

EPIDEMIOLOGICAL STUDIES OF WATERBORNE DISEASES IN RELATION TO BACTERIOLOGICAL QUALITY OF WATER

Abstract

Aim of the study: Waterborne diseases are global burden with increase in number of cases more especially in rural areas of developing countries. We investigated the epidemiological distribution of waterborne diseases and bacteriological quality of water in Bodinga Sokoto Nigeria.

Research design:

The study used a retrospective design and determined the prevalence of some selected waterborne diseases and sanitary inspection. An experimental design was used for determination of bacterial pollution in some water sources.

Place and duration: The study was conducted at the General Hospital Bodinga and Department of Microbiology Sokoto State University within the period of one year.

Methods: A retrospective data of health records were collected from out-patient register in Bodinga General Hospital, covered a period of three years from January to December (2015 -2017). A number of samples of water were collected from different sources in Bodinga, Danchadi and Takatuku and were analyzed using standard method.

Results: We found the most common waterborne diseases in the area are dysentery, 517(40.7%) typhoid 375(29.5%), gastroenteritis 202(15.9%) and diarrhoea 105(8.3%), while skin infection and cholera account for 36(2.8%) each. We observed that the diseases are widely distributed in rainy season with high occurrence of 732(57.59%) cases than dry season having 539(42.41%) cases. Male are more prone to diseases with 706 cases than female having 565 cases and 25-above years as well as Children below the age of 5 are more vulnerable to diseases with occurrence of 481 and 331 respectively.

Conclusion: This study suggests a possible strong relationship between waterborne diseases and poor water quality which contributed to the spread of diseases in the study area.

Key words: Epidemiological studies; *E. coli*; Typhoid; Gastroenteritis; Skin infections; Borehole, Shallow well; Water; quality; Bodinga

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Water is an important means of sustenance that are needed by all forms of life. Diseases associated with water have mostly occurred as a result of ingestion of water contaminated with a faecal matters.

Globally, at least 2 billion people use a drinking water source contaminated with human or animal faeces [1]. Most of the population in developing countries particularly in rural live in extreme conditions of poverty and poor sanitation services in public places as well as inadequate water supply and poor hygiene including hospitals, health centers and schools [1]. **Statistically, at least 884 million people** do not have access to basic drinking water and almost 159 million people are

42 dependent on rivers and lakes with almost 423 million people taking water from unprotected springs
43 and wells [2].

44
45 Waterborne disease outbreaks are mainly occurred due to technical failures or failure to treat the
46 water properly [3]. Waterborne diseases can be transmitted through faecal oral route and direct
47 contact. Some parasites are capable of penetrating intact skin and cause severe infection such as
48 skin infection. In developed countries, waterborne disease is no longer considered a constant threat
49 [4].

50 In context to developing countries like Nigeria microbial quality of water is a downside due to lack of
51 essential state of art facilities for treatment of water and financial allocations. However access to safe
52 water, particularly to dwellers in rural, settlement and villages in remote areas, is difficult **within a**
53 **brief distance**.

54 In addition, people consuming unfit drinking water become infected with pathogens if a proper
55 measure to eliminate the pollutant in the water is not taken. In this work, we found that most of the
56 people live in rural areas of Bodinga observe open laxation which can result in the contamination of
57 sources as the faecal matters washed away during the rainy season. Lack of knowledge, sanitary
58 healthful facilities, and sensible hygienic practice contribute meaningfully to the spread of waterborne
59 diseases (WBD) within the area.

60 **It has been reported the grazing of an animal nearby water** sources significantly affects the water
61 quality [5][6][7] and may lead to the entry of pathogens into the water bodies. Contaminations of
62 drinking water with pathogens have additionally been reported in several towns in Nigeria [8] [9] [10].

63 The outbreaks of enteric disease due to water have occurred both when public drinking water
64 supplies were contaminated with surface water and when surface waters contaminated with enteric
65 pathogens have been used for the recreational purpose [11]. According to the UN Environment
66 Programme (UNEP), 300 million people in Africa still do not have reasonable access to safe drinking
67 water and nearly 230 million people defecate in the open [12].

68 Drinking water quality can be assessed by detecting indicator organisms which their presence indicate
69 contamination with the biological origin and thus, present potential health impact and risk associated
70 with the consumption of unfit water. *Escherichia coli* is the most reliable indicator organisms of water
71 pollution which are considered as the organisms of choice to indicate recent faecal contamination in
72 drinking water [13] [14] [15] [16].

