



Prevalence and Intensity of Urinary Schistosomiasis among Residence: A Case Study in River Benue, Adamawa State, North Eastern Nigeria

R. S. Naphtali^{1*} and J. S. Ngwamah¹

¹Department of Zoology, School of Life Sciences, Modibbo Adama University of Technology, Yola, Nigeria.

Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration between both authors. Both authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Article Information

DOI: 10.9734/AJRIZ/2019/v2i230065

Editor(s):

(1) Dr. Farzana Khan Perveen, Associate Professor, Department of Zoology, Shaheed Benazir Bhutto University (SBBU), Pakistan.

Reviewers:

(1) Eman Hashem, Damanhour University, Egypt.

(2) Bala, Aminu Yabo, Usmanu Danfodiyo University, Nigeria.

Complete Peer review History: <http://www.sdiarticle3.com/review-history/46793>

Received 10 November 2018

Accepted 24 January 2019

Published 22 July 2019

Original Research Article

ABSTRACT

Background: In Nigeria, an infection caused by *Schistosoma haematobium* has been known to be endemic especially among residents along Rivers, and it is responsible for considerable public health problems.

Aims: This study aimed at assessing the prevalence and intensity of infection among the vulnerable communities.

Study Design: A cross-sectional study involving 1,404 participants within age bracket 5-55 years old and above, in ten communities across five Local Government Areas along River Benue in Adamawa State, was conducted. Urine samples were collected from randomly selected study subjects and were examined using centrifugation and sedimentation techniques. The intensity of infection was ascertained as eggs/10mls of urine and values expressed as Mean \pm SD. Data on demography were obtained by structured questionnaires. The simple percentage was used and Chi-square as well to ascertain the associations between prevalence and other parameters. $P < 0.05$ was considered as significant.

Results and Discussion: The overall prevalence and intensity of infection were 23.2% and 513 ± 0.05 eggs/10 ml of urine respectively. Kabawa had the highest infection rate and intensity with

*Corresponding author: Email: rebnap2006@yahoo.com, sngwamah@gmail.com;

12.4% and 80 ± 0.02 respectively. The lowest was recorded in Kangle (12.3% and 24 ± 0.82 eggs/10 ml), with a significant association between parasite intensity and community ($p < 0.05$). Gender-related prevalence and intensity revealed that males (25.5% and 289 ± 4.66 eggs/10 ml) were more affected than the females (20.8% and 206 ± 4.49 eggs/10 ml). Participants within age bracket 5-14 years old had the highest prevalence (36.6%) and intensity (142 ± 0.005 eggs/10 ml), while the lowest was recorded among age group 45-54 years old with 9.0% and 42 ± 0.040 eggs/10 ml. Prevalence and intensity of infection was highest among Subjects fetching water from River/Streams (31.8%, 46 ± 0.080 egg/10 ml of urine), whereas the least were observed among borehole fetchers (13.8% and 241 ± 0.302 egg/10 ml of urine). Occupational related prevalence and intensity were highest among Fishers with 35.0% and 188 ± 0.012 egg/10 ml of urine. Chemotherapy and Health Education should be advocated across the study area.

Conclusion: This study has established that *Schistosoma haematobium* infection is prevalent among the residents living along the River Benue in Adamawa State, Nigeria. Although infection was more among the males than the females, there was no significant difference, but there were significant differences in prevalence and intensity with age, the source of drinking water, and occupation.

Keywords: Prevalence; intensity; *Schistosoma haematobium*; River-Benue; occupation.

1. INTRODUCTION

Schistosomiasis is an infectious disease caused by parasitic worms found in fresh water. It remains one of the most prevalent neglected tropical diseases [1]. In terms of impact, it is the second most socioeconomically devastating parasitic disease after malaria. Schistosomiasis is an intestinal or urogenital disease caused predominantly in humans by infection with *Schistosoma mansoni*, *Schistosoma haematobium*, or *Schistosoma japonicum* (Gryeels et al., 2006). The less prevalent SSspecies are *S. mekongi* and *S. intercalatum* [1]. The parasite lives in certain types of freshwater snails such as *Bulinus* species, serving as intermediate hosts. The infectious form of the parasites is known as cercariae, which emerges from the snail, hence contaminating water (Daniel et al., 2014, Gryeels et al., 2006). Due to the aquatic nature of the intermediate snail host, freshwater contact is usually required for an individual to be exposed to infection. Hence, Individuals become infected when cercariae, released by freshwater snails, penetrate the skin during contact with contaminated water [2]. The disease is most common in the tropical areas of the globe especially, in the rural areas where only the surface water bodies are the sources of water supply (Gryeels et al., 2006). Intestinal schistosomiasis presents with bloody diarrhoea and bowel ulceration, portal hypertension, and hematemesis, while Urogenital schistosomiasis is characterized by haematuria, dysuria, bladder wall pathology, hydronephrosis, kidney failure, growth retardations and it can also lead to squamous cell carcinoma. In adults, the infection

