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For publication

2	Occurrence of Vibrio cholerae in water reservoirs of Burkina Faso
3	SaidouKaboré ^a , Philippe Cecchi ^b , Thomas Mosser ^{c†} , MylèneToubiana ^c , OumarTraoré ^{a,d} ,
4	Aboubakar S. Ouattara ^a , Alfred S. Traoré ^a , Nicolas Barro ^{a‡} , Rita R. Colwell ^e , Patrick
5	$Monfort^{c^{*\ddagger}}$
6	^a Laboratoire de Biologie Moléculaire, d'Epidémiologie et de Surveillance des Bactéries et Virus
7	Transmissibles par les Aliments (LaBESTA), Centre de Recherches en Sciences Biologiques,
8	Alimentaires et Nutritionnelles (CRSBAN), Université de Ouagadougou, 03 BP 7021 Ouagadougou
9	03, Burkina Faso
10	^b MARBEC UMR 248 IRD, CNRS, Ifremer, Université de Montpellier, Centre de Recherches
11	Océanologiques, Abidjan, Côte d'Ivoire
12	^c "HydroSciences Montpellier", UMR 5569 CNRS, IRD, Université de Montpellier, 34093 Montpellier
13	Cedex 05, France
14	^d Laboratoire National de Santé Publique, 09 BP 24 Ouagadougou 09, Burkina Faso
15	^e Center for Bioinformatics and Computational Biology and Institute for Advanced Computer Studies,
16	3103 Biomolecular Sciences Building, 8314 Paint Branch Drive, University of Maryland, College
17	Park, MD 20742, USA.
18 19	[†] In memoriam [‡] These authors contributed equally to this work.
20	* Correspondingauthor
21	E-mail addresses: saidoukabore@gmail.com (S. Kaboré), philippe cecchi@ird.fr. (P. Cecchi).mylepetouhigna@yaboo.fr. (M

E-mail addresses: <u>saidoukabore@gmail.com</u> (S. Kaboré), <u>philippe.cecchi@ird.fr</u> (P. Cecchi),<u>mylenetoubiana@yahoo.fr</u> (M.
 Toubiana),<u>marrou4@yahoo.fr</u> (O. Traoré), <u>as.ouattara@yahoo.fr</u> (A. Ouattara),<u>astraore@gmail.com</u>(A. Traoré),
 <u>barronicolas@yahoo.fr</u> (N. Barro), <u>rcolwell@umiacs.umd.edu</u> (R. Colwell), <u>patrick.monfort@umontpellier.fr</u> (P. Monfort)

24 Abstract

Africa is currently an important region in which cholera epidemics occur. Little is 25 known about the presence of Vibriocholerae in freshwater bodies in Africa. There are ca. 26 1,700 lakes and reservoirs in Burkina Faso, most of which have been built within recent 27 decades to secure water resources. The purpose of this study was to investigate the presence 28 29 of V. cholera in the water of reservoirs, using the most-probable-number polymerase chain reaction. Results showed that V. cholera could be detected in water samples collected from 14 30 of 39 sampled reservoirs. The concentrations varied from 0 MPN/l to more than 1,100 MPN/l. 31 32 Fifty strains of V. cholera isolated on CHROMagarTM vibrio were identified as V. cholerae non-O1/non-O139, none of which carried the *ctx*A gene. 33

A significant positive correlation was found between the presence of *V. cholerae* in the reservoirs and both alkaline pH and phytoplankton biomass. *V. cholera* was present in significantly higher numbers in reservoirs of urban areas than in rural areas. Since *V. cholera* non-O1/non-O139 has been shown to be a causative agent of endemic diarrheal outbreaks, their presence in Burkina Faso reservoirs suggests they may play a role in gastroenteritis in that country.