73 Some strains of *E. coli* are non-pathogenic while other strains are found to be pathogenic which
74 provide a clue on the presences of the enteric pathogen in water [15] but at present, *E. coli* appears to
75 provide the best bacterial indicators of fecal contamination in drinking water [17].

76 The pathogen load in the water body from several contamination sources varies strongly with time,
77 often due to the prevalence and incidence of the disease in the community. Under epidemic
78 conditions, pathogens are excreted from many more human or animal hosts than under endemic
79 conditions. An increased pathogen load, which enters the water source with wastewater discharges or
80 surface runoff, implies an increased risk for waterborne infections [18].

81 **Furthermore, the current study aimed at investigating the epidemiological distribution of**
82 **waterborne diseases in relation to the bacteriological quality of water in Bodinga town. Here, we shed**
83 **a light on bacterial waterborne diseases that are prevalent in the study area viz cholera, typhoid,**
84 **gastroenteritis, dysentery, diarrhoea and skin infection.** Gastroenteritis is an abdominal infection
85 associated with some similar symptoms as diarrhea which has heterogeneous causative agents.
86 These cases had not been reported or documented properly within the study area in spite of studies
87 conducted by [19] in two alternative areas of Sokoto, however, the researchers do not capture

88 Bodinga. The number of cases discovered throughout our preliminary **survey necessitates the**
89 **investigation of the occurrence** of waterborne diseases within the crony villages of Bodinga in order
90 to create awareness and set an alarm to responsible authorities.

91 **2.0 METHODOLOGY**

92 **2.1 Study Area**

93 The area of study is Bodinga Local government in Sokoto State, Nigeria. Its headquarters are in the
94 town of Bodinga. It has an area of 564 km² and a population of 175,406 at the 2006 census. The
95 postal code of the area is 852. Bodinga town is 11 km away from Sokoto town and it has limited
96 rainfall from mid-May to October. It is also subjected to Sahara's harmattan from November to March.

97 **2.2 Research Design**

98 The study used a **retrospective design** and determined the prevalence of some selected waterborne
99 diseases and sanitary inspection. An experimental design was used for determination of bacterial
100 pollution in some water sources.

101 **2.3 Determining Prevalence of Water Borne Diseases**

102 The method described by [20] was employed and determined the type and frequency of distribution of
103 waterborne diseases in Bodinga town. Retrospective data of medical records from outpatient record
104 register in Bodinga general hospital for complete three years (36 months) from January to December
105 (2017, 2016 and 2015) were reviewed to identify common waterborne diseases in the study area in
106 respect to the year, month, age, gender and season. About 1271 cases were reviewed.

107 **2.4 Bacteriological analysis of water/Collection of water sample**

108 The samples were collected in the morning from three (3) different villages within the Bodinga local
109 government. The village includes Takatuku, Danchadi, and Bodinga. In each of the mentioned
110 villages, we consider two water sources for samplings, from each villages making a total of six
111 different sources because they are frequently used by the inhabitant of the areas. Additionally, the
112 method described by [7] with some modifications was adopted for collection of water samples. In brief,
113 the water samples for bacteriological analysis were collected in sterile bottles from protected
114 boreholes and shallow wells under sterile condition using labeled sterile glass bottles (250ml) and
115 transported to the microbiology laboratory of Sokoto State University in a cool box at 4°C for analysis.

116 At water sources, the cap of a 250 ml sterile bottle was removed aseptically. The bottles were filled
117 from the water outflow pipe at boreholes. At the shallow well the cap of 250 ml sterile bottle was
118 removed and tight with a clean rope, it was inserted inside the shallow well filled with water and pulled
119 out. About one inch of space was left at the top of full bottles. The cap was replaced aseptically. The
120 procedure was repeated throughout the period of sample collection. The bacteriological indicator of
121 water quality analyzed was *Escherichia coli* using multiple tube fermentation techniques and
122 estimation through most probable number (MPN) using the standard method described by [21] [22].

