



A CROSS-SECTIONAL STUDY ON ACCESS TO IMPROVED DRINKING WATER AND SANITATION FACILITIES IN AN URBANISED VILLAGE OF WEST BENGAL

| | |
|---------------------------------|---|
| Pulak Kumar Jana | Assistant Professor, Department of Community Medicine, Murshidabad Medical College, Barahampur, West Bengal, India. |
| Tarun Kumar Sarkar | Assistant Professor, Department of Community Medicine, Murshidabad Medical College, Barahampur, West Bengal, India |
| Mrinmoy Adhikary | Assistant Professor, Department of Community Medicine, Murshidabad Medical College, Barahampur, West Bengal, India |
| Vinoth Gnana Chellaiyan* | Associate Professor, Department of Community Medicine, Chettinad Hospital and Research Institute, Chettinad Academy of Research and Education, Kelambakkam, Chennai Tamilnadu, India. *Corresponding Author |
| Shubho Chowdhuri | MBBS Student, Community Medicine, Murshidabad Medical College, Barahampur, West Bengal, India. |
| Avigyan Sarkar | MBBS Student, Community Medicine, Murshidabad Medical College, Barahampur, West Bengal, India. |
| Himadri Das | Consultant physician, Habra State General Hospital, West Bengal, India. |

ABSTRACT **Background:** Safe and improved water is one of the most important felt needs in public health in developing countries. In India around 37.7 million people are affected by waterborne diseases annually, 1.5 million children are estimated to die of diarrhoea alone. Diarrheal morbidity can be reduced upto 6-20 percent with improvements in water supply and by 32 per cent with improvements in sanitation.

Objectives: To identify sources of drinking water to households in an urbanised village of West Bengal and to assess access to improved drinking water and sanitation facilities among the households of that village.

Materials and Methodology: A cross sectional study was carried out using an interview schedule developed by WHO/UNICEF joint monitoring programme for water supply and sanitation among the households by total enumeration method in Lalgola village in November 2019.

Result: 100% of the households have access to safe and improved water facility. Among them 42% of the houses had piped water supply in the dwelling/yard/plot. 63.7% used some method of purification of drinking water and 7.3% households used packaged drinking water which was already purified. Improved sanitary toilet facility was present in 54.1% of households but only 14.5% of the toilets were situated inside the house. More than two third (76.6%) households disposed the faeces of children less than 3 years old into the open field.

Conclusion: All the households in the village studied had access to safe and improved water supply but almost half of them did not have improved sanitary toilet facility.

KEYWORDS : Improved drinking water, Sanitation

INTRODUCTION:

Safe water is one of the most important felt needs in public health in developing countries in the twenty first century¹. The year 2005 marked the beginning of the "International Decade for Action: Water for Life" and renewed effort to achieve the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) to reduce by half the proportion of the world's population without sustainable access to safe drinking water and sanitation by 2015².

It is estimated by World Health Organization (WHO) and United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) that 1.1 billion people lack access to improved water supplies and 2.6 billion people lack adequate sanitation³. In India around 37.7 million people are affected by waterborne diseases annually, 1.5 million children are estimated to die of diarrhoea alone and 73 million working days are lost due to waterborne disease each year⁴. The resulting economic burden is estimated at \$600 million a year⁵.

Diarrheal morbidity can be reduced by an average of 6-20 per cent with improvements in water supply and by 32 per cent with improvements in sanitation⁵. In India, approximately 72.7 per cent of the rural population does not use any method of water disinfection and 74 per cent have no sanitary toilets⁶. Open air defecation, a common practice among villagers, may lead to contamination of the water supply system and result in outbreaks of diarrhoeal disease^{7,8}. The practice of tethering animals close to human dwellings and the consequent proximity to animal faecal matter further enhances the risk of contamination of drinking water^{9,10}. The key to providing microbiologically safe drinking water lies in understanding the various

mechanisms by which water gets contaminated, and formulating interventions at critical points to decrease and prevent contamination of drinking water¹¹.

The government has undertaken various programmes since independence to provide safe drinking water to the rural masses⁴. "Access to improved water source" is defined as the percentage of population with access to an improved drinking water source in a given year¹². "Access to improved sanitation" is defined as the percentage of population with access to improved sanitation in a given year¹². Improved drinking water sources are defined in terms of the types of technology and levels of services that are more likely to provide safe water than unimproved technologies¹². Improved water sources include household connections, public standpipes, bore wells, protected dug wells, protected springs, and rainwater collections¹². Improved sanitation facilities are defined in terms of the types of technology and levels of services that are more likely to be sanitary than unimproved technologies. Improved sanitation includes connection to a public sewers, connection to septic systems, pour-flush latrines, simple pit latrines and ventilated improved pit latrines¹². There is dearth of knowledge regarding access to safe water and sanitation facilities in developing countries especially in rural areas. This study aims to answer some basic questions pertaining to the drinking water practices and sanitation facilities in an urbanised village of West Bengal.

OBJECTIVES: To identify sources of drinking water to households in an urbanised village of West Bengal and to assess access to

improved drinking water and sanitation facilities among the households of that village.

