.1	42.7	43.8	3.3	0.72	41.3	39.2	7.6	0.7	5.5	68.2	36.1	3.3	0.0
Protozoa	24.6	24.9	17.6	0.61	11.1	26.0	28.1	0	0.64	27.7	22.3	0	0.6	5.5	14.1	32.4	3.3	0.4
Helminthes	16.6	17.1	11.8	0.61	11.1	14.0	21.1	3.3	0.47	15.5	18.9	7.3	0.6	0	22.3	17.4	3.3	0.3
G.intestinalis	7.2	6.7	17.6	0.40	0	7.3	8.6	0	0.47	9.4	4.7	0	0.2	0	3.5	9.9	0	0.3
E. coli	16.6	17.1	5.9	0.96	0	23.3	14.6	0	0.57	4.3	1.1	0.2	0.1	0	8.2	22.8	0	0.0
E. histolytica	14.2	14.8	0	0.22	11.1	18.7	13.0	0	0.92	13.6	16.2	0	0.2	0	9.4	18.7	0.8	0.6
C. mesnili	2.4	2.5	0	0.82	0	2.7	2.7	0	0.79	2.8	2.0	0	0.4	0	0	3.7	0	0.3
B. hominis	2.1	2.2	0	0.82	0	4.0	1.1	0	0.66	2.8	1.3	0	0.6	0	1.1	2.9	0	0.0
Cryptosporidium	4.3	4.2	5.9	0.36	0	4.7	4.9	0	0.8	5.2	3.4	0	0.3	5.5	5.9	3.7	0	0.4
A.lumbricoides	10.4	16.5	0	0.15	0	9.3	12.9	3.3	0.16	9.8	11.5	7.6	0.8	0	14.1	11.2	0	0.7
T.trichiura	5.1	4.8	11.8	0.32	0	7.3	4.3	0	0.82	5.2	6.1	0	0.6	0	7.0	6.2	3.3	0.4
S. mansoni	0.5	0.6	0	0.75	0	0.3	0.2	0	0.96	0.5	0.7	0	0.9	0	1.1	0	0	0.8

423 M: male; F: female; *A.lumbricoides*: *Ascaris lumbricoides* ; *T. trichiura*: *Trichuris trichiura* ; *S. mansoni*: *Schistosoma mansoni*. *E.histolytica*:
424 *Entamoeba histolytica*. *E. coli*: *Entamoeba coli*. *G.intestinalis*: *Giardia intestinalis*. *C. mesnili*: *Chilomastix mesnili*. *B. hominis*: *Blastocystis*
425 *hominis*.

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436 Table II. Prevalence of intestinal parasitic infection according to handwashing practices, sanitation type used, drinking water source

	Overall	Handwashing practices						Sanitation type			Drinking water type*			
		Before eating			After defecation			Modern	Latrine	P	Tap	Borehole	Mineral water	P
		Yes	No	P	Yes	No	P							
Sample size	374	275	99	P	279	95	P	48	326	P	365	63	47	P
Overall prevalence	39.3	40.4	36.4	0.06	36.5	47.4	0.08	25.0	44.5	0.07	33.7	44.4	40.4	0.5
Protozoa	24.6	20.7	35.3	0.07	19.7	38.9	0.06	18.7	25.5	0.08	18.3	26.9	29.8	0.4
Helminthe	16.6	14.9	21.2	0.06	12.9	27.4	0.06	16.7	16.7	0.07	12.9	17.5	19.1	0.3
<i>Giardia intestinalis</i>	7.2	4.4	15.1	0.79	6.4	9.5	0.25	8.3	7.0	0.78	5.2	9.5	6.4	0.6
<i>E. coli</i>	16.6	8.4	39.4	0.42	10.4	34.7	0.02	22.9	15.6	0.12	10.1	19.0	29.8	0.4
<i>E. histolytica</i>	14.2	9.8	41.1	0.14	12.2	20.0	0.77	8.3	15.0	0.87	9.9	17.5	14.9	0.7
<i>Chilomastix mesnili</i>	2.4	1.8	4.0	0.54	2.1	3.1	0.55	2.1	2.4	0.7	1.9	3.2	0	0.8
<i>Blastocystis hominis</i>	2.1	1.1	5.1	0.09	1.8	3.1	0.55	2.1	2.1	0.7	1.4	1.6	4.2	0.8
<i>Cryptosporidium sp</i>	4.3	2.5	9.1	0.4	0.3	10.5	0.04	4.2	4.3	0.8	1.9	11.1	4.2	0.7
<i>A.lumbricoides</i>	10.4	9.1	14.1	0.15	10.7	9.5	0.72	6.2	11.0	0.6	10.1	9.5	4.2	0.2
<i>Trichuris trichiura</i>	5.1	4.0	8.1	0.10	5.7	3.1	0.32	4.2	5.2	0.7	3.6	9.5	2.1	0.4
<i>S.mansoni</i>	0.5	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.5	NA	NA	NA	NA

437 *Some inmates drank water from different sources. NA: not applicable

438