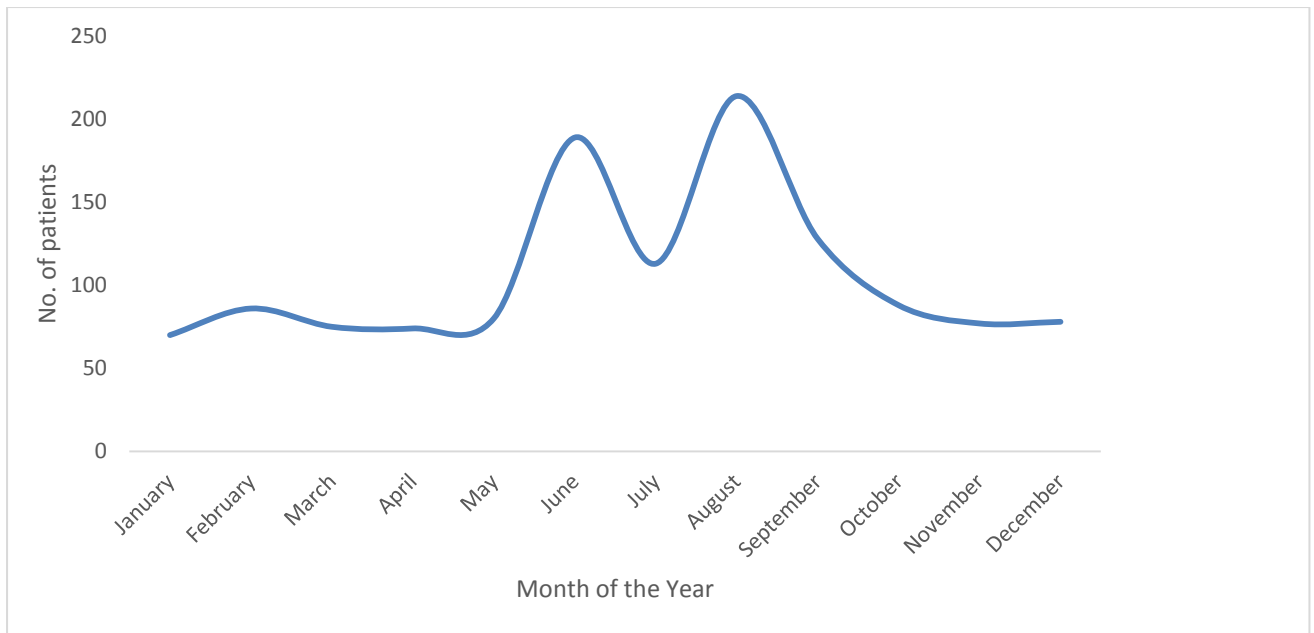
123 **2.5 Data Analysis**

124 The data generated during the course of study were subjected to analysis using SPSS (version 20).
125 And Microsoft excel 2010. Descriptive statistics using mean and standard error were used for the
126 analysis of data. A simple graph and bar charts were also used for the presentation of data
127 concerning the prevalence and distribution of waterborne diseases. Inferential statistics of t-test and
128 analysis of variance were used to test significant differences between the variables

129 **3.0 RESULTS**

130 **3.1 Prevalence and distribution of waterborne diseases in Bodinga Local government**

