

Microbiological Contaminants in Drinking Water: Current Status and Challenges

Risky Ayu Kristanti · Tony Hadibarata · Muhammad Syafrudin · Murat Yılmaz^(D) · Shakila Abdullah

Received: 8 February 2022 / Accepted: 4 June 2022 / Published online: 22 July 2022 © The Author(s), under exclusive licence to Springer Nature Switzerland AG 2022

Abstract Water is a vital resource to every living thing on the earth. Once the water is contaminated (physically, chemically, biologically, or radiologically), it brought negative impacts to the living thing. This paper provides a brief review of the characterization of biological pollutants in drinking water and their effects on human health. Some biological contamination was detected in water resources such as pathogenic bacteria (*Escherichia coli, Vibrio*)

R. A. Kristanti (🖂) Research Center for Oceanography, National Research and Innovation Agency, Pasir Putih I, Jakarta 14430, Indonesia e-mail: risky.ayu.kristanti@brin.go.id

T. Hadibarata (🖂)

Environmental Engineering Program, Faculty of Engineering and Science, Curtin University Malaysia, CDT 250, 98009 Miri, Malaysia e-mail: hadibarata@curtin.edu.my

M. Syafrudin Department of Artificial Intelligence, Sejong University, Seoul 05006, Korea

M. Yılmaz

Department of Chemical Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, Osmaniye Korkut Ata University, Osmaniye 80000, Turkey

S. Abdullah

Department of Physics and Chemistry, Faculty of Applied Sciences & Technology, Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia, Pagoh Education Hub, 84600 Pagoh, Muar, Johor, Malaysia cholerae, Salmonella, etc.), viruses (hepatitis A virus, hepatitis E virus, rotavirus, etc.), parasites (Giardia, Entamoeba, Cyclospora, etc.), and parasitic worm (Ascaris lumbricoides, Ancylostoma duodenale, Strongyloides stercoralis, etc.). The diseases were significantly prevalent in developing countries due to limited access to clean water and poor sanitation. Most of the diseases had common symptoms such as diarrhea, fever, and body and muscle aches that were transmitted to humans through the fecal-oral route. About 1.7 billion children were affected by diarrhea each year and about 525,000 of the children died each year. Besides, nearly 1 million adults were killed by diarrhea every year. Some treatment was implemented to remove the biological contamination in drinking water, such as oxidation treatment, ultraviolet radiation, distillation, biologically active carbon filtration, electrochemical, and nanotechnology.

 $\label{eq:keywords} \begin{array}{l} \mbox{Biological pollutants} \cdot \mbox{Tap water} \cdot \mbox{Water} \\ \mbox{treatment} \cdot \mbox{Pathogenic microorganisms} \end{array}$

1 Introduction

Water is a vital resource for almost every living thing on earth. Most living things, including humans, need water to survive. Once the water is contaminated, it has destructive consequences for living things (Cidu et al., 2011; Frichot et al., 2021; Maharjan et al., 2021; Ng and Elshikh, 2021). Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, pesticide, synthetic dyes, microplastics, and heavy metals have been produced in large quantities as a result of the rapid development of industry and agricultural activities (Al Farraj et al., 2019; Hadibarata et al., 2011; Hii, 2021; Ishak et al., 2021; Rubiyatno et al., 2022; Tang, 2021). Biological contaminants are usually referred to as pathogenic microorganisms, which include pathogenic bacteria, viruses, parasites, and protistans (Behnam et al., 2013). Disinfection is the process that kills, removes, or deactivates pathogenic microorganisms. However, the process of disinfection can be divided into several stages, and only the high level of disinfection can eliminate all microorganisms (Rutala & Weber, 2004). There have been many disinfection methods with respective benefits and limitations. Some of them were cheap and easy to use but less effective against microorganisms. Therefore, biological contamination can still occur despite the water has already gone through the disinfection process (Sharma & Bhattacharya, 2017). In Bangladesh, due to water pollution, the inhabitants who lived near the Turag River suffered from various kinds of health problems, such as respiratory illness, diarrhea, anemia, and more (Halder & Islam, 2015). Besides, in Punjab, Pakistan, about 76% of residents faced health problems, such as nail and skin problems due to water pollution (Ashraf et al., 2010). Nowadays, most people use tap water for their daily water consumption. The water supply is usually from rivers, lakes, or undergrounds, depending on the existing water resources of the respective locations. In most countries, water (from water resources) has been diverted to water treatment plants before being delivered to humans (households, businesses, public buildings, etc.) through distribution systems. In the sewage treatment plants, the water usually went through several major processes, which include coagulation, sedimentation, filtration, and disinfection to ensure that the water does not contain any physical, chemical, biological, and radiological substances that can cause human health problems. Figure 1 shows the most important water treatment processes. Besides, biological contaminants could also enter the distribution system due to reasons such as broken pipelines. Biologically contaminated water could have serious consequences. Children under the age of five in the countries, especially in Asian and African countries, were most affected by the waterborne diseases from the contaminated water (Seas et al., 2000). The health effects of biological contamination in drinking water are shown in Fig. 2.

2 Types of Biological Pollutants in Tap Water

2.1 Pathogenic Bacteria

Pathogenic bacteria contained the ability to cause infections or diseases to humans through ways such as releasing toxic substances which could damage human tissues, act as parasites inside human cells, or form colonies in the human body that could disrupt normal human functions. Many types of pathogenic bacteria could be found in water, including Vibrio cholerae, Escherichia coli, Salmonella typhi, etc., which could cause various kinds of waterborne diseases, such as diarrhea, cholera, typhoid, etc. (Al-Abdan et al., 2021; Ali et al., 2014, 2020, 2021; Cabral, 2010). Table 1 shows pathogenic bacteria occurrence in water sources in various countries. Escherichia was a gram-negative bacterium, which was shaped like a rod with a small tail under the microscope and was widely distributed in nature. Gram-negative bacteria were inherently resistant to antibiotics (Rossolini et al., 2017). Therefore, diseases

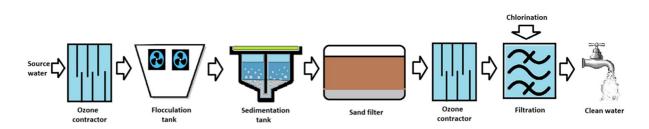
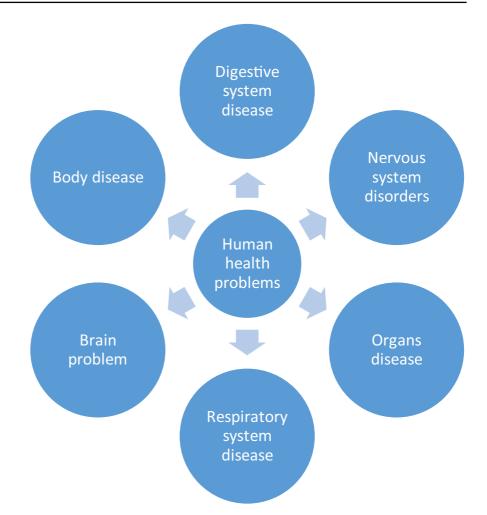


Fig. 1 The most important water treatment processes [icon from Flaticon Basic License CC3.0 (Creative Commons)]



caused by Escherichia, such as diarrhea and gastroenteritis, were harder to be treated with antibiotics. The species of Escherichia include Escherichia coli, Escherichia albertii, Escherichia fergusonii, Escherichia hermannii, etc. Among the species, Escherichia coli (E. coli) was the most common Escherichia found in drinking water (Cabral, 2010; Haasdijik & Ingen, 2018). It could be commonly found in the gut of humans. However, there were many types of E. coli, some were harmless, and some could cause diseases in humans. The harmful types of E. coli included enterotoxigenic E. coli (ETEC, also known as O148), enteropathogenic E. coli (EPEC), enterohemorrhagic E. coli (EHEC, also known as O157), and enteroinvasive E. coli (EIEC, also known as O124). ETEC could be found in cattle feces and human feces (Bako et al., 2017). So, when the feces were discharged into water sources, the water resources would be contaminated by ETEC. Therefore, without proper water treatment, ETEC could be transmitted to humans through tap water and cause the disease to a human. This situation could have happened in most of the developing countries where cattle farming was the main economic activity and people who lived in the countries could not access clean water and had poor sanitation, due to low financial resources (Bako, et al., 2017; Cabral, 2010). In many developing countries, ETEC was the most common bacterial enteropathogen found in children who were below 5 years of age, and responsible for a hundred million cases of diarrhea and thousands of deaths each year. Besides, it was also the common cause of "travelers' diarrhea," which affected people from developed countries traveling to developing countries (Scheutz & Strockbine, 2005).

