

Prevalence and associated factors of urinary schistosomiasis among basic school children in the Akyemansa District, Ghana

12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21

ABSTRACT

Background: Globally, urinary schistosomiasis has devastating implications on school children. It predisposes them to dysuria, haematuria among others which can negatively influence their academic performance. This study determined the prevalence and associated risk factors of urinary schistosomiasis among basic school children in the Akyemansa district.

Materials and Methods: A cross-sectional study design using multi-stage sampling was used to enroll 504 basic school children from six communities of the Akyemansa District into study. Structured questionnaires were used to gather information on risk factors. Urine samples were collected and microscopically examined for the presence of *Schistosoma haematobium* (SH) ova. The observed ova were then quantified as light or heavy.

Results: Prevalence of SH infection among school children in Akyemansa District was 10.32% [95% CI: 7.80 -13.31%]. Out of 52 participants who were infected, 69.2% had light infection whilst the rest had heavy infection. Female participants were less likely to be infected with SH than males [OR=0.47; 95% CI: 0.23-0.97], children who do not stay by the river/stream were also less likely to be infected with SH compared to those who lived near waterbodies [OR=0.35; 95% CI: 0.17-0.72]. Additionally, participants who did not play around water bodies were also less likely to be infected with SH compared to those who did [OR=0.17; 95% CI= 0.04-0.71; p=0.015]. However, inhabitants of Kotokuom were more likely to be infected compared to those in Pawuda [OR=8.54; 95% CI: 1.91-38.27; p=0.005]

Conclusion: The prevalence of urinary schistosomiasis among basic school children in the Akyemansa district was found to be 10.32% [95% CI: 7.80 -13.31%]. Gender, staying around river/ stream, playing at river/ stream and habitation of participants were significantly associated with the prevalence of *Schistosoma haematobium* infection. The study therefore recommends that periodic drug administration and a comprehensive intervention strategy should be designed and implemented to reduce schistosomiasis prevalence.

Keywords: Urinary Schistosomiasis, School Children, Akyemansa District.

1. INTRODUCTION

Schistosomiasis has been shortlisted among the world's major public health challenges with marked incidence in about 77 developing countries in the tropics and subtropics (Bruun & Aagaard-Hansen, 2008; Thétiot-Laurent, J., Robert, & Meunier, 2013). It has been put on

22 record that about 249 million people are infected globally with an alarming 779 million people
23 at risk (Thétiot-Laurent, J., Robert, & Meunier, 2013).

24 Human schistosomiasis is a parasitic infection caused by various species of *Schistosoma*,
25 namely, *Schistosoma haematobium* (*S. haematobium*), *S. mansoni*, *S. japonicum*, *S.*
26 *mekongi*, and *S. intercalatum* (Gryseels, Polman, Clerinx, & Kestens, 2006). In 2015, a
27 report by the Centre for disease Control (CDC) revealed that about 224 million malignant
28 effects of schistosomiasis are seen annually in sub-Saharan Africa with an estimated
29 280,000 deaths, largely among rural inhabitants. A study by van der Werf, et al., (2003)
30 depicted *S. haematobium* infection as the cause of 70 million cases of hematuria, 32 million
31 cases of dysuria, 18 million cases of bladder-wall pathology and 10 million cases of major
32 hydronephrosis in sub-Saharan Africa of which Ghana is no exception. The infection which is
33 crucial among children has been linked with complications such as nutritional deficiencies,
34 growth retardation, cognitive function impairment, decreasing physical activity, school
35 performance, and work capacity and productivity (Stephenson, 1993).

36 Urinary schistosomiasis is endemic in Ghana with widespread distribution across the country
37 causing considerable morbidities. Its transmission is by fresh water snail (host) that belongs
38 to the genus *Bulinus* and water contacts through human activities. Children are at greater
39 risk of the infection and this is attributed to their love to play with water most of the time.
40 Reports from studies conducted by Aryeetey et al., (2000), have depicted a range between
41 54.8 and 60.0% urinary schistosomiasis prevalence in southern Ghana, with increasing
42 infection rates with age and a peak in the 10-19year category, and decreasing rate with
43 increasing age. These figures reflect the need to monitor and control the rate at which
44 children get infected with urinary schistosomiasis.