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132 The prevalence and distribution of waterborne diseases in Bodinga town was conducted by reviewing
133 the out patients records from General Hospital Bodinga which covered a period of 2015 to 2017.
134 About 1271 cases of waterborne diseases were investigated. The results for distributions of
135 waterborne diseases in Bodinga town in general are shown in (figure 1) and details data of are also
136 given in table 1 of supplementary sheet (S2).
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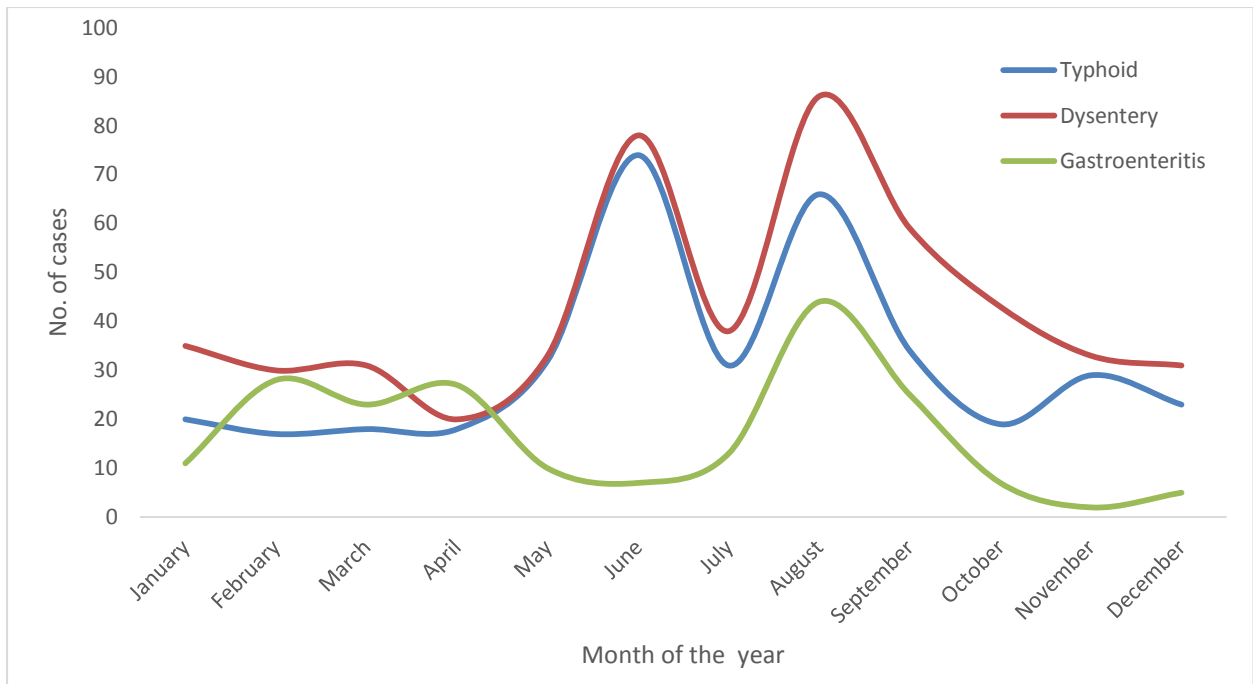
Figure 1: Distributions of waterborne diseases in Bodinga Local government area

141 Figure 1 shows how the diseases are distributed within the different months of the year in Bodinga
142 town. Generally, the month of August has observed with the highest variety of diseases (214) June
143 (189), September (127), and July (113) with the month of January recording the lowest number of
144 cases. The fashion of the diseases is cyclic in nature, with the first cycle moving to the right direction
145 by increasing from January and peaking in June, which falls down in July and the next cycle begins.
146 The second cycle increases from July to October. The average number of the second cycle is 117 ± 52
147 cases which are higher than 98.14 ± 39.40 cases as in the first one. Although an independent t-test
148 shows a significant difference (2.571 at $p = 0.05$), this pattern is extremely vital for planning in the
149 health center in terms of budgeting and allocation of human resources. Even though most of these
150 diseases are preventable, awareness and prevention programs can be planned during January –
151 June as well as July –November window.

152 Dysentery 517(40.7%) typhoid 375(29.5%), and gastroenteritis 202 (15.9%) are the highest most
153 contributors of waterborne diseases in Bodinga local government area. **The distribution of these**
154 **diseases with time are shown in figure 2 below.**

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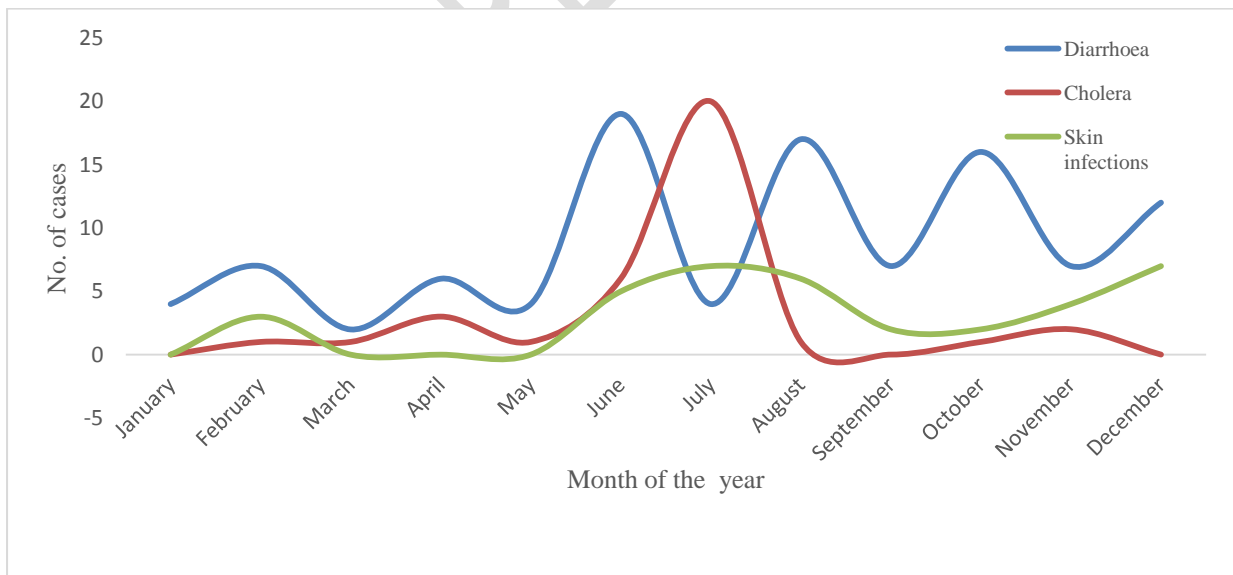
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160 **Figure 2: Distribution of typhoid, dysentery and gastroenteritis in Bodinga Local government**
161 **area**