Vibrio was another gram-negative bacterium, which was curve-shaped. The common species of

Pathogenic bacteria	Diseases	Country	Reference
Escherichia coli	Diarrhea and gastroenteritis	Nigeria Kenya Norway Nepal India China	Bamigboye et al., 2020 Da Silva et al., 2020 Paruch et al., 2019 Rahman et al., 2021 Kumar and Shrutikirti, 2013 Guo et al., 2021
Staphylococcus aureus	Nausea, vomiting, stomach cramps	Nigeria Brazil USA South Africa	Bamigboye et al., 2020 Santos et al., 2020 Lechevallier and Seidler, 1980 Ofori et al., 2018
<i>Klebsiella</i> sp.	Urinary infection, pneumonia, bloodstream infec- tion, meningitis	Nigeria India Russia Nigeria	Bamigboye et al., 2020 Kumar et al., 2013 Rakhmanin et al., 2016 Bamigboye et al., 2020
Vibrio cholerae	Cholera and gastroenteritis	Burkina Faso Uganda Haiti	Kabore et al., 2018 Bwire et al., 2018 Alam et al., 2015
Salmonella	Typhoid and paratyphoid fevers and salmonellosis	India Canada Netherland Czech Republic China	Jyoti et al., 2010 Jokinen et al., 2011 Schets et al., 2008 Dolejska et al., 2009 Guo et al., 2021
Shigella	Bacillary dysentery (shigellosis)	Nigeria China South Africa France	Bamigboye et al., 2020 Guo et al., 2021 Nguyen et al., 2021 Delafont et al., 2016

 Table 1
 Pathogenic bacteria occurrence in water sources in various countries

Vibrio which could cause disease through water included Vibrio cholerae (V. cholerae) and Vibrio parahaemolyticus (V. parahaemolyticus). There were several types of V. cholerae, of which only V. cholerae O1 and V. cholerae O139 could cause cholera while other types of V. cholerae could cause gastroenteritis (Cabral, 2010; Cooper, 2001). Brackish and marine waters were the natural environment for the etiologic agents of V. cholerae O1 and V. cholerae O139. There were 1.3 million to 4 million cases of cholera each year and 21,000 to 14,300 deaths because of cholera. It happened mostly due to the absence of safe water, proper sanitation as well as proper waste management (Ali et al., 2015). Therefore, cholera was also a major health issue in many developing countries as most of the countries did not have proper water treatment. V. parahaemolyticus was another Vibrio that mainly caused gastroenteritis. It tended to thrive in warmer water and water which was low in salinity (Rincé, et al., 2018). There were 3 to 5 billion cases of gastroenteritis each year and nearly 2 million deaths happened to children who were under 5 years. *V. parahaemolyticus* was a common cause of gastroenteritis in Asia countries, especially in Japan. It was first discovered in Japan in the 1950s and could be usually found in marine and estuarine environments (Rince, et al., 2018; Rezny & Evans, 2020).

Salmonella was another gram-negative bacterium as well, which was rod-shaped. It could cause two types of salmonellosis (symptomatic infection caused by Salmonella), typhoid and paratyphoid fever, and gastroenteritis. There were only two species in the genus of Salmonella, which were Salmonella enterica (S. enterica) and Salmonella bongori (S. bongori). S. enterica could be divided into 6 subspecies, which included S. enterica (subspecies I), S. salamae (subspecies II), S. arizonae (IIIa), S. diarizonae (IIIb), S. houtenae (IV), and S. indica (VI). Salmonella could be found in both environments and a wide range of animals. Therefore, it could transmit to humans in many ways, including water contaminated by animal feces (Crump & Wain, 2017).

Shigella was a gram-negative bacterium, which was rod-shaped, and was the oldest human-specific

pathogen. It could cause bacillary dysentery (also known as shigellosis) in humans. There were four species within the genus, which were Shigella dysenteriae (S. dysenteriae), Shigella flexneri (S. flexneri), Shigella boydii (S. boydii), and Shigella sonnei (S. sonnei). The most prevalent Shigella species in the world were S. flexneri followed by S. sonnei, which accounted for the most Shigella incidence worldwide outside of an outbreak setting (Cabral, 2010; Kotloff et al., 2018; Mumy, 2014). According to several studies, different types of Shigella species were located at different parts of the world, which could be due to the number of interplaying immunologic, virulence, and environmental pressure factors. S. flexneri was then usually found in low- and middle-income countries while S. sonnei was usually found in high-income countries. All the species were transmitted to humans mostly by the direct fecal-oral route, such as drinking water that was contaminated by Shigella (Thompson et al. 2015; Percival & Williams, 2014).

2.2 Viruses

Water-transmitted viruses are classified as adenovirus, astrovirus, hepatitis A and E viruses, rotavirus, norovirus and other caliciviruses, and enteroviruses, including coxsackieviruses and polioviruses. These viruses could mostly cause gastroenteritis, which could lead to diarrhea and other symptoms such as abdominal cramping, vomiting, and fever. However, some of the same viruses could cause more severe illnesses such as encephalitis, meningitis, myocarditis (enteroviruses), cancer (polyomavirus), and hepatitis (hepatitis A and E viruses) (WHO, 2011). These virus-based diseases were mostly happen in developing countries as most of the countries might be facing widespread malnutrition and large populations of HIV-positive people. Tap water (which contained viruses) could transmit viruses to humans via direct consumption, inhalation (activity such as showering), and contact with skin and eyes (activity such as swimming) (Gall et al., 2015). Table 2 shows the viruses' occurrence in water sources in various countries. Hepatitis A virus and hepatitis E could both cause liver disease and could be transmitted to

 Table 2
 Viruses' occurrence in water sources in various countries

Viruses	Diseases	Country	Reference
Hepatitis A	Fatigue, fever, nausea, diarrhea, appetite loss	Sweden Italy Canada France	Hennechart-Collette et al., 2020 Masciopinto et al., 2019 Leblanc et al., 2019 Hennechart-Collette et al., 2020
Hepatitis E	Acute pancreatitis, neurological complications, glomerulonephritis, thrombocytopenia	Italy Sweden France India	Masciopinto et al., 2019 Wang et al., 2020 Fenaux et al., 2019 Tripathy et al., 2019
Norovirus	Acute gastroenteritis, diarrhea, nausea, vomiting, abdominal pain	Italy Canada Canada USA Japan France	Masciopinto et al., 2019 Emelko, et al., 2019 Leblanc et al., 2019 Varughese et al., 2018 Canh et al., 2021 Hennechart-Collette et al., 2020
Rotavirus	Severe, watery diarrhea and vomiting	Italy Canada Mexico	Masciopinto et al., 2019 Leblanc et al., 2019 Espinosa et al., 2008
Enterovirus	Fever, runny nose, sneezing, cough, and body and muscle aches	Italy USA Japan	Masciopinto et al., 2019 Varughese et al., 2018 Canh et al., 2021
Adenovirus	Illness of the respiratory system, fever, sore throat, bronchitis, pneu- monia, diarrhea, and pink eye	Italy USA Japan	Masciopinto et al., 2019 Varughese et al., 2018 Canh et al., 2021

humans in many ways, including contaminated water (fecal contamination). Hepatitis E could usually cause more severe liver damage than hepatitis A. WHO (2020) estimated that 7134 people died from hepatitis A virus in 2016 while 44,000 people died from hepatitis E virus in 2015. The differences between hepatitis A virus and hepatitis E virus were in terms of biology, epidemiology, impact on morbidity, and mortality of humans in different parts of the world. Hepatitis A was a major issue in low- and middleincome countries with poor sanitary conditions and hygienic practices while hepatitis E was found worldwide, but it was more common in East and South Asia (Naoumov, 2007; Simmonds, 2012). Rotavirus was considered the leading cause of severe childhood gastroenteritis and accounted for about one-third of diarrhea episodes requiring hospitalization. The virus was normally transmitted to humans through drinking contaminated water (fecal contamination). Although it was equally distributed worldwide, the vast majority of rotavirus deaths occurred in developing countries due to poor quality of health care (Parashar, 2016). Norovirus could cause diarrhea in humans. It was responsible for 18% of diarrheal diseases in the world. It was estimated that for each year, the virus accounted for 64,000 diarrheal cases which required hospitalization, 900,000 clinic visits among children in developed countries, and around 200,000 deaths of children who were under 5 years old in

Table 3 Parasite occurrence in water sources in various countries

developing countries. Just like other viruses, the main mode of transmission of norovirus to humans was the fecal–oral route. Therefore, the virus could be transmitted to humans through drinking water (fecal contamination) (Lopman et al., 2016; Wikswo et al., 2011).