can cause genital ulcers and other lesions resulting in poor reproductive health, with sexual dysfunction and infertility [3]. The work capacity of rural inhabitants is drastically reduced because of the weakness caused by the parasites.

World Health Organization [4] reported that 85% of more than 207 million people who live in Africa are infected with schistosomiasis. An estimated 700 million people are at risk of the infection in 78 countries where the disease is endemic, and where prevalence rates can exceed 50% in local populations. Globally, an estimated 12,000 direct deaths from schistosomiasis were reported in 2010 [5], while the WHO in 2014 estimated more than 200,000 annual deaths [6]. Generally, agricultural work, domestic chores, recreational activities and playing habits of school-aged children, such as swimming and or fishing in infested water brings about predisposition to infection by schistosomes.

In Nigeria, Schistosomiasis is a disease of considerable and growing importance due to inadequate potable water and activities related to water resource development schemes for irrigation, fishing and hydro-electricity. Reports on Nigeria have revealed that it has the greatest number of cases of schistosomiasis worldwide [7,8], with an alarming figure of about 29 million infected people, among which 16 million are children, and about 101 million people are at risk of WHO, [9], Adenowo et al. [10]. The National Schistosomiasis Control Programme in collaboration with the Federal Ministry of Health was initiated in 1988 and deliberation on the possibility of bringing down the prevalence by

50% within 5 years in operational areas made [11]. However, these efforts were hampered by the lack of baseline data on the distribution of the disease on a broad scale. Adamawa State was not among the areas mapped. Thus, schistosomiasis baseline data for any control strategic plan is scarce or lacking in the State. This makes intervention and control measures more difficult as such information is crucial to identify and implement effective control measures. This study was carried out to determine the current status of urogenital schistosomiasis among the inhabitants of ten (10) communities along River Benue of Adamawa State, North Eastern Nigeria.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Study Area

The study was conducted in ten communities selected across five Local Government Areas along River Benue in Adamawa State which is located in the north eastern part of Nigeria. Adamawa State lies between latitude 7° and 11°N of the equator and between longitude 11° and 14° east of Greenwich Meridian. It shares boundary with Taraba State to the South and with Gombe State to the West. It also shares a boundary with Borno State to Northwest and international boundary with Cameroun republic to the East. The State covers a land mass of about 39,741 square kilometers, having mountainous land with River Benue, Gongola and Yadzaram running from the North to the South [12]. It has an estimated of population about 3,168,101, made up of 1,606,123 males and 1,561,978 females; giving a population density of 80 people per km² [13]. The State lies within the tropical region having dry and rainy seasons. The rainy season begins from April and last till October with a mean annual rainfall of 759 mm in the Northern part and 197 mm is the Southern parts. The wettest months are August and September. The dry season starts from November and ends in April which is the hammartan period when dust laden North-East trade winds blows from the Sahara desert with a marked effect on the climate of the state. Although the temperature varies from place to place due to altitude and proximity to the Sahara desert, the average minimum and maximum temperature recorded is 25°C and 40°C respectively.

All kinds of farming thrive in the area, including fishing and animal rearing. Majority of the farmers are into subsistence farming. The

locations selected for this study are close to the rivers and the majority of the participants depend on such rivers as their major source of water and use for fishing, irrigation, washing and other activities.

2.2 Population and Sampling

At the commencement of the study, consent was sought and obtained from the village heads of the study locations. All adult participants, Parents and guardians of younger children and children over 12 years of age were given consent form and were enlightened on the importance of the study. Ethical approval was obtained from the ethical committee of State Ministry of Health, Yola, Adamawa State. The population of the study was randomly selected from communities along river Benue which includes children and adults, males and females of different occupations across ten communities of the Study Area. Children who could not control their bowel and urine were not enrolled into the study. One thousand four hundred (1,404) volunteers were randomly selected across the Local Government Areas.