45 In ensuring appropriate interventions against schistosomiasis, information on the distribution
46 and associated risk factors of the disease in different transmission settings remains a
47 prerequisite. Furthermore, extensive mapping programme is required to facilitate scaling-up
48 of the much needed preventive chemotherapy intervention in rural communities. This study
49 therefore determined the prevalence and associated risk factors of *S. haematobium* infection
50 among basic school children in the Akyemansa district, Eastern region, Ghana.

51

52 **2. MATERIAL AND METHODS**

53

54 **2.1 Study Area**

55 This study was conducted in six communities in the Akyemansa district. The district is
56 located in the Eastern Region of Ghana and consists of 96 communities with a total
57 population of 97,374. It covers a surface area of 613 kilometers square (Population and
58 Housing Census, 2010). The District is predominantly rural with few urban settlements.
59 Preliminary surveillance showed that the district has two (2) senior high schools, fifty nine
60 (59) Junior High Schools and eighty six (86) primary schools. Most of the inhabitants in this
61 district are farmers who cultivate cash crops like cocoa, cola, oil palm among other. The
62 district is drained by several rivers and streams and among them are the two great historical
63 rivers, the Birim and Pra tributaries. Access to safe drinking water is a major challenge, with
64 the exception of Ayirebi Township that has pipe borne water as source of drinking water and
65 some few communities that have boreholes. Majority of the population therefore depend
66 mainly on wells, streams and rivers for their source of water for drinking and household
67 activities. As illustrated in Figure 1 is a map of Akyemansa district.

68

69

70
71
72
73
74
75
76
77
78
79
80
81
82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
90
91
92
93
94
95



Source: Ghana Statistical Service, GIS

Figure 1: District Map of Akyemansa

96

97 2.2 Sample size calculation

98 Cochran's sample size formulae was used in calculating for the total participants to be
99 enrolled into the study. Using a urinary schistosomiasis prevalence of 51.7% reported in a
100 similar study among children in Mozambique by Augusto et al., (2009), bearing in mind a 5%
101 margin error, 95% confidence interval and 30% attrition, a sum of 499 sample size was
102 attained. The sample size for the study was calculated as shown below;

$$N = \frac{Z^2 P(1 - P)}{D^2}$$

103 Where;

104 N represents estimated sample size

105 Z represents constant for 95% confidence interval given as 1.96

106 P represents prevalence of urinary schistosomiasis of 51.7%

107 D represents the percentage margin of error taken as 5%

$$N = \frac{1.96^2 * 0.517 * 0.483}{0.05^2}$$

108 N = 384

109 N = $\frac{30}{100} * 384$

110 N = 499

111

112 However, extra 5 participants were still interested in the study, this made an overall of 504
113 basic children to be recruited into the study.

114 2.3 Study Design/ Eligibility Criteria

115 A cross-sectional study was conducted in the Akyemansa district in January, 2014. The
116 study began by grouping the communities into six strata based on their geographical location
117 with one community randomly selected from each stratum. These communities were
118 Pawudu, Adubiase, Adjobue, Abenase, Nyamebekyere and Kotokuom. A total of five
119 hundred and four (504) basic school children were recruited from the six communities within
120 the Akyemansa district. The study included all children who attended the local basic school
121 of the selected communities and within the age range of seven (7) to eighteen (18) years.
122 Basic school children on any anti-parasitic agents for at most one week prior to the day of
123 sampling were however excluded from the study. All children who satisfied the above
124 inclusion criteria were recruited into the study. Structured questionnaire was then
125 administered to obtain information on participants' socio-demographic characteristics,
126 predisposing factors and knowledge on urinary schistosomiasis.

127

128 2.4 Sample collection and processing

129 2.4.1 Urine specimen collection

130 Each participant was given a labeled sterile urine container to collect random urine sample.
131 The participants were directed to empty their bladder completely into the container after
132 some minimal exercise. The samples were received the same day between 10:00 am and
133 2:00 pm. The urine samples were then assembled, kept in cold boxes with ice packs and
134 transported to the laboratory attached to the Ayirebi Health Centre for immediate
135 parasitological investigation.