162 Diarrhoea 105(8.3%), cholera and skin infections 36(2.8%) are most contagious diseases that
163 fortuitously contribute least to the overall number of waterborne diseases in Bodinga local government
164 area. These diseases can affect a number of the population causing inflicting vital impacts within a
165 short time. It is therefore important to understand how these diseases occur within the year. The
166 distributions of diarrhoea, cholera and skin infection with time are shown in figure 3.



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168 **Figure 3: Distribution of Diarrhoea, cholera and Skin infection in Bodinga Local government**
169 **area**

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172 **3.2 Seasonality Distribution of Waterborne diseases**

173 Table 1: Seasonal distribution of water borne diseases

Season	Waterborne diseases						Total
	Typhoid	Dysentery	Diarrhoea	Cholera	Gastroenteritis	Skin infection	
Dry season	157	213	42	8	105	14	539
Wet season	218	304	63	28	97	22	732
Total	375	517	105	36	202	36	1271

174 Seasonal patterns of waterborne diseases event suggests the hypotheses about how transmission of
 175 diseases occurs. Water serves as a vehicle for the transmission of diseases. The results represent
 176 seasonal characteristic pattern and variation in these diseases that might be because of flooding,
 177 washed away of soil and other alternative contaminants into the water sources.
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179 **3.3 Gender classification of WBD**

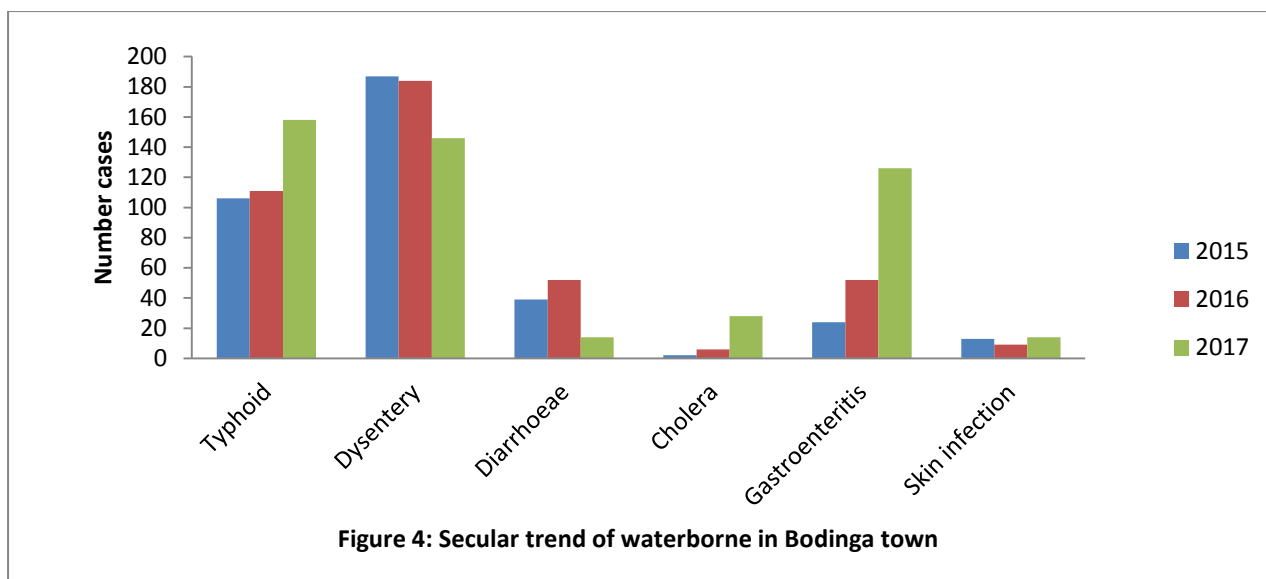
180 The distribution pattern of WBD in respect to gender answered the research question how can
 181 variations of diseases occurred across the gender of the patients. Statistically, an independent t- test
 182 show a significant difference between the gender of the patients and waterborne diseases.
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Table 2: Gender of the patient