2.3 Parasites

Parasites could be transmitted to humans in many ways, including direct consumption of contaminated water. They account for 842,000 deaths each year (Omarova et al., 2018). The parasite occurrence in water sources in various countries is listed in Table 3. Giardia intestinalis (also referred to Giardia duodenalis and Giardia lamblia) could cause giardiasis. It caused to nearly 2% of adults and 8% of children in developed countries and about 33% of the population in developing countries. It was transmitted to humans mostly through the fecal-oral route, usually through contaminated water (fecal contamination) (Dunn & Juergens, 2020). Entamoeba histolytic could cause amoebic dysentery. It was the third leading cause of death from parasitic infections in the world. It was estimated that nearly 100,000 people died from the parasite each year (Ghosh et al., 2019). The parasite could be transmitted to humans through the fecal-oral route, usually through contaminated water (fecal contamination). Therefore, it was prevalent in countries

Parasite	Diseases	Country	Reference
Giardia	Abdominal cramps, bloating, nausea, and bouts of watery diarrhea	Brazil Greece Spain	Ogura & Sabogal-Paz, 2021 Ligda et al., 2020 Ramo et al., 2017
Entamoeba	Intestinal and extraintestinal infections	Cameroon Egypt Nigeria Zimbabwe	Nsoh et al., 2016 Khalifa et al., 2014 Bishop & Inabo, 2015 Dalu et al., 2011
Cyclospora	Watery diarrhea, weight loss, stomach cramps/pain, bloating, increased gas, nausea, and fatigue	USA Italy Egypt Zimbabwe Ghana	Kahler et al., 2021 Giangaspero et al., 2015 Khalifa et al., 2014 Dalu et al., 2011 Ndur et al., 2015
Cryptosporidium	Highly contagious intestinal infection	Brazil Greece Spain Luxembourg	Ogura & Sabogal-Paz, 2021 Ligda et al., 2020 Ramo et al., 2017 Burnet et al., 2014
Blastocystis	Diarrhea, abdominal pain, itching around the anus (back passage), weight loss, excess gas	Cameroon Egypt	Nsoh et al., 2016 El-Shazly et al., 2007

of low socioeconomic status and poor public health, as most of the people in the countries could not access clean and safe water (Chou & Austin, 2020). *Cyclospora cayetanensis* could cause cyclosporiasis, which was a gastro-enteric disease and associated with diarrhea. It was a major health concern in developed countries due to the ingestion of imported food from developing countries. While in developing countries, the transmission of *Cyclospora cayetanensis* was endemic, which was likely associated with water and sanitation (Karanja et al. 2007; El-Karamany et al. 2005). *Cryptosporidium* could cause cryptosporidiosis, which was a diarrheal disease.

There were more than 30 species in the genus *Cryptosporidium* but only two of the species, *Cryptosporidium parvum* and *Cryptosporidium hominis*, usually infected humans. *Cryptosporidium* was transmitted primarily to humans through the fecal–oral route, usually through contaminated water (fecal contamination) (Gerace et al., 2019; Ryan et al., 2014). Therefore, the prevalence of *Cryptosporidium* was significantly higher in developing countries compared to developed countries, as most of the people in the developing countries could not access clean water and had poor sanitation (Bouzid et al., 2018).

2.4 Parasitic Worm

Parasitic worm or helminth infection is one of the crucial health issues in many developing countries and low-income communities. A previous study showed parasitic worm occurrence in water sources in various countries as shown in Table 4. Ascaris lumbricoides, Ancylostoma duodenale, Strongyloides stercoralis, Enterobius vermicularis, Taenia spp., and Trichuris trichiura were the most common helminth found in the water source. These species caused health impacts on humans such as abdominal swelling and pain, nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, a dry cough, and skin rashes (Akinsanya et al., 2021; Bishop & Inabo, 2015).

3 Health Effects of the Biological Pollutants

Most of the diseases caused by biological pollutants involved diarrhea. The diseases involved in diarrhea include cholera, gastroenteritis, salmonellosis, shigellosis, giardiasis, cyclosporiasis, and cryptosporidiosis (Chow et al., 2010). Each year, nearly 1.7 billion children were diagnosed with diarrhea and about 525,000 of the children died from it. Besides, about 991,265 adults died from diarrhea in 2017. Diarrhea could last for several days and without proper treatment, it would leave the body without the water and salts (dehydration) that were necessary for survival, and therefore, lead to death. There were three clinical types of diarrhea, which were acute watery diarrhea (usually lasted for several hours or days, which was usually caused by cholera), acute bloody diarrhea (caused by shigellosis),

 Table 4
 Parasitic worm occurrence in water sources in various countries

Worm	Diseases	Country	Reference
Ascaris lumbricoides	Abdominal swelling and pain, nausea, vomiting	Nigeria Burkina Faso Ghana Sudan	Akinsanya et al., 2021 Kpoda et al., 2015 Ndur et al., 2015 Mohamed et al., 2016
Ancylostoma duodenale	Localized skin rash, abdominal pain, diarrhea	Burkina Faso Sudan Zimbabwe	Kpoda et al., 2015 Mohamed et al., 2016 Dalu et al., 2011
Strongyloides stercoralis	Abdominal pain, bloating, heartburn, intermittent episodes of diarrhea and constipation, a dry cough, and skin rashes	Nigeria Ghana Sudan	Bishop & Inabo, 2015 Ndur et al., 2015 Mohamed et al., 2016
Enterobius vermicularis	Sleep disorders, restlessness, and insomnia	Nigeria Tunisia	Bishop & Inabo, 2015 Khouja et al., 2010
Taenia spp.	Cysticerci, abdominal pain, nausea, diarrhea, constipation	Algeria Tunisia	Hamidi-Chergui et al., 2019 Khouja et al., 2010
Trichuris trichiura	Abdominal pain, tiredness, and diarrhea	Nigeria Algeria	Akinsanya et al., 2021 Hamaidi-Chergui et al., 2019

and persistent diarrhea (usually lasted for 14 days or longer). Among the diarrhea, acute watery diarrhea was fatal which could kill a person within hours if treatment was not given. The treatments of diarrhea included rehydrating with oral rehydration salt solution (which only cost a few cents per treatment), consuming nutrient-rich food, consuming zinc supplements, and more (WHO, 2017). Most of the diseases caused by biological pollutants involved fever as well. The diseases involved in fever include gastroenteritis, salmonellosis, shigellosis, cyclosporiasis, and cryptosporidiosis. Fever was an elevation of body temperature which exceeded the normal range (36.5–37.5 °C), which could normally cause symptoms such as sweating, shivering, headaches, muscle aches, poor appetite, rash, restlessness, and general body weakness (Cabral, 2010; Gerace et al., 2019). Many types of fever could cause different grades of fever. Table 5 shows different grades of fever in terms of body temperature. The diseases caused by the biological pollutants which could cause low-grade fever include gastroenteritis, cyclosporiasis, and cryptosporidiosis (Stuempfig & Seroy, 2020; McConnaughey, 2014; Desai et al., 2012). The diseases which could cause highgrade fever included salmonellosis and shigellosis. High-grade (40.1–41.1 °C) fever could even lead to symptoms such as confusion, excessive sleepiness, irritability, and convulsions (seizures). The treatments for fever included drinking plenty of water or fruit juice to prevent dehydration and cool down the body temperature, eating light foods that were easy to digest, taking medication such as ibuprofen (Advil, Motrin, or others), acetaminophen (Tylenol), or aspirin according to label directions, and more (Desai et al., 2012; McConnaughey, 2014). Most of the diseases caused by the biological pollutant could cause aches in the body and muscle.

 Table 5
 Different grades of fever in terms of body temperature

Grade of fever	Body tem- perature (°C)
Mild/low-grade fever	38.1–39
Moderate-grade fever	39.1-40
High-grade fever	40.1-41.1
Hyperpyrexia	>41.1

These diseases included gastroenteritis, salmonellosis, giardiasis, amoebiasis, shigellosis, cyclosporiasis, and cryptosporidiosis. Gastroenteritis could cause headache, muscle aches, abdominal pain, or joint aches, which could normally last anywhere from 1 to 10 days, while the rest of the diseases could cause abdominal pain, which could last for several days (Percival & Williams, 2014).