40 *Keywords*: *Vibrio cholerae*; Water; Reservoir; Burkina Faso

41 **1. Introduction**

42

Cholera continues to be a disease of significant morbidity and mortality worldwide. 43 In 2014, 42 countries reported 190,549 cholera cases, including 2,231 deaths [1]. Africa, 44 notably West Africa, has become a region associated with cholera epidemics. Among recently 45 reported cholera cases, 55% originated in Africa, 30% in Asia and 15% in Hispanic countries. 46 More than 100,000 cases, including \approx 2,000 deaths, were reported in 19 African countries in 47 2014, namely, in Nigeria, the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Ghana. According to 48 49 the WHO, the incidence of cholera in sub-Saharan African countries has become critical, as it is both endemic and epidemic, with high mortality rates [2]. 50

Vibrio cholerae causes severe diarrhea in humans, but is also a bacterium 51 autochthonous to riverine and estuarine environments and a natural component of those 52 ecosystems [3-5]. Today, more than 200 V. cholera serogroups have been described, but only 53 O1 and O139 serogroups have been identified as responsible for epidemics and pandemics. 54 Cholera toxin (CT) production by these two serogroups rarely occurs in other serogroups, 55 referred to as V. choleraenon-O1/non-O139 [6]. However, V. choleraenon-O1/non-O139 56 have, in fact, also been shown to be associated with endemic diarrheal diseases, as observed 57 in Nigeria [7]. 58

Seven cholera pandemics have been recorded as causing thousands of deaths worldwide since 1817. *V. cholerae* O1 classical biotype was incriminated in the first six pandemics, while *V. cholerae* O1 El Tor biotype was described as being responsible for the 7th pandemic that began in Indonesia in 1961 and subsequently was recorded in India, Africa, southern Europe and finally South America [8,9]. Recently, unusual strains of *V. cholera* O1have been isolated from cholera epidemic victims. These strains, referred to as "atypical or hybrid ElTor", appear to be the result of gene transfer between *V. cholera* O1 classical and

EIT or biotypes[10].*V. cholera* non-O1 and non-O139 serogroups may be associated with mild to severe diarrhea and extraintestinal infections such as wound infections and bacteremia [11-15].

The seventh pandemic of cholera is believed to have been detected in the Middle East and West Africa in 1970 [8]. In West Africa, initially reported cases were in Guinea, with the epidemic also recorded in Sahel countries where case fatality was high. Since then, outbreaks have occurred regularly in West African regions [16].

Burkina Faso is a land-locked developing country located in the Sahel-Sudan area of 73 West Africa. It is characterized by a single rainy season (July to October) and significant 74 inter-annual variability in rainfall [17]. That is, rainfalls vary from the south Sudan (> 1000 75 mm/year) to the northern Sahel (< 500 mm/year), with a regular latitudinal gradient (≈ 1 76 mm/km). The main hydrological consequence of this substantial seasonality is that almost all 77 78 rivers in the country are temporary and remain dry each year for several months. The result is that water scarcity constitutes a major challenge for Burkina Faso, and water storage is 79 maintained in reservoirs during the wet season for use during the dry season, thus constituting 80 an efficient adaptive strategy to cope with this challenging situation [18,19]. As a result, there 81 are ca. 1,700 lakes and reservoirs in Burkina Faso (ca. 1/3 perennial), most of which have 82 been built within recent decades to secure water resources for protection against prolonged 83 dry spells, and historically documented from 1970-1980[20]. These reservoirs mitigate the 84 most drastic adverse effects of rainfall variability [21], but may have a deleterious effect on 85 health. Indeed, the increase in the number of small reservoirs in Burkina Faso, coupled with 86 crowding, poor sanitation, organic water pollution and intense water contact, has increased 87 transmission of waterborne diseases, a prime example of which is schistosomiasis[22,23]. 88

Burkina Faso is not immune to the threat of cholera epidemics [24] and the first cases
of cholera were reported in 1971, with lethality 28.5%. Five major epidemics have been

recorded: 1991,1995, 1998, 2001 and 2005. During the epidemic of 2005,*V. cholera* was
isolated from the stools of 121patients. Two serogroups were identified: *V. cholera*O1serotype Ogawa in120 patients and*V. Cholera* O139 in one patient [24]. In 2011, 20cases
of cholera were reported, with two deaths [25].

Environmental factors associated with cholera epidemics in Burkina Faso, as in other 95 African countries located far from the ocean coasts, are complex and have not been 96 extensively studied [16]. Among a number of factors, human population concentration, 97 season and climate are vital [4]. The presence of V. cholerae non-O1/non-O139 has been 98 detected in water and fish from one reservoir and also in a neighboring channel in 99 Ouagadougou[26]. However, the ecological dynamics of V. cholerae in the reservoirs of 100 Burkina Faso and the relationship with cholera epidemiology have not been established. In 101 this study, the occurrence and incidence of V. cholera in 39 Burkina Faso reservoirs were 102 103 investigated during the dry season (April-June, 2014) to assess the potential health risk.

