

Bacteriological Quality of Water and the Occurrence of Diarrhea in Household in the Work Area of Karya Jaya Public Health Center in Palembang

1st Farida Kumalasari Public Health Faculty Sriwijaya University Palembang, Indonesia 2nd Rico Januar Sitorus *Public Health Faculty Sriwijaya University* Palembang, Indonesia

3rd A. Fickry Faisya Public Health Faculty Sriwijaya University Palembang, Indonesia

Abstract - Globally, there are about 2 billion cases of diarrhea with a mortality rate of 1.5 million per year. The limited access to clean water and the poor personal hygiene in the households are the major causes of diarrheal disease through water transmission. The aim of this study is to analyse the relationship between the bacteriological quality of water and the use of clean water with the occurrence of diarrhea in households in the work area of Karya Jaya Public Health Center in Palembang. This research used quantitative approaches with cross sectional study design. There were 157 people chosen as the samples who met the inclusion and exclusion criteria. They were taken by proportional random sampling in 40 RTs (Households). The results showed a significant relationship between the bacteriological quality of clean water (p=0.006), bacteriological quality of drinking water (p=0,000), clean water sources (p=0,000), drinking water sources (p=0,000), distance of clean water sources with pollution (p=0,001), food and beverage sanitation hygiene (p=0.016), and hand washing behavior (p=0,001). The results of multivariate analysis showed that the most dominant variable affecting the occurrence of diarrhea was the bacteriological quality of drinking water (p= 0,000; PR=24,668).

Keywords: nutritional status, personal hygiene, environmental sanitation, toddler

I. INTRODUCTION

Diarrhea is a symptom of infection by various microorganisms such as bacteria, viruses, and parasites that are mostly transmitted through water contaminated by feces (World Health Organization (WHO), 2017). This theory is supported by the results of the study of Luby, et al (Luby et al., 2015) which states that E.coli contamination from water samples is associated with an increased prevalence of diarrhea (PR = 1.14, 95% CI = 1.05, 1, 23). Utilization of water that is not suitable for use or polluted water for daily activities can cause illness for those water users. Pollutants in water that can endanger water users are heavy metal pollutants and pollutants of pathogenic microorganisms. Pathogenic

microorganisms have long been known to pollute water. Pathogens in water have in many cases caused pandemics of waterborne diseases.

Kakalu's research results (2012) stated that determinants of diarrhea in households include non-standard drinking water management (OR = 20.64), water storage without cover (OR = 5.4), lack of formal education (OR = 1.9). Hand washing with soap, good drinking water management can reduce diarrhea in Mkuranga, Tanzania (Kakalu, 2012). Oloruntoba (2014) states the distance of the source of pollution from water sources (OR = 4.3), poor sanitation of household water storage, increases the risk of diarrhea (Oloruntoba, Folarin, & Ayede, 2014). According to Permenkes No. 416 of 1990 concerning the requirements and supervision of water quality, the distance of the source of clean water from the source of pollution that meets the requirements is more than 10 meters. The more pollutant sources are within <10 meters meters, the greater the effect on the deterioration of the microbiological quality of water. Pollutant sources come from latrines. sewerage systems, landfills, and animal pens.

Data from the Health **Profile** Palembang City in 2018 shows that the Puskesmas Karya Jaya Palembang has the highest diarrhea morbidity rate, which is 606 cases in 2018 or 69 cases per 1000 population. Based on the Health Profile of Palembang City in 2018 the access to clean water in Karya Jaya Village is at the lowest rate of 86.24%. Of the 11,563 residents, 12% use dug wells that do not meet the requirements, 8% of dug wells that meet the requirements, 74% use PAM, and another 6%. This means that as many as 20% of the population still uses water sources that do not meet the requirements for daily needs. Under microbiological requirements, water should not contain E. coli in units per 100 ml of sample. This supports the need for research into the bacteriological quality of water and the use of community clean water in cases of diarrhea.

II. METHOD

Participant

The population of this study was all households living in the work area of Karya Jaya Health Center in Palembang totalling 2,631



households. The research sample was calculated using the Lemeshow formula with a total sample of 157 people.

Method of collecting data

Data collection is carried out by means of laboratory examinations, interviews, and document review. Laboratory tests were carried out with biological parameters (E. coli) to obtain bacteriological quality data for clean water and drinking water. Interviews were conducted to obtain data for the variable sources of clean water from sources of pollution, hygiene sanitation of food and beverages, and hand washing behavior. A document review was carried out to obtain diarrhea and sanitation data in the Puskesmas Karya Jaya Palembang area.