4 Treatments of Biological Pollutants in Tap Water

Several ways could be applied to remove the biological pollutants, such as oxidation treatment, ultraviolet radiation, distillation, and biologically active carbon filtration (Sharma & Bhattacharya, 2017 Lai et al., 2021; Salman et al., 2022; Sivamani et al., 2022; Zainip et al., 2021). Oxidation treatment involved using oxidizing chemicals such as chlorine and ozone, to kill pathogenic microorganisms which included bacteria, viruses, and parasites. It was known as chemical disinfection treatment (Kerwick et al., 2005). These oxidizing chemicals could oxidize the cell membrane of the microorganisms, which could destroy or weaken the cell wall and lead to cell lysis and death. Each of the oxidizing chemicals had benefits and limitations respectively. Chlorine, chloramine, or chlorine oxide was the most common strong oxidant for the disinfection process due to its low price and ease of implementation. However, excessive use of this disinfectant could cause an unpleasant taste and irritating effect on the mucous membrane. Ozone was another powerful oxidizing chemical that was effective to kill microorganisms. Using ozone as a disinfectant would leave no disinfectant residual in the water but it was a significant air pollutant that can irritate skin, eyes, respiratory system, and mucous membranes (Sharma & Bhattacharya, 2017). Ultraviolet water treatment was known as one of the physical disinfection treatments which used germicidal ultraviolet light to kill microorganisms (Kerwick et al., 2005). When the biological pollutants were exposed to the light, the light would damage the genetic components of the microbes (Fig. 3). There were several benefits of using the UV light as a disinfectant, which included the ability to inactivate many pathogenic microbes, degrade some organic contaminants, had no effect on minerals in water, and no

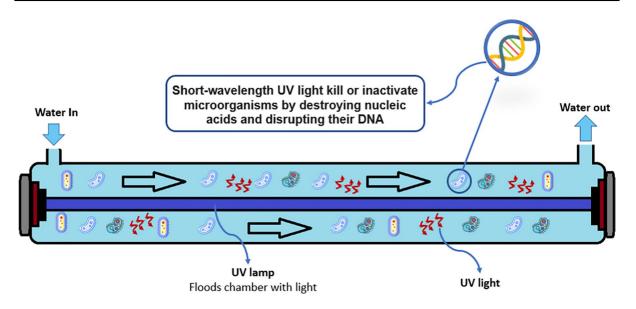


Fig. 3 Mechanism of ultraviolet light water purification [icon from Flaticon Basic License CC3.0 (Creative Commons)]

toxic and nontoxic chemical additives. However, the UV light was not suitable for water which contained high turbidity and high dissolved and suspended solids (Sharma & Bhattacharya, 2017). Distillation was the most common separation technique used to remove microorganisms in water. It was a process of heating contaminated water to boiling point and producing steam. Heat could inactivate the microorganism and the produced steam would rise and enter a cooling section that contained condensing coils. After a certain time, the steam would then cool and condense back to a liquid state. This liquid (water) could have up to 99.5% of impurities removed (Dvorak & Skipton, 2013). However, the method had some limitations. The first limitation was that the method required a lot of energy to heat and cool the water. Second, some contaminants could be carried into the condensate. Third, the method required careful maintenance to ensure purity. Biologically activated carbon filtration utilized granulated active carbon (GAC) to capture microorganisms (Sharma & Bhattacharya, 2017). GAC provided a good solid surface for biofilm formation to protect itself from shear stress or toxic substances (Gibert, et al., 2013). The biofilm formation on GAC consisted of microbial cells which were either immobilized on the surface of the GAC or embedded in an extracellular organic polymer matrix of microbial origin (Gilbert et al. 2013; Wu et al., 2014). Therefore, the microorganisms were attached to the biofilm when they passed through the biofilm. The benefits of the filtration included avoiding chemical disinfection of water treatment processes, reducing the possibility of bacterial regrowth, eliminating the need for coagulant in source filtration processes, and extending the service life of the GEA media (Sharma & Bhattacharya, 2017). The only limitation was that it was necessary to control the growth of the microorganisms on the surface of GAC.

For the disinfection of bacteria, pathogens, and viruses, several techniques have been proposed, including several disinfectants and UV radiation, with chlorination being the most used disinfection approach. However, there is a pressing need to overcome the limitations and risks given by traditional disinfection approaches, which result in the development of toxic disinfection byproducts (DBPs). Chemical disinfectants such as chlorine, chloramines, and ozone, while effective in reducing microbiological infections, can react with diverse elements in natural water to generate DBPs. These typical disinfectants have a high oxidation tendency, which leads to the creation of multiple DBPs (Block & Rowan, 2020; Sills et al., 2020). Electrochemical water disinfection is described as the eradication of germs by passing an electric current through the water and being treated using appropriate electrodes (Kraft, 2008). The electric current causes the electrochemical creation of disinfecting species from the water itself or species dissolved in the water at the phase boundary between the electrodes and the water (Fig. 4).

On the other hand, various nanoparticles have demonstrated outstanding disinfectant qualities without producing dangerous by-products, bringing disinfection's reliability and robustness to new heights. These nano-disinfectants are gentler oxidants that are water inert (Adhikari et al., 2014; Kristanti et al., 2021). Disinfectants induced by nanoparticles have a different mechanism than traditional disinfectants. These nanoparticles can either directly interact with or penetrate the cellular membrane, disrupting the electron transport pathway or causing cell harm by releasing reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Malka et al., 2013). The mechanism of antibacterial actions by NPs is bacterial membrane disruption, production of ROS, bacterial cell membrane penetration by metal ions, and development of intracellular antimicrobial effects, including interactions with DNA and proteins (Fig. 5).

Antibacterial activities of NPs have been proven against gram-positive and gram-negative bacteria in particular. ZnO NPs have been reported to inhibit *Staphylococcus* species, and Ag NPs have antibacterial action against *E. coli* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* which is dose-dependent. According to a previous study, ROS also plays a key role in the interaction between DNA and bacterial membrane cells (Pramani et al., 2012). Additionally, ROS promotes the production of oxidative protein genes, which is a significant role in bacterial cell death (Malka et al., 2013). ROS can specifically target proteins and block the operation of periplasmic enzymes that are essential for bacterial cells to retain their regular shape and physiological functions. ROS can be generated in a variety of ways by NPs. At the moment, the photocatalytic theory is the most frequently held belief. When light irradiation energy greater than or equal to the bandgap is accepted by metal oxide NPs, such as zinc oxide and titanium oxide, the electrons in the valence band are stimulated and transition to the conduction band, resulting in a corresponding hole in the valence band and producing highly reactive reactants on the surface and inside the catalytic material. The antibacterial mechanism of NPs is ROS-induced oxidative damage. Different types of NPs produce different types of ROS by reducing oxygen molecules, and ROS is a generic term for molecules and reactive intermediates with strong positive redox potential. The superoxide radical (O₂), hydroxyl radical (OH), hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) , and singlet oxygen (O_2) are the four kinds of ROS that have distinct levels of activity and dynamics. Table 6 depicts the benefits and drawbacks of various treatment options.

5 Conclusion

Ensuring the elimination of emerging biological contaminants from environmental concerns

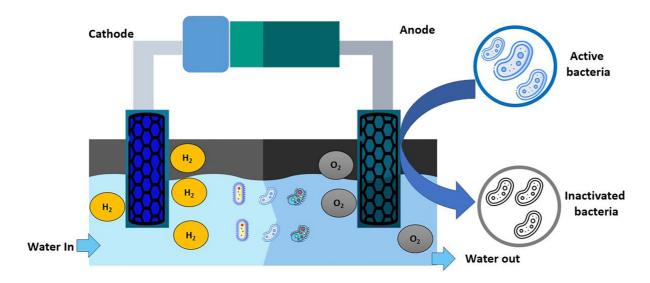


Fig. 4 Electrochemical inactivation of bacteria in drinking water [icon from Flaticon Basic License CC3.0 (Creative Commons)]

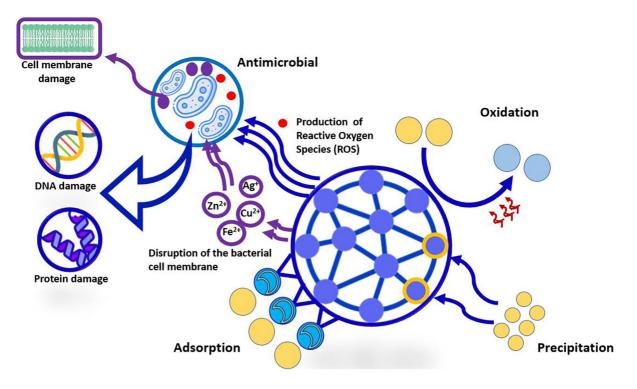


Fig. 5 Mechanism of nanotechnology for water purification [icon from Flaticon Basic License CC3.0 (Creative Commons)]

requires future studies and research to develop robust (bio) remediation processes that are designed on a sustainable basis. Consuming tap water without treatment would most likely become infected with pathogenic microorganisms such as bacteria, viruses, and parasites. The most common symptoms of the infection included diarrhea, which can be fatal if left untreated, fever, and aches and pains in the limbs and muscles. Our analysis indicates that emerging pollutants proceed to pose recent and serious difficulties to tap water, natural resources, soil, ecosystems, and human health. Therefore, it is important to ensure that tap water has undergone treatments that remove biological pollutants before it is delivered. Several treatments could be used to remove the biological pollutants in tap water including oxidation treatment, ultraviolet water treatment, distillation, and biologically activated carbon filter. Each of these treatments had advantages and disadvantages. The number of people infected with the pathogenic microorganisms in industrialized countries was significantly low compared to developing countries. This was because most of the people living in the developing world did not have access to clean water and poor sanitation due to low financial resources. Therefore, oxidation treatment (chlorine) could be the best option for developing countries as it is cheap and effective, although using excessive chlorine could produce the characteristic unpleasant taste and irritating effect on human mucous membrane. In addition, the removal of pollutants from a given environment would be made more predictable through the application of multidisciplinary techniques. Nanoparticles showed a potential application due to excellent disinfection qualities without producing dangerous by-products, taking disinfection reliability and robustness to a new level.