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- 106 2.1. Area of study and sample collection
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Fig. 1 shows the location of sampling sites (N = 39), all of which were in the upper 108 basins of the Nakambé River (former White Volta) and the Mouhoun River (former Black 109 Volta) in Burkina Faso. These reservoirs are distributed throughout the entire territory of 110 Burkina Faso, but some regions were not included in the study for reasons of distance or 111 security. Because of the diversity of the reservoirs under study,e.g. size and location (Table 112 1), the reservoirs that were selected for study are classified as rural or urban according to the 113 administrative district description of the INSD (Institut National de la Statistique et de la 114 Démographie du Burkina Faso). 115

Five of the reservoirs are used for tap water production (Dem, Loumbila, Ouaga3, Salbisgo, Ziga) and the others were designed for irrigation purposes (Sourou, Boura, Bamsa, NavriKpè, Bazega, Bagré). Bagré is also a hydroelectric reservoir. All reservoirs except one (Bala, a natural reserve), are used for domestic activities that include washing, bathing, livestock watering and brick-making, with fishing being ubiquitous.

All reservoirs included in the study are located close to main roads so as to minimize time for travel from the sampling site (one to three sites per day in the early morning) to the laboratory (Ouagadougou in the afternoon). All reservoirs were sampled at least once, except for the Loumbila reservoir, which was easily and quickly accessible (\approx 30 min from the laboratory) and therefore was sampled six times to evaluate temporal variability of the measured parameters during the two-month sampling period.

For sampling, in situ measurements were first made, after which three subsurface watersamples (5 liters each) were collected in the center of the reservoir from a small boat or close

to shore when a boat was not available. Samples for chemical, biological and bacteriological analyses were stored and transported to the laboratory in a portable refrigerator (4°C), cooler (25°C) or at ambient temperature, i.e. in an air-conditioned van ca. 35°C, respectively, and processed within < 1 to 5 h after collection.

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134 2.2. Enumeration and isolation of V. cholerae

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Enumeration of *V.cholerae* in water samples was accomplished using enrichment in 136 alkaline peptone water (APW) and a combined most-probable-number (MPN)-real-time PCR 137 analysis [27,28]. Water samples (1 liter, 100 ml and 10 ml) were filtered in triplicate through 138 0.45 µm pore size nitrocellulose membranes (Whatman, GE Healthcare, Versailles, France) 139 and the filters were incubated in APW at 41.5°C for 18 h. Smaller volumes, i.e. 1 ml of 140 141 undiluted sample, were inoculated in triplicate directly into APW broth and incubated at 41.5°C for 18 h. After enrichment, DNA was extracted from 1 ml of the APW by boiling and 142 used as template (10-fold-dilution) for PCR. 143

Ten µl from each APW broth was inoculated onto CHROMagar[™] Vibrio medium
(Humeau, La Chapelle-sur-Erdre, France) and plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 h. One
colony per plate showing typical colonies of *V. cholera* was selected and grown overnight in
APW at 37°C. DNA was extracted from 1 ml of culture by heat lysis and diluted 10 times for
further molecular identification.

Detection of *V. cholera* in APW broth and confirmation of the species on isolated strains were performed by real-time PCR using primers for amplification of the 16S-23S rRNA intergenic spacer region [29,30]. Real-time PCR was performed on a LightCycler 480 (Roche) in 384-well plates. Distribution of reaction volumes was done using the Echo 525 Liquid Handler (Labcyte).

Real-time PCR reaction mixture comprised 0.75 µl of 2X LightCycler 480 SYBR 154 Green I Master (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany), 0.8 µM of each specific primer, 155 0.5 µl of genomic DNA diluted 10 times and nuclease free water adjusted to a final volume 156 of 1.5 µl. Nuclease- and protease-free water was used as negative control, while strains of V. 157 cholera O1 and O139 and non-O1/non-O139 from the collection of the Pasteur Institute (CIP 158 106974, CIP 62.13, CIP 104152, respectively) were used as positive controls. The reaction 159 was done twice for each sample. The amplification program consisted of one cycle at 95°C 160 for 10 min and 45 cycles at 95°C for 10 s, 62°C for 10 s and 72°C for 10 s. The program 161 terminated with a final dissociation curve analysis consisting of one step at 63°C for 30 s and 162 gradual heating to 95°C. The MPN values were calculated from the statistical tables of de 163 Man (1983) [31] and expressed as MPN per liter. 164