MATERIALS AND METHODS:

This was a community based cross sectional type of descriptive study carried out in the month of November 2019 in Lalgola village. This village comes under the Krishnapur PHC which is one of the rural field practice area of Murshidabad Medical College and Hospital, Murshidabad. The sampling units were the households of that selected village which were mapped and counted. An interview schedule developed by the WHO/UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation (JMP) in collaboration with experts from three international survey programmes – the Demographic and Health Survey (DHS), the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) and the World Health Survey (WHS) – as well with selected members of the JMP Technical Advisory Group (TAG) was used for the study. All the households in the village were numbered and a total of 134 houses were included in the study. But data were obtained only from 124 households as the rest could not be reached. Informed consent was obtained before taking the interview. Households found to be locked on 3 visits and those who did not give consent were excluded from the study. The interview schedule was administered to the senior most member of the family who was present at the time of the visit. Strict confidentiality of the data and privacy was maintained. Data analysis will be done using SPSS Ver.21 and appropriate statistical methods will be used for drawing inferences. The study has been approved by the Institutional ethical committee of Murshidabad Medical College. (IHEC/MMC/2018/00178)

RESULTS:

Socio-demographic profile: 124 households were interviewed. Out of them, 69 (55.6%) were nuclear families and 55 (44.3%) were joint families. Most of them 80 (64.5%) belong to Islam followed by Hindu religion 44 (35.5%). 75 (60.5%) households belong to socio-economic class III (Lower middle) according to revised Kuppuswamy socio-economic scale, 2018.

Table 1: Distribution of households in the study area according to socio-demographic profile (n=124)

| S no. | Socio demographic factors | | Number (%) |
|-------|--|---------|------------|
| 1 | Type of families | Nuclear | 69 (55.6%) |
| | | Joint | 55 (44.3%) |
| 2 | Religion | Islam | 80 (64.5%) |
| | | Hindu | 44 (35.5%) |
| 3 | Socio-economic class (revised Kuppuswamy scale, 2018) | I | 3 (2.4) |
| | | II | 26 (20.9) |
| | | III | 75 (60.5) |
| | | IV | 20 (16.2) |

Sources of water: Bore well is the most common sources of drinking water supply. Majority 96 (77.4%) of the households utilize water from bore well for drinking purposes. Water is pumped into the storage tank and is made accessible to the households through a piped system. The access to improved water facility was 100% as all the houses derived water from sources which were considered 'improved' according to the definition. 63 (50.8%) households collected water for drinking purpose from a public stand pipe, 32 (25.8%) from a tap present in the yard, 20 (16.2%) from a tap present in the house, 9 (7.2%) used packaged drinking water.

Table 2: Distribution of households in the study area according to source of collection of drinking water (n=124)

| S no | Source of collection of drinking water | Number (%) |
|------|--|------------|
| 1 | Piped water into dwelling | 20 (16.2) |
| 2 | Piped water to yard/plot | 32 (25.8) |
| 3 | Public tap/standpipe | 63 (50.8) |
| 4 | Packaged drinking water | 9 (7.2) |

Majority i.e. 112 (90.3%) households used a pot to transfer drinking water from the source to the household. For domestic purposes other than for drinking, 32 (25.8%) households collected water from a tap present in the yard, 72 (58.1%) from a public stand pipe, 20 (16.2%) from a tap present in the house. 108 (87.1%) households used a pot or bucket for its transfer.

Purification of water: 79 (63.7%) households used some method of purification of drinking water and 9 (7.3%) households used packaged

drinking water which was already purified. It was seen that majority i.e. 49 (55.6%) of them purified drinking water by straining it through a cloth.

Table 3: Distribution of households in the study area according to method of purification of drinking water (n=88)

| S no | Method of purification of drinking water | Number (%) |
|------|--|------------|
| 1 | Straining it through cloth | 49 (55.6) |
| 2 | Water filter | 21 (23.8) |
| 3 | Boiling | 9 (10.2) |
| 4 | Packaged drinking water | 9 (10.2) |

Access to sanitation facilities: Out of the 124 households interviewed 78 (62.9%) had a toilet of which 67 (54.1%) had an improved sanitary toilet facility and 11 (8.9%) households had a shared sanitary toilet which was considered as unimproved sanitary toilet facility. Only 18 (14.5%) of the toilets were situated inside the house whereas a majority i.e. 49 (39.5%) of the toilets were situated outside the house. 95 (76.6%) households disposed the faeces of children less than 3 years old into the open field, 10 (8.1%) into the open drain and only 19 (15.3%) households disposed the faeces in the sanitary toilet.