	Waterborne diseases						Total
	Typhoid	Dysentery	Diarrhoea	Cholera	Gastroenteritis	Skin infection	
Male	215	290	61	17	106	17	706
Female	160	227	44	19	96	19	565
Total	375	517	105	36	202	36	1271

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 186 **3.4 Secular Trends of WBD**
 187 A secular trend in the occurrence of the diseases indicates that there is a steady increase of diseases
 188 for the long-term in the near future. The year 2017 accounting highest prevalence of some diseases
 189 compared to others. **The possible explanation could be due to increase in population and open**
 190 **defecation within the area** which contaminate water sources during rainfall.

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3.5 Age group distributions of WBD

The results of the prevalence of waterborne diseases according to different age groups showed that, 25-above group has the highest prevalence in each disease with 481 (37.8%), groups followed by 0-4 with 331(26.0%), cases and 10-14 has 152(12.0%), while 5-9, 15-19 have the same prevalence with 99(7.8%) each, and the last group 20-24 has 109 (8.6%), as shown above in Table 3. The level of vulnerability of the patient i.e. Age and specific waterborne disease is also shown in table 3. It is evident that generally in all age groups, dysentery and typhoid were the foremost common disease. The age groups 0-4years and > 25 years were additionally prone to all diseases exception seen in cholera where 0-4 recorded the highest case. Further analyses of mean \pm SE have subsequent values. The results of the different age groups of waterborne diseases disclosed the statistical significant differences between the age groups in table 3

219 Table 3: Age groups classification of waterborne diseases

Age groups	Waterborne diseases						Total	Average ± Std. Error
	Typhoid	Dysentery	Diarrhoea	Cholera	Gastroenteritis	Skin infection		
0-4	73	151	34	14	58	1	331	2.50±.075
5-9	25	40	13	0	15	6	99	2.58±.156
10-14	51	57	13	2	25	4	152	2.30±.122
15-19	28	37	9	7	15	3	99	2.53±.151
20-24	34	41	10	4	19	1	109	2.41±.139
25-above	164	191	26	9	70	21	481	2.36±.070
Total	375	517	105	36	202	36	1271	

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221 **3.6 Bacteriological Analysis of water**

222 The analysis based on the bacteriological quality of water, suggested the level of contamination of the
 223 most reliable sources of drinking water in these communities revealed by the presence of indicator
 224 organism. Thus, their presence in the drinking water generally indicates the presence of pathogenic
 225 microorganisms in water. The data presented in figure 5 is the mean values of routinely samples
 226 analyzed from each sampling points..

227 The numbers of *E.coli* detected in all samples were found outside the limit recommended by WHO
 228 and NCWR. The average number of indicator organisms in boreholes was 54.1 and shallow well was
 229 171.2 across all the three villages. Briefly, the average mean of faecal contamination in Bodinga
 230 borehole was 35.1 and shallow well 160.7, as well as the average highest contamination of boreholes
 231 and wells, were recorded in Takatuku 210.4, 73.2 and least in Danchadi 53.9, 142. The analysis of
 232 variance revealed a significance difference for the concentration of *E.coli* in water (2.477 at p =
 233 0.005).