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166 2.3. Detection of rfb and ctxA genes

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168 Specific *rfb* gene coding for biosynthesis of O1 and O139-antigen of *V. cholera* and 169 the *ctx*A gene encoding the A subunit of cholera toxin were amplified by end-point PCR on 170 DNA from isolated strains and from APW broths (only for *ctx*A gene) [32].

The reaction mixtures comprised 2.5 µl GoTag reaction buffer, 0.5 µl dNTPs (10 mM 171 each), 0.8 µM forward and reverse primers, 0.5 Units GoTag DNA polymerase (Promega), 172 0.5 µl genomic DNA diluted 10 times and nuclease-free water to a final reaction volume of 173 12.5 µl. Positive and negative controls were the same as those used in the above protocol. 174 PCR cycles were performed on the Mastercycler thermal cycler (Eppendorf). The 175 amplification program was 2 min at 94°C for denaturation, followed by 30 cycles of 15 s at 176 94°C, 15 s annealing at 56°C (O1-rfb/O139-rfb) or 58°C (ctxA), 30 s elongation at 72°C and a 177 final elongation step of 5 min at 72° C. 178

- PCR products were visualized on a 1% agarose gel containing 0.5 mg.ml⁻¹ethidium
 bromide in 0.5X Tris borate EDTA buffer (TBE) after electrophoretic migration.
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182 2.4. Enumeration of thermotolerant coliforms

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Thermotolerant coliforms (TTCs), used as indicators of fecal contamination, were quantified following the filtration method of ISO 9308-1 standard protocol, employing 100 ml of water samples filtered in duplicate and collected on cellulose nitrate membranes (0.45 μm pore size) (Sartorius). The filters were incubated on a nutrient pad impregnated with Endo medium (Sartorius) for 24 h at 44.5 °C. Results are expressed as number of TTC colony forming units per 100 ml (TTC/100 ml).

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191 2.5. Environmental parameters

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Sampling sites were localized using a GPS receiver (Garmin 45XL). Depth (cm) of 193 the water column was measured with a hand-held 0.1 m-resolution echo sounder 194 (PlastimoEchotest II). Measurements of pH, equivalent conductivity at 25°C (µS/cm) and 195 temperature (°C) were performed in situ using WTW 197 measuring probes. An AlgaeTorch[®] 196 (BBE-Moldaenke, GmbH)was used to quantify subsurface phytoplankton biomass (ug Chla/l). 197 The measurements are based on autofluorescence properties of photosynthetic organisms and 198 rely on spectrofluorimetry principles [33,34]. Five consecutive measurements were made and 199 the results averaged. 200

201 Quantification of suspended particulate matter (SPM) (mg/l) was performed by 202 filtering known volumes of water sample (pre-filtered using a 200 μ m mesh filter to eliminate 203 large debris) on a pre-weighed (± 0.1 mg) Whatman GF/F glass fiber filter (0.7 μ m pore size).

The filtered volume (15 ml to 700 ml) depended on the particulate load and was adjusted to saturate the filter. Weighing (\pm 0.1 mg) the clogged filter after drying at 105°C allowed determination of total concentration of SPM. This step was done in duplicate and the mean value calculated.

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209 2.6. Statistical analysis

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Data were analyzed using statistical Sigma Stat 3.5 software (Systat Software, Inc.). 211 The non-parametric Spearman's rank order correlation was used to evaluate potential 212 relationships between environmental and microbiological variables. This test was also applied 213 to compare depth measurements made during sampling and the official declared capacity of 214 the specific reservoir. Non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance on ranks 215 216 was used to assess potential effect of the hydrographic basin (NakambéversusMouhoun) on environmental parameters and to compare connectivity of sites, according to the presence (or 217 not) of V. cholerae. The Chi2 test was performed to compare results of urban versus rural 218 sites and, on a national scale, to assess statistical representativeness of the sampling with 219 respect to site. The Chi2 test was used to evaluate the effect, if any, of the hydrographic basin 220 (NakambéversusMouhoun) on V. cholerae occurrence, to assess frequency of occurrence of 221 V. cholerae, with respect to urban versus rural sites and to test the influence of the sampling 222 position (near the shore versus the center of the lake) on detection of V. cholerae. The Chi2 223 test was also used to perform similar analyses of thermotolerant coliforms. 224