2.3 Collection of Urine Sample

Urine samples were collected from a total of ten communities across five Local Government Areas along River Benue in Adamawa State, by random selection on 1,404 participants that volunteered. This was done between 10.00 am and 1.00 pm corresponding to peak of egg output in urine (WHO, 1991; [14]). Clean, dry screw capped specimen bottles were given to each of the participants on the day of collection to avoid specimen outside the specified time. Bottles were labelled immediately and accordingly to avoid mix up. The participants were instructed on how to collect their urine samples without contamination, and to include the last drops of urine, as this is known to contain the highest number of eggs if present [14]. The samples were immediately preserved in 1% household bleach [15] and taken to Agape Medical laboratory and Diagnosis, Yola and Institute of Infectious Disease for Poverty (IIDP) Laboratory MAUTECH, Yola, for examination.

2.4 Examination of Urine Sample

Sedimentation method was used to examine the urine samples collected. Each urine sample was thoroughly mixed. About 10 mls of it was transferred into a centrifuge tube and spun at

1500 rpm for 5 minutes. The supernatant was decanted and a drop of the sediment was placed on a clean grease-free glass slide, covered with a cover slip and viewed under microscope using x10 and x40 objectives. Samples were considered positive or negative based on the presence or absence of ova of *S. haematobium*. The parasite is characterized by a terminal spine, large, oval in shape and pale yellowish brown in colour [14]. Ova of *S. haematobium* were identified and to determine the intensity of the infection in each case, the intensity was reported as the number of ova/10 ml of urine.

2.5 Data Analysis

Data obtained were analyzed with SPSS, version 22. Simple percentage, Chi-square test and mean \pm SD was used to analyze the intensity, differences and association of the findings. $p < 0.05$ was considered as significant and $p > 0.05$ as insignificant.

3. RESULTS

3.1 Prevalence and Intensity of Urogenital Schistosomiasis across the Communities

The prevalence and intensity of urogenital schistosomiasis across the communities are shown in Table 1. Of 1,404 participants examined from the 10 communities sampled, 326(23.2%) and 495 ± 7.01 eggs/10 ml were recorded for prevalence and intensity, respectively. Among the communities, participants from Ribado had the highest prevalence (30.0%) with intensity of 72 ± 0.87 eggs/10 ml of urine, followed by Dolo with 35(29.2%) and 38 ± 1.18 eggs/10 mls of urine, while Hoki, 16(15.7) and 34 ± 0.43 eggs/10 ml had the least prevalence. Others were Kwale (27.0% and 77 ± 0.51 eggs/10 ml), Bandawa (21.8% and 51 ± 0.33 eggs/10 ml) and Kabawa (23.5% and 80 ± 0.93 eggs/10 ml of urine) with the highest intensity of infection. Statistical analysis showed a significant association between prevalence and intensity amongst the communities in question ($p < 0.05$). This result revealed that of the total number examined, males (11.7%, 289 ± 3.94 eggs/10 mls of urine) had higher prevalence and intensity of infection than their female (11.5%, 206 ± 3.07 eggs/10 mls of urine) counterpart irrespective of the communities. Prevalence rates of infection were (185/725; 25.5%) and (141/679; 20.8%) among the males and females examined

respectively. However, there was no statistical difference ($p > 0.05$). Prevalence and intensity by age bracket showed 39.2% and 161 ± 1.96 eggs/10 mls of urine among age bracket 5-14 years old, followed by those within age bracket 15-24 years with 97(30.3%) and 119 ± 0.97 eggs/10 mls of urine, while the lowest was among age group 55 years and above (8.7% and 19 ± 0.83 eggs/10 mls of urine). Chi-square analysis showed a significant difference between prevalence and intensity in relation to age group ($p < 0.05$).

3.2 Predisposing Factors Surrounding the Participants

Table 2, presents some predisposing factors surrounding the participants which prone them to urogenital schistosomiasis. The prevalence and occurrence of urogenital schistosomiasis in relation to the participants' source of water revealed that participants that patronized Rivers and Streams as a source of water, had the highest prevalence (171/516; 33.1%) and intensity (285 ± 3.8 eggs/10 mls of urine) of infection. This was followed by those drinking from wells (114/526; 21.7%, 169 ± 1.96 eggs/10 mls of urine), while subjects who were drinking from Borehole had the lowest infection rate of 41/362 (11.33%) with the intensity of 41 ± 1.25 eggs/10 mls of urine. This finding has revealed that, there is an association between prevalence and intensity in relation to the source of drinking water ($P < 0.05$). Prevalence of infection was higher in the wet season (31.2%, 225 ± 1.64 eggs/10 mls of urine) than in dry season (17.7%, 254 ± 0.032 eggs/10 mls of urine), although with a higher intensity of infection, and there was a significant relationship between infection and season ($p < 0.05$). With regard to occupation, fishermen (80/200; 40.0%, 188 ± 2.20) were the most affected closely followed by farmers (77/253; 30.4%, 134 ± 1.20), whereas businessmen (23/292; 7.9% were the least infected.