Methode of Analysis Data

Data analysis was carried out quantitatively, namely univariate (descriptive) analysis, then proceed with bivariate analysis using Chi Square. Furthermore, variables with p<0.25 were analyzed multivariately using logistic regression.

III. RESULTS

Following are the results of the variable frequency distribution of household diarrhea:

Table 1 Distribution Of The Occurance Of Diarrhea In The Work Area Of Karya Jaya Health Center

The Work Area Of Karya Jaya Heatin Cen				
Category	Frequency	Percentage		
	(N)			
3 months Diar	rhea			
Diarrhea	59	37,6		
No Diarrhea	98	62,4		
Total	157	100		

Based on the data above, it is known that at the location of the study the community had experienced diarrhea 3 months by 37 percent, 62 percent had no diarrhea. The following independent variable frequency distribution studied.

Table 2.
Frequency Distribution of Household Diarrhea
Risk Factors

Category	Frequency (N)	Percentage	
Bacteriological	Quality Of	Clean Water	
Qualified	39	24,8	
Not	118	75,2	
Qualified			
Bacteriological	Quality	Of Drinking	

Water		
Qualified	105	67
Not	52	33
Qualified		
Clean Water S	Sources	
PDAM	25	15,9
Non PDAM	132	84,1
Drinking Wat	er Sources	
Boiled	63	40,1
water		
Raw water	94	59,9
Distance Of O	Clean Water S	Sources With
Distance Of O Pollution Sour		Sources With
		Sources With 36,3
Pollution Sour	ces	
Pollution Sour Qualified	rces 57	36,3
Pollution Sour Qualified Not Qualified	rces 57	36,3 63,7
Pollution Sour Qualified Not Qualified	57 100	36,3 63,7
Pollution Sour Qualified Not Qualified Food And Bev	57 100 erage Sanitatio	36,3 63,7 on Hygiene
Pollution Sour Qualified Not Qualified Food And Bev Good	57 100 erage Sanitatio 82 75	36,3 63,7 on Hygiene 47.1
Pollution Sour Qualified Not Qualified Food And Bev Good Bad	57 100 erage Sanitatio 82 75	36,3 63,7 on Hygiene 47.1
Pollution Sour Qualified Not Qualified Food And Bev Good Bad Handwashing	57 100 erage Sanitation 82 75 Behaviour	36,3 63,7 on Hygiene 47.1 52.9

The results of bivariate analysis can be seen in the following table:

Table 3

Rivariate Analysi

Variable P Value Prevalence Ratio 95%CI Bacteriological Quality Of Clean Water 0,006 (1,402- 402- 402- 402- 402- 402- 402- 402-	Bivariate Analysis				
95%CI	Variable	P	Prevalence		
Bacteriological 0,006 3,602 Quality Of Clean (1,402- Water 8,814) Bacteriological 0,000 54,938 Quality Of Drinking (20,481- Water 147,370) Clean Water 0,000 15,210 Sources (4,455- 51,923) Drinking Water 0,000 15,660 Sources (5,756- 42,604) Distance Of Clean 0,001 3,860 Water Sources With (1,795- Pollution Sources 8,303)		Value	Ratio		
Quality Of Clean (1,402- Water 8,814) Bacteriological 0,000 54,938 Quality Of Drinking (20,481- Water 147,370) Clean Water 0,000 15,210 Sources (4,455- 51,923) Drinking Water 0,000 15,660 Sources (5,756- 42,604) Distance Of Clean 0,001 3,860 Water Sources With (1,795- Pollution Sources 8,303)			95%CI		
Water 8,814) Bacteriological 0,000 54,938 Quality Of Drinking (20,481- Water 147,370) Clean Water 0,000 15,210 Sources (4,455- 51,923) Drinking Water 0,000 15,660 Sources (5,756- 42,604) Distance Of Clean 0,001 3,860 Water Sources With (1,795- Pollution Sources 8,303)	Bacteriological	0,006	3,602		
Bacteriological 0,000 54,938 Quality Of Drinking (20,481- Water 147,370) Clean Water 0,000 15,210 Sources (4,455- 51,923) Drinking Water 0,000 15,660 Sources (5,756- 42,604) Distance Of Clean 0,001 3,860 Water Sources With (1,795- Pollution Sources 8,303)	Quality Of Clean		(1,402-		
Quality Of Drinking (20,481- Water 147,370) Clean Water 0,000 15,210 Sources (4,455- 51,923) Drinking Water 0,000 15,660 Sources (5,756- 42,604) Distance Of Clean 0,001 3,860 Water Sources With (1,795- Pollution Sources 8,303)	Water		8,814)		
Water 147,370) Clean Water 0,000 15,210 Sources (4,455-51,923) Drinking Water 0,000 15,660 Sources (5,756-42,604) Distance Of Clean 0,001 3,860 Water Sources With (1,795-Pollution Sources 8,303)	Bacteriological	0,000	54,938		
Clean Water 0,000 15,210 Sources (4,455-51,923) Drinking Water 0,000 15,660 Sources (5,756-42,604) Distance Of Clean 0,001 3,860 Water Sources With (1,795-Pollution Sources) 8,303)	Quality Of Drinking		(20,481-		
Sources (4,455-51,923) Drinking Water Sources 0,000 15,660 (5,756-42,604) Distance Of Clean Water Sources With Pollution Sources 0,001 3,860 (1,795-83) Pollution Sources 8,303)	Water		147,370)		
Drinking Water 0,000 15,660 Sources (5,756- 42,604) Distance Of Clean 0,001 3,860 Water Sources With (1,795- Pollution Sources 8,303)	Clean Water	0,000	15,210		
Drinking Water 0,000 15,660 Sources (5,756-42,604) Distance Of Clean 0,001 3,860 Water Sources With Pollution Sources (1,795-83,303)	Sources		(4,455-		
Sources (5,756-42,604) Distance Of Clean Water Sources With Pollution Sources 0,001 3,860 (1,795-8,303)			51,923)		
Distance Of Clean Water Sources With Pollution Sources 0,001 3,860 (1,795-8,303)	Drinking Water	0,000	15,660		
Distance Of Clean 0,001 3,860 Water Sources With (1,795- Pollution Sources 8,303)	Sources		(5,756-		
Water Sources With (1,795-Pollution Sources 8,303)			42,604)		
Pollution Sources 8,303)	Distance Of Clean	0,001	3,860		
	Water Sources With		(1,795-		
Food And Beverage 0.010 2.393	Pollution Sources		8,303)		
	Food And Beverage	0,010	2,393		
Sanitation Hygiene (1,225-	Sanitation Hygiene		(1,225-		
4,677)			4,677)		
Handwashing 0,001 3,358	Handwashing	0,001	3,358		
Behaviour (1,705-	Behaviour		(1,705-		
6,614)			6,614)		

After bivariate selection, p value<0.25 will be included in multivariate analysis using logistic regression. The final logistic regression modeling results can be seen in table 4 as follows:



Table 4
Final Logistic Regression Modelling Results

Variable	SE	Sig	Exp	95%
		~- 8	(B)	CI Exp (B)
Bacteriological Quality Of Clean Water	0,678	0,029	4,415	1,168- 16,679
Bacteriological Quality Of Drinking Water	0,610	0,000	24,442	7,401- 80,720
Clean Water Sources	0,836	0,021	6,934	1,347- 35,700
Drinking Water Sources	0,774	0,002	10,476	2,297- 47,777
Distance Of Clean Water Sources With Pollution Sources	0,739	0,349	1,999	0,470- 8,504
Food And Beverage Sanitation Hygiene	0,657	0,816	1,165	0,322- 4,220
Handwashing Behaviour	0,654	0,038	3,879	1,077- 13,970
Constant	1,376	0,000	0,001	

From the multivariate analysis, the p value = 0,000 in the bacteriological quality variable of drinking water with an OR value of 24.444 (95% CI:7.401-80.720) means that households that have bacteriological quality of drinking water that do not meet the requirements 24 times are at greater risk of experiencing diarrhea compared to quality bacteriological drinking water that meets the requirements.

IV. DISCUSSION

The results of this study are there is a relationship between the bacteriological quality of clean water, the bacteriological quality of drinking water, sources of clean water, sources of drinking water, distance of clean water sources with sources of and handwashing behavior of diarrhea in households in the region Karya Jaya Health Center work. The most dominant variable affecting the incidence of diarrhea is the bacteriological quality of drinking water.

The availability of clean water that meets the requirements is very important. Efforts to improve water quality require modern technological innovation using surface water (river water, wastewater, or sea production solutions that can be applied in urban areas. Modern technology such as gray water bio rotation which consists of a bio filter system and a recirculated

sanitation garden that can process domestic wastewater for reuse into clean water. This kind of technology is expected to be an appropriate technology solution for clean water supply considering 60-85% of the use of clean water, 75% of which is grey water.