Table 6 The advantages and limitations of different types of treatment

Treatments	Advantages	Limitations	Reference
Oxidation treatment	 Easy to implement Cheap Leave no disinfectant residual in the water 	 Applying excessive chlorine can produce an unpleasant taste and irritating effect on the mucous membrane It is a significant air pollutant and an irritant to the skin, eyes, respiratory tract, and mucous membrane 	Kaarela et al., 2021 Sillanpaa et al., 2017
Ultraviolet water treatment	 Able to destroy or inactivate a wide range of pathogenic microorganisms Does not affect minerals in the water Able to degrade some organic contaminants No additional toxic and nontoxic chemicals are introduced 	 Not suitable for water with high levels of suspended solids, tur- bidity, color, or soluble organic matter Could not operate without electricity 	Li et al., 2019 Timmermann et al., 2015
Distillation	 Removes a wide range of pollutants Continuous Does not rely on physical barriers (filters) Requires no additional disinfecting process 	 Consumes a lot of energy in terms of cooling and heating requirements Some pollutants can be carried into the condensate Requires careful maintenance to ensure purity It is not very effective which is of lower volatility compared to water 	Couto et al., 2019 Kumar & Martin, 2014
Biologically activated carbon filtration	 Avoids chemical disinfection water treatment processes Because of the microbial biodegradation of organic sub- strates on the GAC media, the service life can be extended Bacterial regrowth is less pos- sible Eliminates the need for coagulant in source filtration processes 	• It is necessary to control the growth of the microorganisms on the surface of GAC	Wan et al., 2020
Electrochemical	 Inexpensive, economically, and operationally competitive technology Very efficient in the removal of a wide range of refractory and toxic organic pollutants Environmentally friendly 	 The chemicals used may require high safety specifications Important dependence on pH of the solution, being effective only in acidic conditions Sludge production Hazardous by-products production 	de Vidales et al., 2015 Souza et al., 2021
Nanotechnology	 Ensures a high quality of drinking water Produces less amount of waste per amount of removed contaminants Much more efficient as compared to traditional techniques Intensifies industrial production processes 	• Formation of toxic sludge, the production of concentrated toxic water	Marcos-Hernández et al., 2021 Patanjali et al., 2019; Chung et al., 2021

Acknowledgements The authors thank the National Research and Innovation Agency Republic of Indonesia and Curtin University Malaysia, for facilitating this study. Collaboration from Sejong University Korea, Osmaniye Korkut Ata University Turkey, and Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia is highly appreciated.

Data Availability The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Declarations

Competing Interests The authors declare no competing interests.

References

- Adhikari, M. D., Mukherjee, S., Saikia, J., Das, G., & Ramesh, A. (2014). Magnetic nanoparticles for selective capture and purification of an antimicrobial peptide secreted by food-grade lactic acid bacteria. *Journal of Materials Chemistry B*, 2, 1432–1438.
- Akinsanya, B., Taiwo, A., Adedamola, M., & Okonofua, C. (2021). An investigation on the epidemiology and risk factors associated with soil-transmitted helminth infections in Ijebu East Local Government Area, Ogun State, Nigeria. Scientific African, 12, e00757.
- Al-Abdan, M. A., Bin-Jumah, M. N., Ali, D., & Alarifi, S. (2021). Investigation of biological accumulation and ecogenotoxicity of bismuth oxide nanoparticle in fresh water snail Lymnaea luteola. Journal of King Saud University - Science, 33(2), 101355.
- Alam, M. T., Weppelmann, T. A., Longini, I., De Rochars, V. M., Morris, J. G., Jr., & Ali, A. (2015). Increased isolation frequency of toxigenic Vibrio cholerae O1 from environmental monitoring sites in Haiti. *PLoS ONE*, 10, e0124098.
- Ali, D., Ibrahim, K. E., Hussain, S. A., & Abdel-Daim, M. M. (2021). Role of ROS generation in acute genotoxicity of azoxystrobin fungicide on freshwater snail Lymnaea luteola L. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 28, 5566–5574.
- Ali, D., Almarzoug, M. H. A., Ali, H., Samdani, M. S., Hussain, S. A., & Alarifi, S. (2020). Fish as bio indicators to determine the effects of pollution in river by using the micronucleus and alkaline single cell gel electrophoresis assay. *Journal of King Saud University - Science*, 32(6), 2880–2885.
- Ali, D., Yadav, P. G., Kumar, S., Ali, H., Alarifi, S., & Harrath, A. H. (2014). Sensitivity of freshwater pulmonate snail *Lymnaea luteola* L., to silver nanoparticles. *Chem*osphere, 104, 134–140.
- Ali, M., Nelson, A. R., & Sack, D. A. (2015). Updated global burden of cholera in endemic countries. *PLOS Neglected Tropical Diseases*, 9, e0003832.

- Ashraf, M. A., Maah, M. J., Yusoff, I., & Mehmood, K. (2010). Effects of polluted water irrigation on environment and health of people in Jamber, District Kasur, Pakistan. *International Journal of Basic & Applied Sciences IJBAS-IJENS*, 31–48.
- Al Farraj, D. A., Hadibarata, T., Yuniarto, A., Syafiuddin, A., Surtikanti, H. K., Elshikh, M. S., Al Khulaifi, M. M., & Al Kufaidy, R. (2019). Characterization of pyrene and chrysene degradation by halophilic *Hortaea* sp. B15. *Bioprocess and Biosystem Engineering.*, 42, 963–969.
- Bamigboye, C. O., Amao, J. A., Ayodele, T. A., Adebayo, A. S., Ogunleke, J. D., Abass, T. B., Oyedare, T. A., Adetutu, T. J., Adeeyo, A. O., & Oyedemi, A. A. (2020). An appraisal of the drinking water quality of groundwater sources in Ogbomoso, Oyo state. Nigeria. Groundwater for Sustainable Development, 11, 100453.
- Bako, E., Kagambèga, A., Traore, K. A., Bagre, T. S., Ibrahim, H. B., Bouda, S. C., Bonkoungo, I. J. O., Kabore, S., Zongo, C., Traore, A. S., & Barro, N. (2017). Characterization of diarrheagenic Escherichia coli isolated in organic waste products (cattle fecal matter, manure and slurry) from cattle's markets in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso. International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 14(10), 1100.
- Behnam, H., Saeedfar, S., Mojaveryazdi, F. S. (2013). Biological contamination of the water and its effects. Technology, education, and science international conference.
- Bishop, H. G., & Inabo, H. I. (2015). Incidence of Entamoeba histolytica in well water in Samaru-Zaria, Nigeria. *International Journal of Scientific Research and Engineering Studies*, 3, 16–0022.
- Block, M. S., & Rowan, B. G. (2020). Hypochlorous acid: A review. Journal of Oral Maxillofacial Surgery, 78, 1461–1466.
- Bouzid, M., Kintz, E., & Hunter, P. R. (2018). Risk factors for Cryptosporidium infection in low and middle income countries: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases*, 12, e0006553.
- Burnet, J-B., Penny, C., Ogorzaly, L. & Cauchie, H-M. (2014). Spatial and temporal distribution of Cryptosporidium and Giardia in a drinking water resource: Implications for monitoring and risk assessment. *Science of the Total Environment*, 472, 1023–1035.
- Bwire, G., Debes, A. K., Orach, C. G., Kagirita, A., Ram, M., Komakech, H., Voeglein, J. B., Buyinza, A. W., Obala, T., Brooks, W. A., & Sack, D. A. (2018). Environmental surveillance of Vibrio cholerae O1/O139 in the five African great lakes and other major surface water sources in Uganda. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, *9*, 1560.
- Cabral, J. P. (2010). Water microbiology. Bacterial pathogens and water. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 7, 3657–3703.
- Canh, V. D., Torii, S., Furumai, H., & Katayama, H. (2021). Application of capsid integrity (RT-)qPCR to assessing occurrence of intact viruses in surface water and tap water in Japan. *Water Research*, 189, 116674.
- Chou, A., Austin, R.L. (2020). Entamoeba histolytica. *Stat-Pearls Publishing*.