4. DISCUSSION

Schistosomiasis remains a major public health problem in many developing countries particularly among rural populations in sub-Saharan Africa. Nigeria is considered as the most endemic country for schistosomiasis, with approximately 29 million infected people among which 16 million are children, and about 101 million people are at risk of infection [7,8,9,10].

Table 1. Prevalence and intensity of urinary schistosomiasis by community, gender, age, source of water and season group in the study area

S/No	Predisposition factors	No. examined	Prevalence (%)	P. value	Eggs/10 mls Mean intensity	P. value	Gender			
							Males		Females	
							Prevalence (%)	Intensity	Prevalence (%)	Intensity
1	Dolo	120(8.5)	35(29.2)	0.03	38 ±1.18	0.88	21(17.5)	25±0.66	14(11.7)	13±0.52
2	Ribado	120(8.5)	36(30.0)	0.01	72±0.87	0.03*	18(15.0)	39±0.52	18(15.0)	33±0.35
3	Labondo	240(17.1)	58(21.6)	0.21	38±0.6	0.07	19(7.9)	27±0.55	39(16.3)	11±0.05
4	Kangle	180(12.8)	39(21.6)	0.00	24±0.62	0.06	27(15.0)	15±0.34	12(6.7)	9±0.28
5	Zuran	96(6.8)	25(26.0)	0.12	52±0.68	0.12	10(10.4)	29±0.19	15(15.6)	23±0.49
6	Kwale	96(6.8)	26(27.0)	0.22	77±0.51	0.25	13(13.5)	35±0.20	13(13.5)	42±0.31
7	Bandawa	174(12.4)	38(21.8)	0.06	51±0.33	0.01*	14(8.0)	27±0.12	24(13.8)	24±0.21
8	Kanti	174(12.4)	29(16.7)	0.01	29±0.86	0.06	20(11.5)	13±0.63	9(5.2)	16±0.23
9	Kabawa	102(12.4)	24(23.5)	0.03	80±0.93	0.18	11(10.8)	54±0.59	13(12.7)	26±0.34
10	Hoki	102(12.4)	16(15.7)	0.11	34±0.43	0.20	11(10.8)	25±0.14	5(4.9)	9±0.29
Total		1404(100)	326(23.2)		495±7.01		164(11.7)	289±3.94	162(11.5)	206±3.07
1	5-14	344(24.5)	135(39.2)	0.02	161±1.96	0.02*	77(22.4)	99±1.02	58(16.9)	62±0.94
2	15-24	320(22.8)	97(30.3)	0.11	119±0.97	0.07	55(17.19)	71±0.32	42(13.1)	48±0.65
3	25-34	268(19.9)	45(16.8)	0.17	100±1.46	0.13	17(6.3)	58±0.93	28(10.5)	42±0.53
4	35-44	158(11.3)	24(15.2)	0.43	61±0.95	0.11	8(5.1)	35±0.62	16(10.1)	26±0.33
5	45-54	119(8.5)	15(12.6)	0.22	35±0.84	0.19	5(4.2)	17±0.51	10(8.4)	18±0.33
6	55 & above	115(8.2)	10(8.7)	0.50	19±0.83	0.15	2(1.7)	9±0.54	8(7.0)	10 ±0.29
Total		1404(100)	326(23.2)		495±7.01		164(11.7)	289±3.94	162(11.5)	206±3.07

*Significant (p<0.0%)

Table 2. Distribution and intensity of schistosomiasis in relation to source of water, season and occupation in relation to gender in the study area

