# Microbial Examination of Spring Water in Tribal Area of Chinthapalli Mandal, Visakhapatnam District, A.P, India

Geetha Saramanda<sup>1</sup>, Byragi Reddy. T<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>P.G. Microbiology Department, Visakha Govt. Degree and P.G College for Women, Visakhapatnam, India

<sup>2</sup> Professors, Department of Environmental Sciences, Andhra University, Visakhapatnam, India

**Abstract:** Water is defined as portable when it is free from disease producing microorganisms. In the tribal area of Visakhapatnam springs are one sources of drinking water and ever year people die due to drinking contaminated water which causes water brone diseases in rainy season. In the present study spring water samples collected from Chithapalli Mandal, Visakhapatnam District, A.P., India. The microbial examination of The microbiological quality was determined by the standard Most Probable number (MPN) method, Heterotrophic Plate Count (HPC), Faecal coliform Count (FCC), and Faecal Streptococcal count (FSC) examined and comparing the results against the drinking water standards lead by BIS and WHO.

Keywords: tribal area, spring water, MPN, quality, standards

## **1.Introduction**

Water is one of the most important elements for all forms of life. It is indispensable in the maintenance of life on earth. It is also essential for the composition and renewal of cells. Despite of this, human beings are continuing to pollute water sources resulting in provoking water related illnesses (WHO, 2008). In our country a large section of population is dependent on ground water without any treatment. The ground water is generally believed to be free from contamination and thus considered safe for drinking purpose. Contamination of drinking water may occur by percolation of toxic through the soil to ground water (Sargaonkar et al., 2003). Due to continuous population growth demand for fresh water increases rapidly. In remote and tribal settlements Spring water forms a very important feature of man's existence. Even early human civilizations centered on springs and streams. Springs are a good source of potable water supply especially for small towns wherever available spring water is likely to contain minerals dissolved from sub soil layers as well as other pollutants which dissolve into the rain water.

The quality of water is typically determined by monitoring microbial presence, especially *fecal coliform* bacteria (FC) and physical chemical parameters (**EPA 1999**). Coliform bacteria are used as microbiologic indicators for water quality because human fecal matter is generally considered to be a great risk to human health as it is more likely to contain human enteric pathogens (**Scott et al., 2003**).

The study area Chinthapalli is located on the north eastern part of Visakhapatnam district, Andhra Pradesh, India. The main source of drinking water in this area is open wells and kundi's (spring water storage device). Natural springs are the only source available for drinking water as well as for utility purpose in remote villages. Most of the agricultural lands are rain fed, and in the lean season people practices stream cultivation, which is perennially fed by the springs. Second crop is only possible for those whose fields are fed by the natural springs.

The aim of this study was to determine the microbiological condition of spring water sources from tribal area in Chintapalli and all the results were compared with the World Health Organization (WHO) and Bureau of Indian Standards (BIS).

## 2.Materials and Methods

#### **Study Area**

The chinthapalli mandal located on the North Easter part of Visakhapatnam dist., in A.P state of India. It lies between  $17^{\circ}44'22''$  North Latitude to  $18^{\circ}04'29''$  East to  $82^{\circ}38'04''$  East. The climate conditions are very cool in the area on account of elevation, green vegetation and think forest. The temperature gets down with the onset of south west monsoon and tumbles to a mean minimum of  $4^{\circ}$ C by January after which there is reversal trend till the temperature reaches mean maximum of  $34^{\circ}$ C by end of May, that is April to June are warmest Months. This tribal area which rain season account for 90% of rain fall an average Annual rain fall of 1178.mm.

#### **Sample Collection**

Water samples were collected in the morning hours (between 8am to 10am) during 2008 to 2012. Water were collected sterile bottles. They were kept cool, preferable between 4°C-10°C but not frozen. After sampling, analysis was taken up as soon as possible and followed by microbial drinking water analysis standards.

#### **Microbiological Analysis**

The microbiological quality was determined by the standard most probable number (MPN) method, Heterotrophic Plate Count (HPC), Faecal coliform Count (FCC), and Faecal Streptococcal count (FSC) analyzed in 100ml spring water according to APHA 2005.