- Chow, C. M., Leung, A. K., & Hon, K. L. (2010). Acute gastroenteritis: From guidelines to real life. *Clinical and Experimental Gastroenterology*, *3*, 97–112.
- Cidu, R., Frau, F., & Tore, P. (2011). Drinking water quality: Comparing inorganic components in bottled water and Italian tap water. *Journal of Food Composition and Analysis*, 24(2), 184–193.
- Cooper, S. (2001). Helical growth and the curved shape of Vibrio cholerae. *FEMS Microbiology Letters*, 198, 123– 124. d
- Couto, C. F., Santos, A. V., Amaral, M. C. S., Lange, L. C., de Andrade, L. H., Foureaux, A. F. S., & Fernandes, B. S. (2020). Assessing potential of nanofiltration, reverse osmosis and membrane distillation drinking water treatment for pharmaceutically active compounds (PhACs) removal. *Journal of Water Process Engineering*, 33, 101029.
- Crump, J. A., Wain, J. (2017). Salmonella. In International encyclopedia of public health 2nd ed., pp. 425–433.
- Chung, J. H., Hasyimah, N., & Hussein, N. (2021). Application of carbon nanotubes (CNTs) for remediation of emerging pollutants - A review. *Tropical Aquatic and Soil Pollution*, 2(1), 13–26.
- Dalu, T., Barson, M., & Nhiwatiwa, T. (2011). Impact of intestinal microorganisms and protozoan parasites on drinking water quality in Harare, Zimbabwe. *Journal of Water*, *Sanitation and Hygiene for Development*, 1, 153–163.
- da Silva, D. T. G., Ebdon, J., Okotto-Okotto, J., Ade, F., Mito, O., Wanza, P., Kwoba, E., Mwangi, T., Yu, W., & Wright, J. A. (2020). A longitudinal study of the association between domestic contact with livestock and contamination of household point-of-use stored drinking water in rural Siaya County (Kenya). *International Journal of Hygiene and Environmental Health*, 230, 113602.
- Delafont, V., Bouchon, D., Héchard, Y., & Moulin, L. (2016). Environmental factors shaping cultured free-living amoebae and their associated bacterial community within drinking water network. *Water Research*, 100, 382–392.
- Desai, N. T., Sarkar, R., & Kang, G. (2012). Cryptosporidiosis: An under-recognized public health problem. *Tropical Parasitology*, 2, 91–98.
- de Vidales, M. J. M., Sáez, C., Pérez, J. F., Cotilas, S., Llanos, J., Canizares, P., & Rodrigo, M. A. (2015). Irradiationassisted electrochemical processes for the removal of persistent organic pollutants from wastewater. *Journal of Applied Electrochemistry*, 45, 799–808.
- Dolejská, M., Bierosová, B., Kohoutová, L., Literák, I., & Cízek, A. (2009). Antibioticresistant Salmonella and Escherichia coli isolates with integrons and extended spectrum beta-lactamases in surface water and sympatric black-headed gulls. *Journal of Applied Microbiology*, 106, 1941–1950.
- Dunn, N., Juergens, A.L. (2020). Giardiasis. StatPearls Publishing.
- Dvorak, B. I., & Skipton, S. O. (2013). Drinking water treatment: Distillation. University of Nebraska.
- El-Karamany, E. M., Zaher, T. I., & El-Bahnasawy, M. M. (2005). Role of water in the transmission of cyclosporiarsis in Sharkia Governorate, Egypt. *Journal of the Egyptian Society of Parasitology*, 35(3), 953–962.

- El-Shazly, A. M., Elsheikha, H. M., Soltan, D. M., Mohammad, K. A., & Morsy, T. A. (2007). Protozoal pollution of surface water sources in Dakahlia Governorate. *Egypt. Journal of Egyptian Society of Parasitology*, 37, 51–64.
- Emelko, M. B., Schmidt, M. B., & Borchardt, M. A. (2019). Confirming the need for virus disinfection in municipal subsurface drinking water supplies. *Water Research*, 157, 356–364.
- Espinosa, A. C., Mazari-Hiriart, M., Espinosa, R., Maruri-Avidal, L., Méndez, E., & Arias, C. F. (2008). Infectivity and genome persistence of rotavirus and astrovirus in groundwater and surface water. *Water Research*, 42, 2618–2628.
- Fenaux, H., Chassaing, M., Berger, S., Gantzer, C., Bertrand, I., & Schvoerer, E. (2019). Transmission of hepatitis E virus by water: An issue still pending in industrialized countries. *Water Research*, 151, 144–157.
- Frichot, J. J. H., Rubiyatno, & Talukdar, G. (2021). Water quality assessment of roof-collected rainwater in Miri. *Malaysia. Tropical Aquatic and Soil Pollution*, 1(2), 87–97.
- Gall, A. M., Mariñas, B. J., Lu, Y., & Shisler, J. L. (2015). Waterborne Viruses: A Barrier to Safe Drinking Water, 11, e1004867.
- Gerace, E., Presti, V. D., & Biondo, C. (2019). Cryptosporidium infection: Epidemiology, pathogenesis, and differential diagnosis. *European Journal of Microbiology & Immunology*, 9, 119–123.
- Ghosh, S., Padalia, J., Moonah, S. (2019). Tissue destruction caused by Entamoeba histolytica parasite: Cell death, inflammation, invasion, and the gut mic. *Current Clinical Microbiology Reports*, 51–57.
- Giangaspero, A., Marangi, M., Koehler, A. V., Papini, R., Normanno, G., Lacasella, V., Lonigro, A., & Gasser, R. B. (2015). Molecular detection of Cyclospora in water, soil, vegetables and humans in southern Italy signals a need for improved monitoring by health authorities. *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, 211, 95–100.
- Gibert, O., Lefèvre, B., Fernández, M., Bernat, X., Paraira, M., Calderer, M., & Martínez-Lladód, X. (2013). Characterising biofilm development on granular activated carbon used for drinking water production. *Water Research*, 1101–1110.
- Guo, L., Wan, K., Zhu, J., Ye, C., Chabi, K., & Yu, X. (2021). Detection and distribution of vbnc/viable pathogenic bacteria in full-scale drinking water treatment plants. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, 406, 124335.
- Haasdijik, R. A., & Ingen, J. V. (2018). Escherichia hermannii as the sole pathogen in urosepsis: Case report. *New Microbes New Infections*, 22, 100–101.
- Hadibarata, T., Tachibana, S., & Askari, M. (2011). Identification of metabolites from phenanthrene oxidation by phenoloxidases and dioxygenases of *Polyporus* sp. S133. *Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 21, 299–304.
- Halder, J.N., Islam, M.N. (2015). Water pollution and its impact on the human. *Journal of Environment and Human*, 36-46.https://doi.org/10.15764/EH.2015.01005
- Hamaidi-Chergui, F., Errahmani, M. B., & Ouahchia, C. (2019). Occurrence and removal of protozoan cysts and helminth eggs in the Médéa sewage treatment plant

(southeast of Algiers). Annals of Parasitology, 65, 139–144.

- Hennechart-Collette, C., Dehan, O., Fraisse, A., Martin-Latil, S., & Perelle, S. (2020). Evaluation of three different filters and two methods for recovering viruses from drinking water. *Journal of Virological Methods*, 284, 113939.
- Hii, H. T. (2021). Adsorption isotherm and kinetic models for removal of methyl orange and remazol brilliant blue R by coconut shell activated carbon. *Tropical Aquatic and Soil Pollution*, 1(1), 1–10.
- Ishak, Z., Salim, S., & Kumar, D. (2021). Adsorption of methylene blue and reactive black 5 by activated carbon derived from tamarind seeds. *Tropical Aquatic and Soil Pollution*, 2(1), 1–12.
- Jokinen, C., Edge, T. A., Ho, S., Koning, W., Laing, C., Mauro, W., et al. (2011). Molecular subtypes of Campylobacter spp., Salmonella enterica, and Escherichia coli O157:H7 isolated from fecal and surface water samples in the Oldman River watershed, Alberta. *Canada. Water Research*, 45, 1247–1257.
- Jyoti, A., Ram, S., Vajpayee, P., Singh, G., Dwivedi, P. D., Jain, S. K., et al. (2010). Contamination of surface and potable water in South Asia by salmonellae: Culture-independent quantification with molecular beacon real-time PCR. *The Science of the Total Environment*, 408, 1256–1263.
- Kaarela, O., Koppanen, M., Kesti, T., Kettunen, R., Palmroth, M., & Rintala, J. (2021). Natural organic matter removal in a full-scale drinking water treatment plant using ClO2 oxidation: Performance of two virgin granular activated carbons. *Journal of Water Process Engineering*, 41, 102001.
- Kabore, S., Cecchi, P., Mosser, T., Toubiana, M., Traoré, O., Ouattara, A. S., Traoré, A. S., Barro, N., Colwell, R. R., & Monfort, P. (2018). Occurrence of Vibrio cholerae in water reservoirs of Burkina Faso. *Research in Microbiology*, *169*, 1–10.
- Kahler, A. M., Mattioli, M. C., da Silva, A. J., & Hill, V. (2021). Detection of Cyclospora cayetanensis in produce irrigation and wash water using large-volume sampling techniques. *Food and Waterborne Parasitology*, 22, e00110.
- Karanja, R. M., Gatei, W., & Wamae, N. (2007). Cyclosporiasis: an emerging public health concern around the world and in Africa. *African Health Science*, 7(2), 62–67.
- Kerwick, M., Holt, D., Kerwick, M., Reddy, S., & Chamberlain, A. (2005). A methodology for the evaluation of disinfection technologie. *Journal of Water & Health*, 3, 393–404.
- Khalifa, R., Ahmad, A. K., Abdel-Hafeez, E. H., & Mosllem, F. A. (2014). Present status of protozoan pathogens causing water-borne disease in northern part of El-Minia Governorate. *Egypt Journal of the Egyptian Society of Parasitology*, 240, 1–8.
- Khouja, L. B. A., Cama, V., & Xiao, L. (2010). Parasitic contamination in wastewater and sludge samples in Tunisia using three different detection techniques. *Parasitology Research*, 107, 109–116.
- Kotloff, K., Riddle, M., Platts-Mills, J., Pavlinac, P., & Zaidi, A. (2018). Shigellosis. *The Lancet*, 391(10122), 801–812.