S/No	Predisposition factors (Source of water)	No. Examined	Prevalence (%)	P. value	Mean intensity (Eggs/10 mls)	P. value	Gender			
							Male		Female	
							Prevalence (%)	Intensity	Prevalence (%)	Intensity
1	Borehole	362(25.8)	41(11.3)	1.04	41±1.25	0.12	18(5.0)	21±0.95	23(6.4)	20±0.30
2	Well	526(37.5)	114(21.7)	0.9	169±1.96	0.32	48(9.1)	105±1.09	66(12.5)	64±0.87
3	River/ Stream	516(36.8)	171(33.1)	0.04*	285±3.8	0.11	98(19.0)	163±1.90	73(14.2)	122±1.90
	Total	1404(100)	326(23.2)		495±7.01		164(11.7)	289±3.94	162(11.5)	206±3.07
Season										
1	Wet	702(50.0)	219(31.2)	1.07	225±1.64	0.23	99(14.1)	130±1.32	120(14.7)	95±0.32
2	Dry	702(50.0)	107(15.2)	0.08	270±5.37	0.210	65(9.3)	159±2.62	42(6.7)	111±2.75
	Total	1404(100)	326(23.2)		495±7.01		164(11.7)	289±3.94	162(11.5)	206±3.07
Occupation										
1	Farming	253(18.4)	77(30.4)	0.55	134±1.20	0.012	42(16.6)	88±1.20	35(13.8)	46±0.00
2	C/Servant	184(13.1)	30(16.3)	0.11	57±1.31	1.021	10(5.4)	32±0.21	20(10.9)	25±1.10
3	Student	335(23.9)	84(25.1)	0.07	70±2.00	0.340	49(14.6)	41±0.20	35(10.5)	29±1.80
4	Business	292(20.8)	23(7.9)	0.01*	36±0.30	0.111	5(1.7)	12±0.22	18(6.2)	24±0.08
5	H/wife	135(9.6)	32(23.7)	0.10	10±0.00	0.0	0.00	0±0.00	32(23.7)	10±0.00
6	Fishing	200(14.2)	80(40.0)	0.03*	188±2.20	0.943	58(29.0)	116±2.11	22(11.0)	72±0.09
	Total	1404(100)	326(23.2)		495±7.01		164(11.7)	289±3.94	162(11.5)	206±3.07

*Significant (p<0.0%)

The present study revealed that the overall prevalence and intensity of *urogenital schistosomiasis* in the study area were 23.2%, 495 ± 7.01 eggs/10 ml with a significant association between prevalence and intensity amongst the communities examined ($p < 0.05$). The 23.2% prevalence is high compared to the national average prevalence of about 13%, although lower than the prevalence rate of 36.7% previously reported by Naphtali et al. [16] in Numan LGA of Adamawa State. This implies that the disease is still of public health concern in the study area. The prevalence rate recorded in this study is similar to the reports by Obadiah et al. [17] who observed 21.5% *S. haematobium* infection in some parts of Benue State, 20.8% among pregnant women in Yewa North Local Government Area, Ogun State [18] and 23.8% in Yemen [19], but higher than other rates reported by previous studies; 8.3% in Hausa communities in Kano State [7], 9.8% in preschool -aged children in Yewa North Local Government Area [18], 11.5% in Zaria [20], 15.3% in Ebonyi State [21], and 18.7% in Plateau and Nasarawa States of Nigeria [22]. However, higher prevalence rates of endemicity of 55% in Guma LGA of Benue State [23], 46.6% in Ogbadibo LGA of Benue State [24], 44.2% in Minjibir LGA of Kano State [25] and 41.5% in Buruku/ Katsina Ala LGA [26] have been reported. The high intensity of *S. haematobium* infection observed in this study agrees with the report by Naphtali et al. [16]. The high prevalence observed in this study may be attributed to the general behaviour of the participants living close to river/streams who love to engage themselves in activities such as fishing and farming which could expose them to infested water bodies with cercariae, leading to infection. The difference between the prevalence rate of this study and those previously reported may be due to differences in the level of awareness of factors influencing transmission of the disease. Similarly, this could be as a result of socio-cultural, believe, biological, ecological and economic characteristics differences. There was a significant difference between *S. haematobium* infection and communities of the participants ($p < 0.05$). The natural water bodies around the various communities and the presence of snail intermediate hosts might have served as the main transmission points.