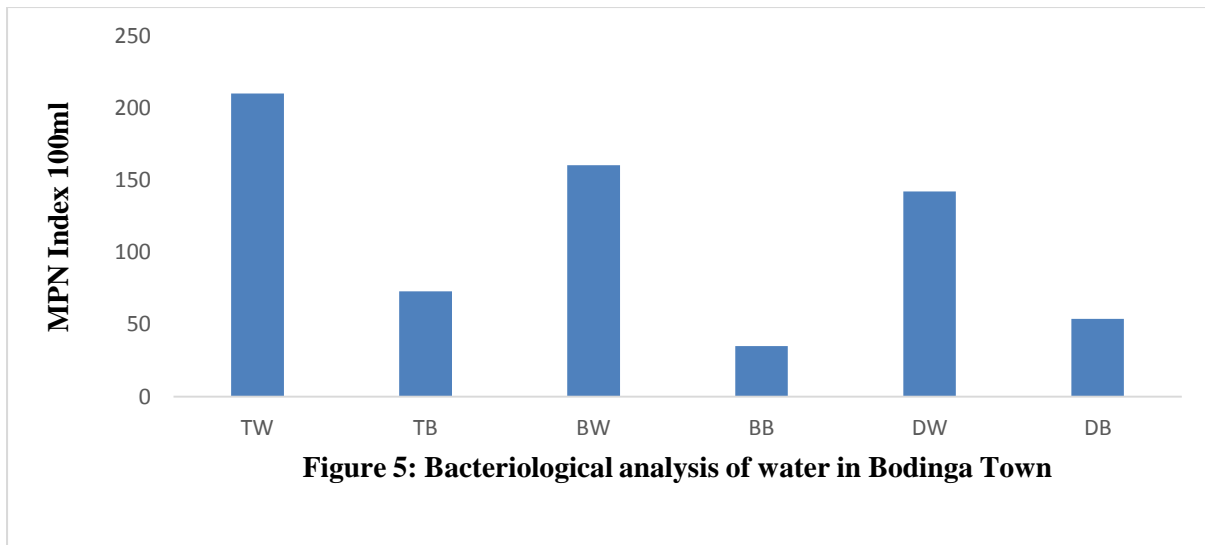


Figure 5: Bacteriological analysis of water in Bodinga Town

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Figure 5: Bacteriological analysis of water in Bodinga Town. All the water samples analyzed were in triplicate for each sampling point. The result is the average of the amount of *E. coli* detected in the different water sources covered by the sampling points and each bar is representing the sampling point (TW = Takatuku well, TB = Takatuku borehole, BB = Bodinga borehole, BW = Bodinga well, DB = Danchadi borehole and DW = Danchadi well).

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243 **4.0 DISCUSSION**

244 Generally, the results of the present study for the distribution and variation of waterborne diseases in
245 Bodinga Local Government indicate that almost all of the waterborne diseases are high in June and
246 August. **Presumably, could be as a result of high intensity of rainfall in these months which**
247 **increases water percolation and runoff that** may be carrying pollutants. Ejaz [23], reported
248 waterborne diseases **were most prevalent during the wet seasons.**

249 **The poor environmental conditions around the drinking water sources contribute** to the high
250 incidence of cases. The findings conjointly indicated the month of August recording the highest
251 quantity of cases followed by June while the months of January and November have the lowest
252 quantity of cases. The month of June and August have a high occurrence of cases **suffering from**
253 **waterborne diseases** within the study area.

254 The most frequent contributors of waterborne diseases in Bodinga local government are dysentery,
255 typhoid, and gastroenteritis. Similarly, the study of [24] indicated typhoid fever, dysentery, cholera,
256 and diarrhoea, are the foremost reportable waterborne disease in Ammassoma, Niger Delta, Nigeria.

257 This is in line with the findings of [25] who found that there is a significant relationship between
258 hygiene and waterborne disease.

259 The patterns for diarrhoea, skin infection and cholera diseases are similar to that in figure 3 showing a
260 dual cyclic pattern. This implies the intervention period suggested earlier still works for interference
261 and management of these diseases. Estimated cases of waterborne diseases are 4.1% of the global
262 burden with almost 1.8 million human deaths annually during which 88% is attributed to unfit water
263 supply, sanitation and poor personal hygiene [2].

264 The results of these studies seem to point out that the highest cases of the waterborne diseases in
265 Bodinga town occur during the wet season e.g. June – October. The results for diarrhoea, cholera
266 and skin infection are not exceptional of this observation with the pattern quite different from others
267 (Figure 3). **These could be due to contamination of water sources. The use of pit latrine by**
268 **most of the community live in Bodinga town is seemingly to be an important factor that faecal**
269 **matters find its way into sources especially groundwater.** Harper [26] reported that runoff is
270 capable of transporting pathogens into water sources, increasing the risk of human exposure and
271 infection.