## **3.Result & Discussions**

In this study Twenty Spring water sources were collected during period of 2008-2012 years. The microbiological analysis of the water shown in Table 1. The heterotrophic plate count which indicates the total microbial load in drinking water was in the ranges of  $1.16 \times 10^4$  to  $6.82 \times 10^4$ in different villages. According to WHO guidelines (2009), the occurrence of pathogens or indicator organisms in ground and surface water sources mainly depends on intrinsic physical & chemical characteritics of the catchment area and magnitude and range of human activities and animal sources that release pathogens to the environment.

The most probable number (MPN) for the presumptive total coliform count of the water samples ranges from 23 to 1100 MPN/100 ml. it indicates that water from Bandabayalu Chowdupalli and Labbangi spring had the highest total coliform counts of 1100 MPN/100ml followed by the Chinnagedda and Lingalagudi spring s having 210 MPN/100ml. As per the desceibed limit of WHO, the drinking water samples were under the category of polluted (WHO 1984). The presence of coliforms shows the danger of faecal pollution and consequent hazard of contracting diseases through pathogenic organisms. None the less, the disease- causing organisms (pathogens) mostly transmitted via drinking water are predominantly of faecal origin (Suridra Suther et al., 2009).

The fecal coliform counts per 100ml of the water samples on EMB agar plat ranged between 0.53X10<sup>4</sup> and 3.26X10<sup>4</sup> cfu, which also exceeds the standard limit for water. The presence of coliforms group in this water samples generally suggests that a certain selection of water may have been contaminated with faeces either of animal origin (Okonko et al 2008). This result compared favorably with the report of Banwo 2006 which indicates that the presence of bushes and shrubs makes likely possible that smaller mammals may have been coming around these water bodies to drinking water, thereby passing out feces into the water.

The fecal streptococci counts per 100ml of the water samples on Bile esculin agar plate ranged between  $0.45 \times 10^4$ to  $2.38 \times 10^4$  cfu. The *Faecal Streptococci* are a group of gram-positive Lancefield group D *Streptococci*. The faecal streptococci belong to the genera *Enterococcu* and *Streptococcus* (Gleeson and Gray, 1997). *Fecal Streptococci* and *Enterococci*, which are gram positive bacteria, have received widespread acceptance as useful indicators of microbiological water quality, because they show a high and close relationship with health hazards, mainly gastrointestinal symptoms, associated with bathing in aquatic environments.

## **4.**Conclusion

The majority of the water sources had unacceptable total coliform count and all the water sources which were positive for presumptive coliform count had E. coli showing fecal contamination of water sources. The data clearly suggests that people of this region are under severe threat of water related diseases and health risks. The continuous consumption of such polluted water could pose serious health risks especially in infants. So, pollution sources must

be taken under control and treatment waters by purification plants. Thus, water quality of springs can be improved in the future.

# 5.Acknowledgements

This investigation is part of Ph.D thesis, one of the authors (Geetha. Saramanda) is thankful to Prof. T. Byragi Reddy for fully supporting this research.