Our findings showed that the prevalence and intensity of infection was higher among male (25.5%) participants compared to females (20.8%), though there was no statistical significant difference ($p > 0.05$). This agrees with

many previous reports in Nigeria [17,16,7,27,28, 23,21,29,30,24] and Southwestern Ethiopia [31]. This gender-related differences may be attributed to the facts that, males engaged intensively in water contact related occupation than female in the study Areas. This may also be partially attributed to religious and cultural practices. For instance, in Islamic communities, females are not allowed to swim or bathe in the open water sources and also do not participate in fishing and irrigation activities. By contrast, higher prevalence rates of schistosomiasis were reported among females in comparison to males in Zamfara State [15], Ghana [32], and Limpopo Province [33]. This may be indications that females were more exposed to infection through infested water contact activities in their study areas.

The present study showed a significant difference in prevalence and intensity between the age groups ($p < 0.05$). Those within age bracket 5-14 years old had the highest prevalence (39.2%) and intensity (161 ± 1.96 eggs/10 mls of urine) rates of infection followed by age bracket 15-24 years old (30.3%, 119 ± 0.97), than other age groups. This is similar to other findings reported by Salwa et al. [7], Moyo et al. [34], Olulabi et al. [35], Hottez et al. (2009) and Mbata et al. [24]. This could be attributed to their frequent visit to streams and rivers in the quest to swim, bath as well as farming and fishing both in the dry season (irrigation) and rice cultivation during the raining season; thus, they are more exposed than the other age groups. Also, the high intensity of infection recorded in subjects within these age range is expected, because, in younger age group infections, egg excretion is more pronounced than in older infections. The high intensity in these age groups may be attributed to increased worm burden and the high fecundity rate of parasite, while the low intensity of infections encountered in adult and elderly subjects with age range of 35–44 years and above could be due to reduced schistosome worms and less egg excretion, and could also be attributed to the development of immunity known to occur in the infection.

In the present study, the prevalence and intensity of infection with respect to the source of water showed a significant difference ($p < 0.05$). The highest prevalence ((33.1%) and intensity (285 ± 3.8) of infection observed among participants who were using river/streams as their source of water in this study is in line with

the findings of Obadiah et al. [17] in Benue State, Salwa, et al. [7] in Kano State, Kiran et al. [36], Bolaji et al. [27] in Kwara State and Hany et al. [19] in Yemen, who reported highest prevalence and intensity among those that depended on Streams and River water as their only source of water in their respective study. Open water body such as streams/rivers which may be contaminated with human and animal excreta is generally known to be a source of *S. haematobium* infection. Therefore, their frequent visit and prolonged contact with such lead to being exposed to the infective stage (cercariae) of the parasite. With regards to the season, a higher prevalence rate of infection of 31.2% was observed during the rainy season than dry season (15.2%).

It has been reported that in some regions where men are primarily freshwater fishermen or farmers using irrigation, they have higher rates of schistosomiasis. In the present study, the highest prevalence (40.0%) and intensity (188 ± 2.20) rates of infection were observed among fishermen. This is consistent with the reports of Naphtali et al. [16] who recorded 39.3% in Numan, Adamawa State, 47.6% in Edo State [37] and 32.7% in Keffi LGA of Nasarawa State [28], but contrary to report by Dennis et al. [38] who observed highest prevalence (36.2%) among farmers. This disparity could be associated with the facts that fishermen have more chances to frequently visit streams and rivers, spending most of their time fishing which may expose them to infection.

5. CONCLUSION

This study has established that *Schistosoma haematobium* infection is prevalent among the residents living along River Benue in Adamawa State, Nigeria. Although infection was more among the males than the females, there was no significant difference, but there were significant differences in prevalence and intensity with age, the source of drinking water, and occupation. Screening of other family members and treating the infected individuals should be adopted by the public health authorities in combating this infection in these communities. Also, periodic drug distribution, health education regarding personal hygiene and good sanitary practices, precautionary protective measures, provision of clean and safe drinking water are imperative among these communities in order to curtail the transmission and morbidity caused by schistosomiasis.

CONSENT

Consent was sought and obtained from the village heads of the study locations. All adult participants, Parents and guardians of younger children and children over 12 years of age were given consent form and were enlightened on the importance of the study.