136 2.4.2 Sample analysis

137 2.4.2.1 Microscopy

138 10ml of each urine sample was measured with a graduated measuring cylinder into a test
139 tube and centrifuged at 3000rpm for 5 minutes to obtain the sediment and the supernatant.
140 The supernatant was poured away and the sediment was re-suspended. A drop of the re-
141 suspended sediment was then placed on a clean glass slide, cover slipped and examined
142 using x10 and later x40 objective lenses of light microscope (Olympus American
143 Clinical/Education CX® light microscope) to detect the presence or absence of *Schistosoma*
144 *haematobium* egg.

145 2.4.2.2 Egg counting

146 Egg count was performed on each urine sample containing *Schistosoma haematobium* ova
147 to rank the intensity of infection. Urinary schistosomiasis infection was categorized as light or
148 heavy depending on the number of *Schistosoma haematobium* ova per 10ml of urine. Light
149 infection represented less than fifty (50) *Schistosoma haematobium* ova per 10ml of urine
150 whilst heavy infection meant more than fifty (50) *Schistosoma haematobium* ova per 10ml of
151 urine.

152 2.5 Statistical analysis

153 Data collected was cleaned and entered into Microsoft excel 2010 and analyzed using SPSS
 154 version 22.0. Descriptive statistics was then used to calculate the frequencies and
 155 proportions of study participants with respect to various characteristics. The magnitude of
 156 association between urinary schistosomiasis and potential risk factors was then assessed
 157 using logistic regression and described in terms of odds ratio (OR) at 95% confidence
 158 interval with p-value <0.05 considered as statistically significant.

159

160 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

161

162 3.1 RESULTS

163

164 **Table 1** below shows the general characteristics of the study population. A total of 504
 165 participants comprising 343 (68.1%) males and 161 (31.9%) females were included in the
 166 study. Majority, 264 (52.4%) of the respondents were aged 11-14 years. Among the
 167 respondents, 321 (63.7%) indicated that borehole was their source of drinking water. Most
 168 311 (61.7%) of the respondents stayed by a river/stream. Out of the 504 respondents
 169 interviewed, 416 (82.5%) played with a water body where they lived and 495 (98.2%) swam
 170 in the waterbody (river/stream). Majority 476 (94.4%) indicated that they do not urinate in the
 171 river/stream. Also, 343 (68.1%) indicated that they were knowledgeable on SH infection. Out
 172 of the 504 respondents, 141 (28%) had ever suffered from SH infection.

173 **Table 1: General Characteristics of Study Population**

Variable	Male (n = 343)	Female (n = 161)	Total (n = 504)
Age range			
7-10	117(60.9)	75(39.1)	192(38.1)
11-14	197(74.6)	67(25.4)	264(52.4)
15-18	29(60.4)	19(39.6)	48(9.5)
Source of Drinking Water			
Pipe Borne Water	1(33.3)	2(66.7)	3(0.6)
Well	48(55.8)	38(44.2)	86(17.1)
River/Stream	64(68.1)	30(31.9)	94(18.7)
Borehole	230(71.7)	91(28.3)	321(63.7)
Staying around River/Stream			
Yes	208(66.9))	103(33.1)	311(61.7)
No	135(70.0)	58(30.0)	193(38.3)
Playing at River/Stream Bank			
Yes	297(71.4)	119(28.6)	416(82.5)
No	46(52.3)	42(47.7)	88(17.5)
Swimming in River/Stream			
Yes	339(68.5)	156(31.5)	495(98.2)
No	4(44.4)	5(55.6)	9(1.8)

Urinating in River/Stream

Yes	19(67.9)	9(32.1)	28(5.6)
No	324(68.1)	152(31.9)	476(94.4)

Knowledge of Schistosomiasis

Yes	253(73.8)	90(26.2)	343(68.1)
No	90(55.9)	71(44.1)	161(31.9)

Ever Suffered Schistosomiasis

Yes	126(89.4)	15(10.6)	141(28.0)
No	217(59.8)	146(40.2)	363(72.0)