- Kpoda, N. W., Oueda, A., Somé, Y. S. C., Cissé, G., Maïga, A. H., & Kabré, G. B. (2015). Physicochemical and parasitological quality of vegetables irrigation water in Ouagadougou city. *Burkina-Faso. African Journal of Microbiological Research*, 9, 307–317.
- Kraft, A. (2008). Electrochemical water disinfection: A short review. *Platinum Metals Review*, 52, 177.
- Kristanti, R. A., Liong, R. M. Y., & Hadibarata, T. (2021). Soil remediation applications of nanotechnology. *Tropical Aquatic and Soil Pollution*, 1(1), 35–45.
- Kumar, D., & Shrutikirti, K. K. (2013). Klebsilla: In drinking water. International Journal of Pharmaceutical Science Invention, 2, 38–42.
- Kumar, N. T. U., & Martin, A. (2014). Co-generation of drinking water and domestic hot water using solar thermal integrated membrane distillation system. *Energy Procedia*, 61, 2666–2669.
- Lai, H. J. (2021). Adsorption of remazol brilliant violet 5R (RBV-5R) and remazol brilliant blue R (RBBR) from aqueous solution by using agriculture waste. *Tropical Aquatic and Soil Pollution*, 1(1), 11–23.
- Leblanc, D., Gagné, M. J., Poitras, E., & Brassard, J. (2019). Persistence of murine norovirus, bovine rotavirus, and hepatitis A virus on stainless steel surfaces, in spring water, and on blueberries. *Food Microbiology*, 84, 103257.
- Lechevallier, M. W., & Seidler, R. J. (1980). Staphylococcus aureus in rural drinking water. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, *3*, 739–742.
- Li, N., Ho, W., Wu, R. S. S., Tsang, E. P. K., Ying, G. G., & Deng, W. J. (2019). Ultra violet filters in the urine of preschool children and drinking water. *Environment International*, 133, 105246.
- Ligda, P., Claerebout, E., Kostopoulou, D., Zdragas, A., Casaert, S., Robertson, L. J., & Sotiraki, S. (2020). Cryptosporidium and Giardia in surface water and drinking water: Animal sources and towards the use of a machine-learning approach as a tool for predicting contamination. *Environmental Pollution*, 264, 114766.
- Lopman, B. A., Steele, D., Kirkwood, C. D., & Parashar, U. D. (2016). The vast and varied global burden of norovirus: Prospects for prevention and control. *PLOS Medicine*.
- Maharjan, A. K., Wong, D. R. E., & Rubiyatno, R. (2021). Level and distribution of heavy metals in Miri River. *Malaysia. Tropical Aquatic and Soil Pollution*, 1(2), 74–86.
- Malka, E., Perelshtein, I., Lipovsky, A., Shalom, Y., Naparstek, L., Perkas, N., Patick, T., Lubart, R., Nitzan, Y., Banin, E., & Gedanken, A. (2013). Eradication of multi-drug resistant bacteria by a novel Zn-doped CuO nanocomposite. Small (weinheim an Der Bergstrasse, Germany), 9, 4069–4076.
- Marcos-Hernández, M., Arrieta, R. A., Ventura, K., Hernández, J., Powell, C. D., Atkinson, A. J., Markovski, J. S., Gardea-Torresdey, J., Hristovski, K. D., Westerhoff, P., Wong, M. S., & Villagrán, D. (2021). Superparamagnetic nanoadsorbents for the removal of trace As (III) in drinking water. *Environmental Advances*, 4, 100046.
- Masciopinto, C., De Giglio, O., Scrascia, M., Fortunato, F., La Rosa, G., Suffredini, E., Pazzani, C., Prato, R., & Montagna, M. T. (2019). Human health risk assessment for

the occurrence of enteric viruses in drinking water from wells: Role of flood runoff injections. *Science of the Total Environment*, 666, 559–571.

- McConnaughey, M. (2014). Life cycle of parasites. In Reference module in biomedical sciences. *Elsevier*.
- Mohamed, M.A., Siddig, E.E., Elaagip, A.H., Edris, A.M.M., 3 Nasr, A.A. (2016). Parasitic contamination of fresh vegetables sold at central markets in Khartoumstate, Sudan. Annals of Clinical Microbiology and Antimicrobials, 15, 17
- Mumy, K. L. (2014). Shigella. In P. Wexler (Ed.), Encyclopedia of toxicology (pp. 254–255). Elsevier.
- Naoumov, N. V. (2007). Hepatitis A and e. Liver Infections, 35(1), 35–38.
- Ng, M. H., & Elshikh, M. S. (2021). Utilization of Moringa oleifera as natural coagulant for water purification. *Industrial and Domestic Waste Management*, 1(1), 1–11.
- Nguyen, K. H., Operario, D. J., Nyathi, M. E., Hill, C. L., Smith, J. A., Guerrant, R. L., Samie, A., Dillingham, R. A., Bessong, P. O., & McQuade, E. T. R. (2021). Seasonality of drinking water sources and the impact of drinking water source on enteric infections among children in Limpopo, South Africa. *International Journal of Hygiene and Environmental Health*, 231, 113640.
- Ndur, S. A., Kuma, J. S. Y., Buah, W. K., & Galley, J. Y. (2015). Quality of sachet water produced at Tarkwa, Ghana. *Ghana Mining Journal*, *15*, 22–34.
- Nsoh, F. A., Wung, B. A., Atashili, J., Benjamin, P. T., Marvlyn, E., Ivo, K. K., & Nguedia, A. J. C. (2016). Prevalence, characteristics and correlates of enteric pathogenic protozoa in drinking water sources in Molyko and Bomaka, Cameroon: A cross-sectional study. *BMC Microbiology*, 16, 268.
- Ofori, I., Maddila, S., Lin, J., & Jonnalagadda, S. B. (2018). Chlorine dioxide inactivation of Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Staphylococcus aureus in water: The kinetics and mechanism. *Journal of Water Process Engineering*, 26, 46–54.
- Ogura, A. P., & Sabogal-Paz, L. P. (2021). Detection and alkaline inactivation of Cryptosporidium spp. oocysts and Giardia spp. cysts in drinking-water treatment sludge. *Journal of Water Process Engineering*, 40, 101939.
- Omarova, A., Tussupova, K., Berndtsson, R., Kalishev, M., & Sharapatova, K. (2018). Protozoan parasites in drinking water: A system approach for improved water, sanitation and hygiene in developing countries. *International Envi*ronmental Research and Public Health, 15(3), 495.
- Parashar, U. D. (2016). Rotavirus vaccines. In B. R. Bloom & P. H. Lambert (Eds.), *The vaccine book* (pp. 265–279). Academic Press.
- Paruch, I., Paruch, A. M., & Sørheim, R. (2019). DNA-based faecal source tracking of contaminated drinking water causing a large Campylobacter outbreak in Norway 2019. *International Journal of Hygiene and Environmental Health*, 224, 113420.
- Patanjali, P., Singh, R., Kumar, A., Chaudhary, P. (2019). Chapter 20 - Nanotechnology for water treatment: A green approach, Editor(s): Shukla, A.K., Iravani, S., In Micro and nano technologies, green synthesis, *Characterization and applications of nanoparticles*, Elsevier, Pp. 485–512.