225 **3. Results**

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Forty-four samples were collected at 39 sites in a 24-day field analysis over a seven 229 week time period (between April 21 and June 4, 2014) corresponding to the height of the dry 230 231 season. Thirty-eight sites were sampled once and the Loumbila Lake was sampled six times at approximately weekly intervals. At that time of year, direct inflow did not reach most of the 232 lakes included in this study in the interval since the most recent rainy season (5-6 months 233 234 earlier), and the water level was at the annual minimum. This period of time also corresponds to the yearly maximum with respect to water demand and the most frequent visits by humans 235 and animals to the sites. Also at this time of year, agricultural activities are mainly 236 concentrated in irrigated plots, around and downstream from the reservoirs, with two 237 exceptions: Bala, owing to its status as a natural reserve, and Ziga, where agriculture is 238 strictly prohibited within a 100 m buffer area all around the reservoir to protect its designation 239 as a source of drinking water. Fishery activities are conducted at all reservoirs. Except for 240 those reservoirs located in the urban downtown area, all sites are visited intensively every day 241 by many herds of animals. All sites except Bala are used daily for domestic activities, 242 especially by children for recreation. 243

All sites are located on temporary rivers of the Nakambé and Mouhoun basins (N = 26 and N=13, respectively; Fig. 1). The depth of 85% of the sampling sites was less than 3 m, but a large number of sites were very shallow (median of 160 cm). A significant relationship was observed between depth of sampling site and declared capacity of the reservoir, as indicated in the national census of reservoirs (Spearman rank order correlation coefficient:

- 0.841; p <0.001; N= 31; data not shown). Thus, the different size categories of reservoir were
 sampled in this study.
- 251
- 252 *3.2. Environmental parameters*
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Water temperature was high (median of ca. 29°C; coefficient of variation <5%). 254 Sampling was done early in the morning (between 6 and 9 am; median = 7 h 40) and the 255 water temperature measurements corresponded to daily minimum values (data not shown). 256 Conductivity varied between 73.8 μ S/cm in Dissin and 480.9 μ S/cm in Pouytenga (median = 257 114.7 μ S/cm) (Table 1). The pH was near neutral for all water samples (median = 7.6), except 258 for the Koubri-ville reservoir (pH = 5.7) and the spillway of the Saaba reservoir (pH = 9.8). 259 No cause has been identified to explain low pH water, but high pH water can be linked to the 260 261 phytoplankton biomass observed at that site. Spectrofluorometric assessments of phytoplankton biomass were made for 36 sites. Unfortunately, the instrument was not 262 operational for the other sampling sites because of excessive turbidity. Observed biomass 263 measurements varied between 1.2 µg Chla/l (Petit Bagré) and 184.2 µg Chl a/l in the Saaba 264 spillway (median = 17.5 µg Chla/l). Suspended matter (SPM, mg/l) also showed significant 265 variation, from < 5 mg/l in Bala and > 3000 mg/l in Pouytenga (median = 48.8 mg/l). 266

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268 *3.3.* V. cholerae *detection*

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V. cholerae was detected in water samples collected from 14 of the 39 sites in five of
the administrative regions (Fig. 1; Table 1). Numbers of *V. cholerae* varied between 0 MPN/l
to more than 1,100 MPN/l in the Saaba spillway (region Centre) and in the Moutori-Dano
reservoir (South West region). Among 204 colonies isolated from CHROMagar[™] Vibrio

medium, 50 were identified as V. cholera from samples collected at 12 sites distributed over 274 four of the administrative regions. However, none was isolated from APW broths incubated 275 with water samples collected at the Moutori-Dano (> 1,100 MPN/l) and Nabazana sites (0.92 276 MPN/l) (Table 1). However, some of the APW broths were PCR-positive for the presence of 277 V. cholerae. Conversely, V. cholera was isolated from APW broths incubated with 1 liter 278 water collected at the Tibin, Bamsa and Sian sampling sites, but the broths were PCR-279 negative (Table 1). The V. cholerae isolates were uniformly V. cholerae non-O1 and non-280 O139. The *ctx*A gene was not detected in the isolates or the APW broths. 281