174

175 **Table 2** shows the prevalence of urinary schistosomiasis stratified by demographic data. Out
 176 of the 504 participants, 52 representing 10.3% tested positive for urinary schistosomiasis. A
 177 higher prevalence (12.2%) of SH was found among males. Those who used river/stream as
 178 their major source of drinking water had a highest prevalence (11.7%) while those who
 179 drank pipe borne water had no prevalence. A higher prevalence, (13.5), (12.0%), (10.5%)
 180 and (10.7%) of SH was found among those stayed in river/stream, played in river/stream,
 181 swam in river/stream and did not urinate in river/stream respectively. The highest prevalence
 182 (26.3%) of SH was recorded in Kotokoum while no prevalence was found among
 183 inhabitants of Adubiase. A greater prevalence, (11.4%) was also found among participants
 184 who had knowledge of schistosomiasis. Gender, staying around river/ stream, playing at
 185 river/stream and inhabitant of school children were significantly associated with the
 186 prevalence of *Schistosoma haematobium* infection. Females had 53% reduced odds of SH
 187 infections compared to their male counterparts [OR=0.47; 95% CI= 0.23-0.97; p=0.042].
 188 Those who did not stay around water bodies had 65% reduced odds of SH infections
 189 compared to those who did [OR=0.35; 95% CI= 0.17-0.72; p=0.004]. Furthermore, those
 190 who did not play around water bodies had 83% reduced odds of SH infections compared to
 191 those who did [OR=0.17; 95% CI= 0.04-0.71; p=0.015]. Participants who lived in Kotokoum
 192 had 8.54 times increased odds of SH infections compared to those in Pawudu [OR=8.54;
 193 95% CI= 1.91-38.27; p=0.005].

194

195 **Table 2: Prevalence of SH Infection Stratified by Demographic Data**

Variable	Positive (n = 52)	Total (n = 504)	OR (95% CI)	p-value
Age range				
7-10	17(8.9)	192(38.1)	1	
11-14	32(12.1)	264(52.4)	1.42 (0.76 – 2.64)	0.268
15-18	3(6.2)	48(9.5)	0.68 (0.19 – 2.44)	0.561
Gender				
Male	42(12.2)	343(68.1)	1	

Female	10(6.2)	161(31.9)	0.47 (0.23 – 0.97)	0.042
Source of Drinking Water				
Pipe Borne Water	0(0.0)	3(0.6)	1	
Well	8(9.3)	86(17.1)	0.31 (0.03 – 3.32)	0.331
River/Stream	11(11.7)	94(18.7)	0.40 (0.04 – 4.16)	0.442
Borehole	33(10.3)	321(63.7)	0.34 (0.03 – 3.40)	0.361
Staying around River/Stream				
Yes	42(13.5)	311(61.7)	1	
No	10(5.2)	193(38.3)	0.35 (0.17 – 0.72)	0.004
Playing at River/Stream Bank				
Yes	50(12.0)	416(82.5)	1	
No	2(2.3)	88(17.5)	0.17 (0.04 – 0.71)	0.015
Swimming in River/Stream				
Yes	52(10.5)	495(98.2)	1	
No	0(0.0)	9(1.8)	0.94 (0.12 – 7.62)	0.959
Urinating in River/Stream				
Yes	1(3.6)	28(5.6)	1	
No	51(10.7)	476(94.4)	3.24 (0.43 – 24.35)	0.253
Knowledge of Schistosomiasis				
Yes	39(11.4)	343(68.1)	1	
No	13(8.1)	161(31.9)	0.68 (0.35 – 1.32)	0.259
Communities				
Pawudu	2 (4.0)	50 (9.92)	1	
Aubiase	0 (0.0)	50 (9.9)	0.48 (0.04 – 5.47)	0.554
Adjobue	7 (5.6)	126 (25.0)	1.41 (0.28 – 7.04)	0.674
Abenase	13 (9.8)	133 (25.0)	2.60 (0.57 – 11.96)	0.220
Nyamebekyere	9 (13.9)	65 (12.90)	3.86 (0.79 – 18.72)	0.094
Kotokuom	21 (26.3)	80 (15.87)	8.54 (1.91 – 38.27)	0.005