ETHICAL APPROVAL

Ethical approval was obtained from the ethical committee of State Ministry of Health, Yola, Adamawa State.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCES

1. Nawal MN. Schistosomiasis: Health effects on women. Reviews in Obstetric & Gynecology; 2010.
2. Anderson RM, Turner HC, Farrell SH, Truscott JE. Studies of the transmission dynamics, mathematical model development and the control of schistosome parasites by mass drug administration in human communities. Adv Parasitol. 2016;94:199–246.
3. Gray DJ, Ross AG, Li YS, McManus DP. Diagnosis and management of schistosomiasis. Bmj. 2011;342:d2651.
4. World Health Organization. Global Burden Disease Estimate Index, Geneva; 2018.
5. Lozano R, Mohsen N, Kyle F, Stephen L. Global and regional mortality from 235 causes of death for 20 age groups in 1990 and 2010: A systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2010. Lancet. 2012;380(9859):2095-212.
6. World Health Organization. Schistosomiasis Fact Sheet; 2014.
7. Salwa D, Hesham M, Ithoi I, Jamaiah I, Awatif MA, Abdulhamid A, Hany S, Wahib MA, Mona A, Fatin N, Nabil A, Johari S. Prevalence and risk factors of Schistosomiasis among Hausa communities in Kano State, Nigeria. Rev Inst Med Trop Sao Paulo. 2016;58:54. DOI: 10.1590/S1678-9946201658054
8. Hotez PJ, Asojo OA, Adesina AM. Nigeria "Ground Zero" for the high prevalence neglected tropical diseases. PLoS Negl. Trop. Dis. 2012;6:54.

9. World Health Organization. Schistosomiasis: Progress report 2001-2011 and strategic plan 2012-2020. Geneva; 2013.
10. Adenowo AF, Oyinloye BE, Ogunyinka BI, Kappo AP. Impact of human schistosomiasis in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Braz. J. Infect. Dis.* 2015;19:196–205.
11. Ekpo UF, Mafiana CF. Epidemiological studies of urinary schistosomiasis in Ogun State, Nigeria identification of high-risk communities. *Niger J Parasitol.* 2004;25:111–119.
12. Adebayo AA, Tukur AL. Adamawa State in Maps publications Department of Geography, Federal University of Technology Yola, in co-operate with paraclete publications. A Division of Paraclete and Sons Nigeria; 1999.
13. National Population Commission. National Population Census; 2006.
14. Cheesbrough M. Laboratory-practice-in-tropical-countries-part-1. 2. 2nd Ed. Cambridge University Press; 2009.
15. Ladan MU, Abubakar U, Abubakar K, Bunza MDA, Nasiru M, Ladan MJ. Gender and age specific prevalence of urinary schistosomiasis in selected villages near a dam site in Gusau Local Government Area. Zamfara State, Nigeria. *Nigerian Journal of Parasitology.* 2011;32:57-61.
16. Naphtali RS, Barka SJ, Yaro MB, Oriakpono JE. Epidemiological study of schistosomiasis in human local government area of Adamawa State, Nigeria. *Journal of Pharmacy and Biological Sciences.* 2017;12(5):53-57.
17. Obadiah HI, Idu ME, Omodu EA, Shenge MF, Ameh MO, Mwakyoga A. Studies on *Schistosoma haematobium* infection in school -aged children in some parts of Benue State, Nigeria; 2018.
18. Oyetunde TS, Alexander B, Odaibo. Urogenital schistosomiasis and urological assessment of hematuria in preschool-aged children in rural communities of Nigeria. *Journal of Pediatric Urology.* 2014;10:88-93.
19. Hany S, Hesham MA, Mohammed AKM, Yvonne ALL, Rohela M, Johari S. Prevalence and associated factors of schistosomiasis among children in Yemen: Implications for an effective control programme. *PLoS Neglected Tropical Disease.* 2013;7(8):e2377. DOI: 10.1371/journal.pntd.0002377
20. Nale Y, Galadima M, Yakubu SE. Index of potential contamination for urinary schistosomiasis in Zaria, Nigeria. *Niger J Parasitol.* 2003;24:95–101.
21. Ivoke N, Ivoke ON, Nwani CD, Ekeh FN, Asogwa CN, Atama CI. Prevalence and transmission dynamics of *Schistosoma haematobium* infection in a rural community of southwestern Ebonyi State, Nigeria. *Trop Biomed.* 2014;31:77–88. [PubMed]
22. Evans DS, King JD, Eigege A, Umaru J, Adamani W, Alphonsus K. Assessing the WHO 50% prevalence threshold in school-aged children as indication for treatment of urogenital schistosomiasis in adults in central Nigeria. *Am J Trop Med Hyg.* 2013;88:441–4451.
23. Amuta EA, Houmsou RS. Prevalence, intensity of infection and risk factors of urinary schistosomiasis in pre-school and school-aged children in Guma Local Government Area, Nigeria. *Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Medicine.* 2014;7(1):34-39.
24. Mbata TI, Orji MU, Oguoma VM. High prevalence of urinary schistosomiasis in a Nigerian community. *African Journal of Biomedical Research.* 2009;12(2):101-104.
25. Duwa MR, Oyeyi TI, Bassey SE. Prevalence and intensity of urinary schistosomiasis among primary school pupils in Minjibir Local Government Area of Kano State, Nigeria. *Bayero J Pure Appl Sci.* 2009;2:75–78.
26. Houmsou RS, Amuta EU, Sar TT. Profile of an epidemiological study of urinary schistosomiasis in two Local Government Areas of Benue State, Nigeria. *International Journal of Medicine and Biomedical Research.* 2012;1(1):39-48. Available: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/309155468> [Accessed Dec 18 2018]
27. Bolaji OS, Elkanah FA, Ojo JA, Ojorongbe O, Adeyeba OA. Prevalence and intensity of *Schistosoma haematobium* among school children in Ajase-Ipo, Kwara State, Nigeria. *Asian Journal of Biomedical and Pharmaceutical.* 2015;5(43):6–11.
28. Ezhim M, Oti V, Goriya K, Gloria Z, Dlama J. Prevalence of urinary schistosomiasis among Primary School children in a Northern Nigerian Population. *International Journal of Advanced Research.* 2015;3(11):511-519.