DISCUSSION:

Around 829 000 people succumb to death yearly due to diarrhoea globally as a result of unsafe drinking-water, sanitation and hand hygiene. Highest number of water related diseases reported in the past includes viral gastroenteritis, hepatitis A, E. coli diarrhoea and legionellosis. In the past 10 years, a positive trend has been observed in access to basic and safely managed drinking-water and sanitation services, indicating a progress towards achieving Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) targets 6.1 and 6.2.¹³

Present study showed that access to improved water facility was 100% as all the houses derived water from source which were considered 'improved' according to our definition as compared to 84.5% access in rural India⁶ and 82% globally¹⁴. In rural India there were 11.8% of houses who had piped water in the dwelling /yard/plot⁶, as compared to this study wherein 42% of the houses had piped water supply in the dwelling /yard/plot. The improvement in the access to drinking water supply can be attributed to various factors among which the initiatives by the Murshidabad Municipality, Lalgola Community Development Block are very important. Bore wells are the main source of water supply to the village households in rural India⁶ and Murshidabad Municipality has created bore wells for the village with pipe lines for the easy accessibility. The responsibility for collecting water was mostly with the adult woman of the family (87%) which was comparable to findings reported from other studies in rural India (82.7%) and pot (90.3%) was the most common mode of transfer or storage of water within the house⁶. The lack of safe drinking water creates a tremendous burden for diarrheal diseases and other debilitating life threatening illnesses for people in the developing world¹⁴. Keeping this in mind we also included the purification of water at the household level in this survey and it was found that 29% of houses do not use any method of purification. However, it is still better than the findings reported from other studies in rural India where 72.7% did not use any method of purification⁶.

Present study also assesses the access to sanitation facilities of the people. Sanitary facilities interrupt the transmission of faecoal disease at its most important source by preventing the contamination of water and soil by human faeces¹⁴. It was found that 54.1% of houses possessed a sanitary toilet as compared to 17.6% houses in rural India⁶. Number of houses having a sanitary toilet within the house infrastructure was found to be as low as 14.5%. This can be attributed to the belief of the people that toilet was an unhygienic place to be present within the house and also an active source of spread of germs. Most often children are neither encouraged nor coaxed to use a toilet, nor is due importance given for safe disposal of their faeces. It was found that 76.6% of houses practiced open air defecation and 8.1% passed stools into open drains adjacent to their houses. The reasons for this indifferent attitude of parents towards children come from the fact that many communities consider faeces of children as harmless.

CONCLUSION:

All the households in the village studied had access to safe and improved water supply as compared to 88% in rural India and 82% globally. 54.1% of the households had improved sanitary toilet facility.

REFERENCES:

1. Sobsey MD, Bartram S. Water quality and health in the new millennium: the role of the World Health Organization Guidelines for Drinking-Water Quality. Forum Nutr 2003;

- 56: 396-405.
2. WHO/UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme for Water Supply and Sanitation. Meeting the MDG drinking water and sanitation target: a mid-term assessment of progress. World Health Organization, Geneva and United Nations Childrens Fund, New York; 2004.
 3. Moe CL, Rheingans RD. Global challenges in water, sanitation and health. *J Water Health* 2006; 4 (Suppl 1): 41-57.
 4. Drinking water quality in rural India: Issues and approaches. [http:// www. waterawards. in/suggestedreading/ wateraid-drinking-water-quality.pdf](http://www.waterawards.in/suggestedreading/wateraid-drinking-water-quality.pdf)
 5. World Health Organization. Water Sanitation and Hygiene Links to Health Facts and Figures. Geneva, World Health Organization; 2004. Available from: [http:// www. who. int/water_sanitation_health/factsfigures2005.pdf](http://www.who.int/water_sanitation_health/factsfigures2005.pdf), Accessed on November 14, 2007.
 3. International Institute for Population Sciences (IIPS) and Macro International. National Family Health Survey (NFHS-3), 2005-06: India: Volume I, Mumbai: IIPS; 2007.
 4. Bora D, Dhariwal AC, Jain DC, Sachdeva V, Vohra JG, Prakash RM, et al. V. cholerae O1 outbreak in remote villages of Shimla district, Himachal Pradesh, 1994. *J Commun Dis* 1997; 29:121-5.
 8. Sarkar R, Prabhakar AT, Manickam S, Selvapandian D, Raghava MV, Kang G, et al. Epidemiological investigation of an outbreak of acute diarrhoeal disease using geographic information systems. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg* 2007; 101 : 587-93.
 9. Howe AD, Forster S, Morton S, Marshall R, Osbrn KS, Wright P, et al. Cryptosporidium oocysts in a water supply associated with a cryptosporidiosis outbreak. *Emerg Infect Dis* 2002; 8: 619-24.
 10. Licence K, Oates KR, Syngé BA, Reid TM. An outbreak of E. coli O157 infection with evidence of spread from animals to man through contamination of a private water supply. *Epidemiol Infect* 2001; 126: 135-8.
 11. Trevett AF, Carter R, Tyrrel S. Water quality deterioration: a study of household drinking water quality in rural Honduras. *Int J Environ Health Res* 2004; 14: 273-83.
 12. Access to improved drinking-water sources and to improved sanitation (percentage). <http://www.who.int/whosis/indicators/compendium/2008/2wst/en/>
 13. Water and sanitation- data and statistics. <http://www.euro.who.int/en/health-topics/environment-and-health/water-and-sanitation/data-and-statistics>
 14. Global water supply and sanitation assessment report 2000. [http:// www. who. int/docstore/water_sanitation_health/Globassessment/GlobalTOC.html](http://www.who.int/docstore/water_sanitation_health/Globassessment/GlobalTOC.html)