272 The seasonal event of **WBD** increases over the years as the rate of flooding increases. The rainy
273 season contributes to the spread of WBD in the area due to some factors that increase the risk of
274 diseases that embody agricultural runoff, washing away of fecal materials into open and surface water
275 sources. In our previous study, we reported some factors that increase the rate of diseases in rainy
276 season these includes blocked drains, increase in precipitation, flooding sewer and compromised the
277 system. Curriero [27] reported floods can increase human susceptibility to pathogens due to the
278 spread of contaminants by floodwaters.

279 The high risk of WBD as a result of rainfall is an index of water pollution. Shallow well water is
280 contaminated as a result of sinking faecal matter which is carried by flood during a heavy rainfall [7].
281 Infection with waterborne pathogens has been shown to be higher during the wet season. Thus, the
282 high risk of waterborne diseases during the period of heavy rain is key to higher water pollution. Going
283 by the finding of [28] cholera cases in Ibadan were more common during the rainy season.

284 Distribution of WBD according to age classification is important as a result of most of the health-
285 related events varies with age. We found that 25-above age groups (especially old people) are more
286 susceptible to waterborne diseases, probably, due to weakened immune systems not competent
287 enough to fight against many infectious agents. The group has inadequate awareness and
288 educational background in reference to diseases in relation to water contamination from direct or
289 indirect sources. Crump [29] support the argument, ignorance on waterborne diseases may
290 additionally play an important role in health awareness in a household.

291 Children of 0-5 age group are more vulnerable to some waterborne disease due to the weak immune
292 system. Richard [30] reported a number of factors that vary with age behind association with health
293 events such as susceptibility, the opportunity for exposure, the latency of diseases and physiological
294 response which affect the development of diseases.

295 Gender of the patient is one of the most critical parameters in epidemiological studies and analysis of
296 diseases distribution. We analyzed diseases distribution according to gender specification in which
297 men are at greatest risk of experiencing WBD in Bodinga than women as shown in table (2). Based
298 on our finding, men are prone in almost all diseases with the exception of cholera and skin infection in
299 which women account high cases. This is disagreement with [7] women are more prone to WBD due
300 to their role in water collection, clothes washing and other domestic activities. Men are spending more
301 time in farms which make them at great risk of acquiring the infection as they are exploited surface
302 water for farming activities. An inherent characteristic of people, acquired characteristics, activities
303 and conditions in which they live determine to a large degree who is at risk of becoming more prone
304 to or infected with a particular diseases organisms [30].

305 The most probable number techniques for estimation of bacteria in water showed that there is a
306 greater concentration of *Escherichia coli* in MPN/100ml compared to the standard of WHO and
307 National council on water resources [31]. This means water from these sources are unfit for
308 consumption and therefore, the residence of those areas are at risk of being infected with water
309 pathogens. The high occurrence of waterborne diseases in the town is linked to water contamination
310 that might be attributed due to the proximity of households to water sources. During the course of
311 study, the luxuriant grasses have been observed within the premises of water sources attract the
312 domestic animals to visit the area for grazing, **which in turn leave excretes that could be the likely**

313 **main contaminant for the drinking water available in the study area.** This is more likely to be
314 rampant in the rural areas since they do not have access to central waste disposal systems and
315 effective monitoring is lacking since the study area is remote.

316 **5.0 CONCLUSION**

317 The finding of the current studies suggests a relationship between waterborne diseases and poor
318 water quality which contributed to the spread of diseases as well as potential causes of microbial
319 pollution to evaluate rural drinking water supply projects in Bodinga town, and is possibly due to poor
320 sanitation and hygienic conditions that include contamination of sources and open defecation in the
321 area.

322 The study discovered some common waterborne diseases that communities within the study area are
323 suffering, some of these diseases are contagious causing drastic impact to the human within a short
324 time interval after being contacted with the agent of the disease. Children and male are observed to
325 be more prone to the diseases than their counterpart female and other age categories. A number of
326 factors contributed to spreading of diseases in the area had been mentioned which includes
327 presences of animals, the proximity of households to groundwater sources and agricultural activities
328 which in turn contributed to contamination of waters sources. The data of water quality seemingly
329 suggested the concentration of *Escherichia coli* in **MPN/100ml** is above the average recommended
330 by both national and international standard for thermotolerant fecal coliform bacteria. The maximum
331 fecal contamination was found in shallow well waters and the lowest concentration in boreholes.

332 **COMPETING OF INTEREST**

333 Authors declared that there is no competing of interest exist.

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