Table 1: Microbiological Analysis of Drinking Water of					
Different Villages					

S.	Name of the	HPC	MPN	FCC	FSC
No	Sample	cfu/100ml	Index	cfu/100ml	cfu/100ml
			per		
			100ml		
1	Chinnagedda	$3.66 \times 10^4$	210	$1.56 \text{X} 10^4$	$1.23 \times 10^4$
2	Bandabayalu	$5.69 \text{ X}10^4$	1100	$2.72 \text{X} 10^4$	$1.04 \text{X} 10^4$
3	Lothugedda	$1.16  \mathrm{X10}^4$	210	$1.32 \text{X} 10^4$	$0.67 \text{X} 10^4$
4	Lingalagudi	$1.34 \text{ X}10^4$	210	$1.22 X 10^4$	$1.18X10^4$
5	Chowdupalli	$4.60  ext{ X10}^4$	1100	$2.60 \times 10^4$	$1.24 X 10^4$
6	Bladadram	$1.16  \mathrm{X10^4}$	23	$2.01 X 10^4$	$1.61 \times 10^4$
7	Labbangi	$5.60 \text{ X}10^4$	1100	$2.42 \text{X} 10^4$	$1.78 X 10^4$
8	Jallurmetta	$2.32 \text{ X}10^4$	43	$0.53 X 10^4$	$1.26 X 10^4$
9	Burada Veedhi	$3.26 \text{ X}10^4$	39	$0.16 \mathrm{X} 10^4$	$1.32 \times 10^4$
10	Kommangi I	$2.35 \text{ X}10^4$	93	$0.56 X 10^4$	$2.38 \times 10^4$
11	Kommangi II	$3.02 \text{ X}10^4$	150	$0.73 X 10^4$	$1.23 X 10^4$
12	Kolapari	$2.68 \text{ X} 10^4$	210	$1.22X10^{4}$	$0.45 X 10^4$
13	Rowrinthada	$4.36 \mathrm{X10^4}$	460	$1.56 \text{X} 10^4$	$0.98 \text{X} 10^4$
14	Yerrabommalu	$2.42 \text{ X}10^4$	460	$1.60 \text{X} 10^4$	$1.04 \text{X} 10^4$
15	Jerrigedda	$2.52 \text{ X}10^4$	120	$1.22X10^{4}$	$0.57 X 10^4$
16	Kikkisalabanda	$2.36 \times 10^4$	93	$0.69 \text{X} 10^4$	$0.40 \text{X} 10^4$
17	Dabbagaruva	$6.36 \text{ X}10^4$	1100	$3.26 \text{X} 10^4$	$2.16 \text{X} 10^4$
18	Mamidipalli	$6.82 \text{ X}10^4$	1100	$3.12 \text{X} 10^4$	$2.18 \times 10^4$
19	Chintaluru	$2.33 \text{ X}10^4$	93	$0.55 X 10^4$	$0.78 \text{X} 10^4$
20	B.D.Pakala	$2.78 \text{ X}10^4$	150	$0.82 \text{X} 10^4$	$1.56 \text{X} 10^4$

## References

- [1] WHO 2008. Guidelines for Drinking water Quality, Third edition, Volume 1, Geneva, pp. 2-7.
- [2] Sargaonkar A and Deshpande V 2003, *Environ Monit Assess.*, *89*, *43-67*.
- [3] EPA handbook. Ground Water Volume I. Ground Water and Contamination September 1990. USEEPA, *Office* of Research and Development Washington D.C.
- [4] Scott TM, salina P, Rose KM, Tamplin JB, Farra ML. Koo SR, Ldkas A 2003. Geographical variation in ribotype profiles of Escherichia coli isolates from humans, swine, poultry, beef and dairy cattle in Florida; Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 69 (2): 1089-1092.
- [5] APHA Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Waste Water, twenty first ed. American Public Health Association, Washington, DC 2005.
- [6] WHO guidelines 2009, Guidelines for drinking water quality recommendations. Geneva.
- [7] WHO 1984. Guidelines for drinking water quality recommendations. Geneva.
- [8] Suridra Suther, Vikram Chhimpa, Sushma Singh , 2009. Bacterial contamination in drinking water: casecstudy in rural area of northern Rajasthan, India; Environ Monit Assess , 159: 43-50.
- [9] Okonko Iheanyi Omezuruike, adejoye Oluseyi Damilola, Ogunnusi Tolulope Adeola, Fajobi, Enobong

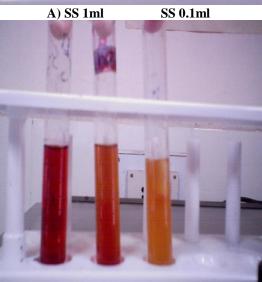
# Volume 4 Issue 8, August 2015

A and Shittu Olufunke B,2008. Microbiological and physicochemical analysis of different water samples used for domestic purposes in Abeokuta and Ojota, Lagos State, Nigeria, Afr.J. Biotechnology Vol.7 (5), pp. 617-621.

M.Sc. Dissertation. University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria, p. 107.

- [11] Gleeson, C and Gray, N. 1997. The Coliform Index and Water Borne Disease E and FN Spon, London. pp.194
- [10] Banwo K, 2006. Nutrient Load and Pollution Study of Some Selected Stations along River in Ibadan; Nigeria.





B) DS 10ml Figure 1: Experiential results of Total coliforms by MPN method using MacConkey broth