29. Ojurongbe O, Risqat Sina-Agbaje O, Busari A, Okorie PN, Ojurongbe TA, Akindele AA. Efficacy of praziquantel in the treatment of *Schistosoma haematobium* infection among school-age children in rural communities of Abeokuta, Nigeria. *Infectious Diseases of Poverty*. 2014;3:30. Available:https://doi.org/10.1186/2049-9957-3-30
30. Bala AY, Ladan MU, Mainasara M. Prevalence and intensity of urinary schistosomiasis in Abarma Village, Gusau, Nigeria: A preliminary investigation. *Science World Journal*. 2012;7(2):1-4. Available:www.scienceworldjournal.org
31. Shashie G, Agersew A, Sisay G, Zeleke M, Berhanu E. Prevalence of urinary schistosomiasis and associated risk factors among Abobo Primary Children in Gambella Regional State, Southwestern Ethiopia: A cross sectional study. *Journal of Parasite and Vector*. 2015;8:215. DOI 10.1186/s13071-015-0822-5
32. Nkegbe E. Sex prevalence of schistosomiasis among school children in five communities in the lower river Volta basin of South Eastern Ghana. *African Journal Biomedical Research*. 2010;13:87–88.
33. Samie A, Nchachi DJ, Obi CL, Igumbor EO. Prevalence and temporal distribution of *Schistosoma haematobium* infections in the Vhembe District, Limpopo Province, South Africa. *African Journal of Biotechnology*. 2010;42(9):7157-7164.
34. Moyo VB, Changadeya W, Chiotha S, Sikawa D. Urinary schistosomiasis among preschool children in Malengachanzi, Nkhotakota District, Malawi. *Malawi Medical Journal*. 2016;28(1):10-14. Available:http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/mmj.v28i1.3
35. Olulabi A, Oluwasogo, Olukunle B, Fagbemi. Prevalence and risk factors of *Schistosoma haematobium* infections among primary school children in Igbokuta Village, Ikorodu North Local Government, Lagos State. *Journal of Nursing and Health Science*. 2013;2(6):62-68.
36. Kiran S, Dalhatu M, Jitendra S. Current status of schistosomiasis in Sokoto, Nigeria. *Journal of Parasite Epidemiology and Control*. 2016;1:239-244.
37. Rukeme MN, Emmanuel TI, Olubumi AO, Margaret AM. Urinary schistosomiasis in school aged children of two rural endemic communities in Edo State, Nigeria. *Journal of Infectious and Public Health*. 2017;11(3):384-388. Available:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jiph.2017.09.012Get rights and content
38. Dennis OU, Celestine OE, Onwuliri FOU, Osuala, Ikechukwu NS, Dozie F, Opara N, Ucheamaka CN. Endemicity of schistosomiasis in some parts of Anambara State. *Academic Journal of Medical Laboratory and Diagnosis*. 2013;4(5):54-61. DOI:https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(12)61728-0

© 2019 Naphtali and Ngwamah; This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Peer-review history:
 The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here:
<http://www.sdiarticle3.com/review-history/46793>