197 **Table 3** shows the intensity of SH infection stratified by Demographic data. In relation to the
 198 52 (10.3%) participants who tested positive for SH, 36 (69.2%) had light infection and 16
 199 (30.8%) had heavy infection. A higher prevalence, (33.3%) and (37.5%) of heavy infection
 200 was found among males and 11-14 year old participants respectively whilst there was no
 201 prevalence of heavy infection among 15-18 year olds. A greater prevalence, (33.3%),
 202 (35.7%), (32,0%), (30.8%) and (31.4%) of heavy intensity SH was found among used
 203 borehole as source of drinking water, stayed around river/stream, played in river/stream,
 204 swam in river/stream and did not urinate in river/stream respectively. The topmost
 205 prevalence (42.9%) of heavy intensity SH was recorded in Adjobue while no prevalence
 206 was found among inhabitants of Pawuda. A greater prevalence, (38.5%) of heavy intensity
 207 SH was found among participants who had knowledge of schistosomiasis while a higher
 208 prevalence (43.3%) was also found among those who had suffered from the infection before.

209 **Table 3: Intensity of SH Infection Stratified by Demographic Data**

Variable	Light (n = 36)	Heavy (n = 16)	Total (n = 52)
Age range			
7-10	13(76.5)	4(23.5)	17(32.7)
11-14	20(62.5)	12(37.5)	32(61.5)
15-18	3(100.0)	0(0.0)	3(5.8)
Gender			
Male	28(66.7)	14(33.3)	42(80.8)
Female	8(80.0)	2(20.0)	10(19.2)
Source of Drinking Water			
Well	6(75.0)	2(25.0)	8(15.4)
River/Stream	8(72.7)	3(27.3)	11(21.2)
Borehole	22(66.7)	11(33.3)	33(63.5)
Staying around River/Stream			
Yes	27(64.3)	15(35.7)	42(80.8)
No	9(90.0)	1(10.0)	10(19.2)
Playing at River/Stream Bank			
Yes	34(68.0)	16(32.0)	50(96.2)
No	2(100.0)	0(0.0)	2(3.8)
Swimming in River/Stream			
Yes	36(69.2)	16(30.8)	52(100.0)
No	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	0(0.0)

Urinating in River/Stream

Yes	1(100.0)	0(0.0)	1(1.9)
No	35(68.6)	16(31.4)	51(52.6)

Knowledge of Schistosomiasis

Yes	24(61.5)	15(38.5)	39(75.0)
No	12(92.3)	1(7.7)	13(25.0)

Ever Suffered Schistosomiasis

Yes	17(56.7)	13(43.3)	30(57.7)
No	19(86.4)	3(13.6)	22(42.3)

Communities

Pawudu	2 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (3.8)
Adubiase	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Adjobue	4 (57.1)	3 (42.9)	7(13.5)
Abenase	10 (76.9)	3 (23.1)	13 (25.0)
Nyamebekyere	7 (77.8)	2 (22.2)	9 (17.3)
Kotokuom	13 (61.9)	8 (38.1)	21 (40.4)

210

211

212 3.2 DISCUSSION

213 The overall prevalence of urinary schistosomiasis was found to be 10.32% [95% CI: 7.80 -
214 13.31%]. This result is similar to a prevalence of 10.5% reported in Nigeria (Bishop, & Akoh,
215 2018) and 8.6% reported in Central Sudan (Ahmed, Abbas, Mansour, Gasim, & Adam,
216 2012). On the contrary, our finding was lower than a prevalence of 95% reported in Bunuso
217 in rural Ghana (Ayeh-Kumi et al., 2013) and 51.7% reported in Mozambique (Augusto et al.,
218 2009). The inconsistency in the above prevalence rates can be attributed to differences in
219 study periods, sample sizes, participants recruited for the study and geographical location.