Efforts to improve the quality of drinking water in addition to maintaining the source is maintained, maintaining clean drinking water in the household is very important. The dispenser is cleaned at least once a month starting from the tube, tap, until the outside of the dispenser. Dispenser taps have an important role as a medium for developing bacteria becaue the position of the tap is connected to the air outside which is susceptible to germs and bacteria. For this reason, puskesmas health promotion plays an important role in delivery of information to the community to maintain clean drinking water at home.

The results of this study revealed that food and beverage sanitation hygiene was related to the incidence of household diarrhea. Low education and ignorance lead to errors in handling and preparing food and drinks. Children who live in the home who are better in the practice of food hygiene have a lower risk of diarrhea (Agustina et al., 2013).

The distance of pollution sources such as trash cans, sewage drains, drums of livestock with clean water sources of less than 10 meters, causes the occurrence of diarrhea. Oloruntoba (2014) states the distance of the source of pollution from the source of water (OR = 4.3). Surface water and ground water contaminated with feces are consumed by humans through food and drinking water so that diarrhea can occur (Prüss, Kay, Fewtrell, & Bartram, 2002).

Research conducted by Luby, et al (2009), says that washing hands with soap consistently can reduce diarrhea and respiratory disease. Washing hands with soap (CTPS) can reduce diarrhea by 31% and reduce upper respiratory tract infections (ARI) by 21% (Luby et al., 2009). Rabbi and Dey (2013), said that the gap between the knowledge of washing hands therefore a long-term initiative is needed to make the community aware especially of children the importance of hand washing with soap (CTPS) (Rabbi & Dey, 2013).

Good hand washing practices must continue to be socialized, especially to children, so activities to promote CTPS need to be carried out as an effort to raise awareness in the community.

VI. CONCLUSION

It is suggested to the Puskesmas Karya Jaya to increase public health efforts to supervise environmental sanitation in the use of clean water in households. Increase health promotion to the community to build public awareness in protecting the



environment and personal hygiene through social media or electronics that are currently more attractive to the community. The development of the availability of clean water needs to be carried out by the Palembang City Government in a sustainable manner so that it can be distributed to all levels of society and distribute it evenly. Modern technology such as gray water bio rotation is expected to be an appropriate technology solution for the supply of clean water considering that 60-85% of the use of clean water, 75% of it becomes gray water.

REFERENCES

- Agustina, R., Sari, T. P., Satroamidjojo, S., Bovee-Oudenhoven, I. M., Feskens, E. J., & Kok, F. J. (2013). Association of food-hygiene practices and diarrhea prevalence among Indonesian young children from low socioeconomic urban areas. *BMC Public Health*, *13*(977). https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-13-977
- Kakalu, R. K. (2012). Diarrhoea Among Underfive Children And Household Water Treatment And Safe Storage Factors In Mkuranga District Tanzania. In *Muhimbili University of Health and Allied Sciences*.
- Luby, S. P., Aeboatwalla, M., Bowen, A., Kenah, E., Sharker, Y., & Hoekstra, R. M. (2009). Difficulties in maintaining improved handwashing behavior, Karachi, Pakistan. *American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, 81(1), 140–145. https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.2009.81.140
- Luby, S. P., Halder, A. K., Huda, T. M., Unicomb, L., Islam, M. S., Arnold, B. F., & Johnston, R. B. (2015). Microbiological contamination of drinking water associated with subsequent child diarrhea. *American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, 93(5), 904–911. https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.15-0274
- Oloruntoba, E. O., Folarin, T. B., & Ayede, A. I. (2014). Hygiene and sanitation risk factors of Diarrhoeal disease among under-five children in Ibadan, Nigeria. *African Health Sciences*, *14*(4), 1001–1011. https://doi.org/10.4314/ahs.v14i4.32
- Prüss, A., Kay, D., Fewtrell, L., & Bartram, J. (2002). Estimating the burden of disease from water, sanitation, and hygiene at a global level. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, *110*, 537–542. https://doi.org/10.1289/ehp.02110537
- Rabbi, S. E., & Dey, N. C. (2013). Exploring the gap between hand washing knowledge and practices

- in Bangladesh: a cross-sectional comparative study. *BMC Public Health*, *13*(89). https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-13-89
- World Health Organization (WHO). (2017). Diarrhoeal disease: Key facts. Who. https://doi.org/10.5897/AJAR2013.7983