- Percival, S. L., & Williams, D. W. (2014). Shigella. In S. L. Percival, D. W. Williams, N. F. Gray, M. V. Yates, & R. M. Calmers (Eds.), *Microbiology of waterborne diseases* (2nd ed., pp. 223–236). Academic Press.
- Pramanik, A., Laha, D., Bhattacharya, D., Pramanik, P., & Karmakar, P. (2012). A novel study of antibacterial activity of copper iodide nanoparticle mediated by DNA and membrane damage. *Colloids and Surface b: Biointerfaces*, 96, 50–55.
- Rahman, M. M., Kunwar, S. B., & Bohara, A. K. (2021). The interconnection between water quality level and health status: An analysis of Escherichia coli contamination and drinking water from Nepal. *Water Resources and Economics*, 34, 100179.
- Rakhmanin, Y. A., Ivanova, L. V., Artyomova, T. Z., Gipp, E. K., Zagaynova, A. V., Maksimkina, T. N., Krasnyak, A. V., Zhuravlev, P. V., Aleshnya, V. V., & Panasovets, O. P. (2016). Distribution of bacteria of the Klebsiella strain in water objects and their value in developing of the water caused acute intestinal infections. *Gigiena Sanitaria*, 95, 397–406.
- Ramo, A., Cacho, E. D., Sánchez-Acedo, C., & Quílez, J. (2017). Occurrence of Cryptosporidium and Giardia in raw and finished drinking water in north-eastern Spain. *Science of the Total Environment*, 580, 1007–1013.
- Rezny, B. R., & Evans, D. S. (2020). Vibrio parahaemolyticus. StatPearls Publishing.
- Rincé, A., Balière, C., Hervio-Heath, D., Cozien, J., Lozach, S., Parnaudeau, S., Le Guyader, F. S., Le Hello, S., Giard, J. C., Sauvageot, N., Benachour, A., Strubbia, S., & Gourmelon, M. (2018). Occurrence of bacterial pathogens and human noroviruses in shellfish-harvesting areas and their catchments in France. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, *9*, 2443.
- Rossolini, G., Arena, F., & Giani, T. (2017). Mechanisms of antibacterial resistance. In J. Cohen, W. G. Powderly, & S. M. Opal, Infectious diseases (4th ed., Vol. 2, pp. 1181–1196). *Elsevier*.
- Rubiyatno, Teh, Z. C., Lestari, D. V., Yulisa, A., Musa, M., Chen, T.-W., Darwish, N. M., AlMunqedhi, B. M., & Hadibarata, T. (2022). Tolerance of earthworms in soil contaminated with polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon. *Industrial and Domestic Waste Management*, 2(1), 9–16.
- Rutala, W. A., & Weber, D. J. (2004). Disinfection and sterilization in health care facilities: What clinicians need to know. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*, 39(5), 702–709.
- Ryan, U., Fayer, R., & Xiao, L. (2014). Cryptosporidium species in humans and animals: Current understanding and research needs. *Parasitology*, 141(3), 1667–1685.
- Salman, M., Demir, M., Tang, K. H. D., Cao, L. T. T., Bunrith, S., Chen, T.-W., Darwish, N. M., AlMunqedhi, B. M., & Hadibarata, T. (2022). Removal of cresol red by adsorption using wastepaper. *Industrial and Domestic Waste Management*, 2(1), 1–8.
- Santos, G. A. C., Dropa, M., Rocha, S. M., Peternella, F. A. S., & Razzolini, M. T. P. (2020). Staphylococcus aureus and methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA) in drinking water fountains in urban parks. *Journal of Water Health, 18*, 654–664.
- Schets, F. M., van Wijnen, J. H., Schijven, J. F., Schoon, H., & de RodaHusman, A. M. (2008). Monitoring of

water-borne pathogens in surface waters in Amsterdam, the Netherlands, and the potential health risk associated with exposure to Cryptosporidium and Giardia in these waters. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 74, 2069–2078.

- Scheutz, F., & Strockbine, N. A. (2005). Genus Escherichia. In D. J. Brenner, N. R. Krieg, & J. T. Staley (Eds.), *Bergey's* manual of systematic bacteriology (Vol. 2, pp. 607–623). New York.
- Seas, C., Alarcon, M., Aragon, J. C., Beneit, S., Quiñonez, M., Guerra, H., & Gotuzzo, E. (2000). Surveillance of bacterial pathogens associated with acute diarrhea in Lima. *International Journal of Infectious Diseases*, 96–99.
- Sharma, S., & Bhattacharya, A. (2017). Drinking water contamination and treatment techniques. *Applied Water Science*, 1043–1067.
- Sillanpää, I., Ncibi, M. C., & Matilainen, A. (2018). Advanced oxidation processes for the removal of natural organic matter from drinking water sources: A comprehensive review. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 208, 56–76.
- Simmonds, P. (2012). Hepaciviruses and hepeviruses: Hepatitis C and E viruses; non-A, non-B hepatitis. *In Medical microbiology* (18th ed., pp. 537–545). Churchill Livingstone.
- Sivamani, S., Kavya, M., & Vinusha, V. (2022). Treatment of hot wash liquor using fly ash. *Tropical Aquatic and Soil Pollution*, 2(1), 27–33.
- Souza, F. L., Zougagh, M., Sáez, C., Cañizares, P., Ríos, A., & Rodrigo, M. A. (2021). Electrochemically-based hybrid oxidative technologies for the treatment of micropollutants in drinking water. *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 414, 128531.
- Stauffer, W., & Ravdin, J. I. (2003). Entamoeba histolytica: An update. Current Opinion in Infectious Diseases, 16(5), 479–485.
- Tang, K. H. D. (2021). Interactions of microplastics with persistent organic pollutants and the ecotoxicological effects: A review. *Tropical Aquatic and Soil Pollution*, 1(1), 24–34.
- Thompson, C. N., Duy, P. T., & Baker, S. (2015). The rising dominance of Shigella sonnei: An intercontinental shift in the etiology of bacillary dysentery. *Plos Neglected Tropical Diseaes*, 9, e0003708.
- Timmermann, L. F., Ritter, K., Hillebrandt, D., & Küpper, T. (2015). Drinking water treatment with ultraviolet light for travelers – Evaluation of a mobile lightweight system. *Travel Medicine and Infectious Disease*, 13, 466–474.

- Tripathy, A. S., Sharma, M., Deoshatwar, A. R., Babar, P., Bharadwaj, R., & Bharti, O. K. (2019). Study of a hepatitis E virus outbreak involving drinking water and sewage contamination in Shimla, India, 2015–2016. Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine & Hygiene, 113, 789–796.
- Varughese, E. A., Brinkman, N. E., Anneken, E. M., Cashdollar, J. L., Fout, G. S., Furlong, E. T., Kolpin, D. W., Glassmeyer, S. T., & Keely, S. P. (2018). Estimating virus occurrence using Bayesian modeling in multiple drinking water systems of the United States. *Science of the Total Environment*, 619–620, 1330–1339.
- Wikswo, M. E., Cortes, J., Hall, A. J., Vaughan, G., Howard, C., Gregoricus, N., & Cramer, E. H. (2011). Disease transmission and passenger behaviors during a high morbidity norovirus outbreak on a cruise ship, January 2009. *Clinical Infection Diseases*, 52, 1116–1122.
- Wan, K., Guo, L., Ye, C., Zhu, J., Zhang, M., & Yu, X. (2021). Accumulation of antibiotic resistance genes in full-scale drinking water biological activated carbon (BAC) filters during backwash cycles. *Water Research*, 190, 116744.
- Wang, H., Kjellberg, I., Sikora, P., Rydberg, H., Lindh, M., Bergstedt, O., & Norder, H. (2020). Hepatitis E virus genotype 3 strains and a plethora of other viruses detected in raw and still in tap water. *Water Research*, *168*, 115141.
- World Health Organization. (2011). Guidelines for drinkingwater quality (4th ed.). Switzerland.
- World Health Organization. (2017). *Diarrhoeal disease*. Switzerland.
- World Health Organization. (2020). Hepatitis A. Switzerland.
- Wu, T., Fu, G. Y., Sabula, M., & Brown, T. (2014). Bacterial community in the biofilm of granular activated carbon (GAC) PreBiofilter in bench-scale pilot plants for surface water pretreatment. *World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 30, 3251–3262.
- Zainip, V. J., Adnan, L. A., & Elshikh, M. S. (2021). Decolorization of remazol brilliant violet 5R and procion red MX-5B by Trichoderma species. *Tropical Aquatic and Soil Pollution*, 1(2), 108–117.
- Zhang, H., Tang, W., Chen, Y., & Yin, W. (2020). Disinfection threatens aquatic ecosystems. *Science*, *368*, 146–147.

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.