220

221 Additionally, the present study found a statistically significant association between gender
222 and the prevalence of *Schistosoma haematobium* infection ($p=0.042$). Further, the
223 prevalence of SH infection and the intensity of heavy SH infection were higher in males than
224 in females. This observation is consistent with that of Banwat et al., (2012) in Langai plateau,
225 Nigeria. Similarly, the high prevalence of heavy SH infection common among males than
226 females in our study is similar to the observation made by Nkengazong, Nijioku, &
227 Asonganyi, (2013), in South-West Cameroon. Water contact activities such as swimming
228 and playing in water bodies could be a possible cause of the variation in the prevalence of
229 SH infection and the intensity of SH infection among males and females. In the transmission
230 of urinary schistosomiasis, the risk of infection varies directly with frequency of contact with

231 contaminated water (Jordan & Webbe, 1999). Secondary to the frequency of contact, the
232 time of the day, duration of exposure and the area of the skin exposed also account for the
233 risk of infection (Jordan and Webbe, 1999). Generally, more males often engage in
234 swimming than females which leads to the higher prevalence of SH infection in males.
235 Females mostly fetch water from the rivers and streams for washing and cooking at home.
236 Hence, the females have less contact to water than males and this accounted for the low
237 prevalence of SH infection in females. As proposed by Remoue *et al.*, (2001), females have
238 stronger immune response to schistosomiasis infection than males because the females are
239 known to produce more specific IgA, TGF- β and Interleukin-10 (IL-10) to the infection.
240 Hence, there is higher intensity of heavy infection in males than in females.

241
242 In relation to the 52 positive SH ova cases, 16 (30.8%) were heavy SH infections and 36
243 (69.2%) were light infections. Hence, light infection was more prevalent than heavy infection.
244 The higher prevalence of light infection is in conformity with an earlier study conducted which
245 investigated the prevalence of urinary schistosomiasis among Nigerien school children
246 (Tohon, et al., 2008). The low prevalence of heavy infection is important because the
247 severity of morbidity caused by urinary schistosomiasis is directly related to the intensity of
248 infection. Therefore, the heavy infection causes more severe morbidity and the light infection
249 causes less severe morbidity (King and Dangerfield-Cha, 2008).

250
251 The age group 11-14 years had the highest prevalence of SH infection followed by 7-10
252 years and 15-18 years. The intensity of heavy infection was highest among the age group
253 11-14 years whilst the intensity of light SH infection was predominantly high among the age
254 group 15-18. The findings in our study in relation to the prevalence and intensity of SH
255 infection among the age groups of the participants is in keeping with studies conducted
256 among basic school children in Kigogo administrative ward of the Kinondoni district of Dare-
257 es-Salam (Ndyomygyenyi *et al.*, 2001) and two peri-urban villages in the South- Western
258 state of Osun, Nigeria (Ugbomoiko *et al.*, 2010) where the participants aged 10-14 years had
259 the highest prevalence and intensities of infection than those in the younger or older age
260 groups studied. These findings, may be attributed to the swimming or playing behavior of
261 participants aged 11-14 years in infested river or stream, resulting in the high urinary
262 schistosomiasis infections recorded among these subjects. Also, lower immunity at age 11-
263 14 years may be another contributing factor to their susceptibility. The prevalence of
264 infection among the age group 15-18 years could have resulted from prolong exposure to
265 infested water bodies.

266
267 The study also found a significant statistical association between staying around river or
268 stream, playing at river or stream bank and SH ova with the communities in which the study
269 was carried out. The prevalence of SH ova or urinary schistosomiasis was 26.3% in
270 Kotokuom, 13.8% in Nyamebikyere, 9.8% in Abenase, 5.6% in Adjobue and 4% in Pawudu.
271 No participant from Adubiase tested positive to SH ova. It was also observed that all the
272 communities with SH infections had water bodies in or closer to them. These findings are in
273 conformity with another study conducted in the Ga district of the Greater Accra region of
274 Ghana by Aboagye and Edoh (2009), which revealed a high prevalence rate of SH infection
275 in two communities in the district; Mahem (58%) which is closer to the Weija dam than
276 Galilea (49%). Additionally, the present study is in agreement with a study carried out in
277 Kumasi in the Ashanti region of Ghana. The prevalence of urinary schistosomiasis in Kumasi
278 South hospital (surrounded by Atonsu, Gyinyase and Ahinsan communities) and Animwa
279 Medical Centre (surrounded by Boadi, Ayeduase, Emena, Appiadu and Kokoben
280 communities) revealed prevalence of 40.2% and 4.5% respectively (Tay, Amankwa, &
281 Gbedema, 2011). The variations in the prevalence rates within the communities could be
282 due to differences in the number of freshwater bodies infested with the snail intermediate
283 host (*Bulinus* species) of the parasite as well as the behavioural patterns of the communities

284 (Tay, Amankwa, & Gbedema, 2011). The high prevalence of urinary schistosomiasis in
285 Kotokuom and Nyamebekyere may be due to unsanitary conditions, unavailability of clean
286 household water, proximity of the town to infested water bodies, ignorance of the knowledge
287 of schistosomiasis and anthropological activities such as swimming, fishing, fetching and
288 washing in water infested with the snail intermediate hosts of the parasite. Further, the zero
289 prevalence in Adubiase may be attributed to the non-availability of the intermediate water
290 snail of the parasite secondary to good sanitary conditions in the community. Although the
291 Adjobue community is traversed by a river suspected to be infested with the intermediate
292 water snail of the parasite, the annual initiative community outreach programme undertaken
293 by the University of Cape Coast School of Medical Sciences (UCCSMS) to educate
294 inhabitants about diseases of public health interest in rural areas including Adjobue
295 community may have contributed to the low prevalence (5.6%) of urinary schistosomiasis
296 recorded in Adjobue.

297

298 **CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

299

300 The prevalence of urinary schistosomiasis among basic school children in the Akyemansa
301 district was found to be 10.32% [95% CI: 7.80 -13.31%]. Gender, staying around river/
302 stream, playing at river/ stream and inhabitant of participants were significantly associated
303 with the prevalence of *Schistosoma haematobium* infection. Periodic drug administration as
304 well as a comprehensive intervention strategy should be designed and implemented to
305 reduce schistosomiasis prevalence.

306

307 **LIMITATION**

308

309 Real-time PCR assay approach would have been more sensitive in detecting *Schistosoma*
310 *haematobium* ova compared to the light microscopy which was the diagnostic technique
311 employed in the study.

312

313

314 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

315

316 The authors hereby declare that there are no competing interests regarding the publication
317 of this article.

318

319

320 **CONSENT (WHERE EVER APPLICABLE)**

321

322 Written informed consent was obtained from participants before the study took place and
323 these documents are preserved by the authors.

324

325

326 **ETHICAL APPROVAL (WHERE EVER APPLICABLE)**

327

328 Ethical clearance was sought from the management of Ayirebi Health Centre before the
329 study was commenced. In addition, study participants gave informed consent after thorough
330 explanation of the rationale of the study has been given.

331
332
333
334
335
336
337
338
339
340
341
342
343
344
345
346
347
348
349
350
351
352
353
354
355
356
357
358
359
360
361
362
363
364
365
366
367
368
369
370
371
372
373
374
375
376
377
378
379
380
381

REFERENCES

1. Ahmed, A., Abbas, H., Mansour, F., Gasim, G., & Adam, I. (2012). Schistosoma haematobium infections among school children in central Sudan one year after treatment with praziquantel. *Parasite and vectors*, 5, 108.
2. Aryeetey, M. E., Wagatsuma, Y., Yeboah, G., Asante, M., Mensah, G., Nkrumah, F. K., & Kojima, S. (2000). Urinary schistosomiasis in southern Ghana: Prevalence and morbidity assessment in three (defined) rural areas drained by the Densu river. *Parasitol Parasitology International*, 49(2), 155–163. doi:doi:10.1016/s1383-5769(00)00044-1
3. Banwat, M., Ogbonna, C., Daboer, J., Chingle, M., Envuladu, E., Audu, S., & Lar, L. (2012). Prevalence of urinary schistosomiasis in school-aged children in Langai Plateau state: Pre and Post- intervention. *Niger J Med.*, 21(2).
4. Bruun, B., & Aagaard-Hansen, J. (2008). The social context of schistosomiasis and its control. . Geneva: WHO.
5. CDC. (2015, February 12). Retrieved from The burden of schistosomiasis.: Retrieved from CDC: http://www.cdc.gov/globalhealth/ntd/diseases/schisto_burden.html.
6. Gryseels, B., Polman, K., Clerinx, J., & Kestens, L. (2006). *The Lancet*, 368 (no. 9541, 8), pp. 1106–111.
7. Jordan, P., Webbe, G., & Sturrock, R. (1999). *Epidemiology in Human schistosomiasis* . Wallingford, UK: CAB International.
8. King, C., & Dangerfield-Cha, M. (2008). The unacknowledged impact of schistosomiasis. *Chronic Illn*, 4, 65-79.
9. Ndyomugenyi, R., & Minjas, J. (2001). Urinary Schistosomiasis in school children in Dar-es- Salam, Tanzania, and the factors influencing its transmission. *Ann Trop Med Parasitol*, 95(7), 697-706.
10. Nkengazong, L., Njioku, F., & Asonganyi, T. (2013). Two years impact of single Praziquantel treatment on urinary schistosomiasis in the Barombi Kotto Focus, South West Cameroon. *J . Parasitol. Vector Biol.*, 5(6), 83-89.
11. Remoue, F., To Van, D., Schacht, A. M., Picquet, M., Garraud, O., Vercruysse, J., . . . Riveau, G. (2013). Gender-dependent specific immune response during chronic human Schistosomiasis haematobia. *Clin Exp Immunol*, 124, 62-68.
12. Stephenson, L. (1993). The impact of schistosomiasis on human nutrition. *Parasitology*, 107, 107–23.
13. Tay, S. C., Amankwa, R., & Gbedema, S. Y. (2011). Prevalence of Schistosoma Haematobium infection in Ghana: a retrospective case study in Kumasi. *Int J Parasitol Res*, 3(2), 48-52.

- 382 14. Thétiot-Laurent, S., J., B., Robert, A., & Meunier, B. (2013). Schistosomiasis
383 Chemotherapy. *Angew Chem Int Ed Engl*, 52(31), 7936-56. doi:doi:
384 10.1002/anie.201208390
385
- 386 15. Tohon, Z., Mainassara, H., Garba, A., Ibrahim, M. L., Mahamane, A., Bosqué- Oliva, E.,
387 & al., e. (2008). Controlling schistosomiasis: Significant decrease of anaemia prevalence
388 one year after a single dose of Praziquantel in Nigerien School children.
389
- 390 16. Touré, S., Zhang, Y., Bosqué-Oliva, E., Ouedraogo, A., Koukounari, A., Gabrielli, A., &
391 et al. (2008). Two-year impact of single praziquantel treatment on infection in the national
392 control programme on schistosomiasis in Burkina Faso. *Bull World organ*, 86, 780-787.
393
- 394 17. Ugbomoiko, U., Ofoezie, I., Okoye, I., & Heukelbach, J. (2010). Factors associated with
395 urinary schistosomiasis in two peri-urban communities in South- western Nigeria . *Ann Trop*
396 *Med Parasitol.*, 104(5), 409-19.van der Werf, M., de Vlas, S. B., Looman, C., Nagelkerke, N.,
397 & Habbema, J. (2003). Quantification of clinical morbidity associated with schistosome
398 infection in sub-Saharan Africa. *Acta Trop.*, 86(2–3), 125–39.
399
- 400 18. Augusto, G., Magnussen, P., Kristensen, T., Appleton, C., & Vennervald, B. (2009). The
401 influence of transmission season on parasitological cure rates and intensity of infection after
402 praziquantel treatment of *Schistosoma haematobium*-infected School children in
403 Mozambique. *Parasitology*, 136, 1771-1779.
404
- 405 19. *Population and Housing Census*. (2010). Ghana Statistical Service.
406
- 407 20. Bishop, H. G., & Akoh, R. I (2018). Risk factors, symptoms and effects of urinary
408 schistosomiasis on anthropometric indices of school children in Zaria, Kaduna State, Nigeria.
409 *Open Access Journal of Science*,2(1), 61-65.
410
- 411 21. Ayeh-Kumi, P. F., Obeng-Nkrumah, N., Baidoo, D., Teye, J., & Asmah, R. H (2013).
412 High levels of urinary schistosomiasis among children in Bunuso, a rural community in
413 Ghana: an urgent call for increased surveillance and control programs. *J. Parasit Dis*,39 (4),
414 613-623.
415
416