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283 *3.4. Statistical analysis*

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Of the 39 studied sites, 30 were rural and nine urban, corresponding to partition of the communes (urban versus rural) at the national level (Chi2 = 2.304; p = 0.129). Among 14 sites where *V. cholera* was detected, half were urban (78% of the sampled urban sites) and the other half rural (19% of the rural sites). This finding highlights the greater presence of *V. cholerae* in the urban area water supply compared to rural reservoirs, and was statistically significant (Chi2 = 14.431, p < 0.001).

Among the 14 sites positive for *V. cholerae*, 13 were in the Nakambé basin and one in the Mouhoun basin(42% and 8% of the total number of sites per basin, respectively). percentages were statistically different (Chi2 = 4.951; p = 0.026), indicating overrepresentation of positive sites in the Nakambé basin.

Median distance separating each site from all other sites of the study varied between \approx 90 km for Ziga and \approx 310 km for Bala (median = 136 km overall). Considering only positive sites, distance was significantly shorter (92 km) than the median distance separating sites where *V. cholerae* had not been identified (146 km; one-way Kruskal-Wallis analysis of

variance on ranks, H = 47.549, p < 0.001; Fig. 2), suggesting a "clustering effect" for sites
positive for *V. cholerae*.

Seven of the 14 sites where *V. cholera* was detected corresponded to samples collected near the shore (35 %), while the location of the seven other samples had been positioned in the center of the reservoir (29%). These percentages were not statistically different (Chi 2 = 0.171; p = 0.679), indicating that the precise position of the sampling site may not have influenced detection of *V. cholerae*.

Overall, a series of highly significant statistical relationships were obtained in this 306 study by exploring potential links between the presence of V. cholerae (n = 11 sites) and 307 environmental parameters (Table 2). Noticeably, the number of V. cholera was higher where 308 the phytoplankton biomass was elevated (P = 0.003), particularly in water samples collected 309 in shallow and turbid sites (P = 0.006 and 0.018, respectively). Conductivity and pH were 310 311 positively correlated, but independent of the depth of the sampling location. Conductivity was not related to phytoplankton biomass that was, in turn, conversely positively associated 312 with pH. None of these descriptors was dependent on the basin sampled (Nakambé versus 313 Mouhoun) (one way Kruskal-Wallis analysis of variance on ranks, P > 0.05). 314

TTCs were present in 17 of 44 samples (Table 1). Concentrations varied from 0 to 30,000 TTC/100 ml. Urban versus rural and Nakambé versus Mouhoun basins were not significant nor was sampling location (shore versus center). TTC appeared to be independent of the environmental parameters (Table 2), except for temperature, which was significantly correlated.

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321 *3. The Loumbila reservoir*

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A survey of the Loumbila reservoir where six samples were collected 323 led to assessment of temporal variability over the two sampling months. Five of six samples were 324 negative for V. cholera, but the fifth sample was positive (2.3 MPN/l)(Fig. 3A), matching an 325 increase in thermotolerant oliforms (from 0-5.5 to 100 TTC/100 ml). Location of the 326 sampling station was defined by GPS, and the depth (Fig. 3B) showed an association with 327 evaporation and water withdrawal by the drinking water plant. Significant local rainfall 328 clearly compensated the water budget during the second part of the survey, and flooding also 329 occurred, illustrated by a transient but significant (x 4) increase in the concentration of 330 suspended material (Fig. 3B). 331

332 **4. Discussion**

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This study was carried out in Burkina Faso during the dry season of the year, corresponding to lower water depth of the bodies of water, due mainly to evaporation and withdrawal of water for various uses. The dry season corresponds to the period of time when reservoirs are fully utilized and the time of year when the aquatic ecosystem is subject to greatest pressure from human use.

V. cholera was detected in fourteen reservoirs of the five regions under study, with five of the reservoirs located in the central region of Burkina Faso. Temperatures during the sampling period varied from 25.7to31.5°C. Many studies have shown that temperature is a major factor associated with the ecological dynamics of *V. cholera* in aquatic ecosystems[35-37]. Burkina Faso is a country with a tropical climate, and during the dry season, very low levels of water are present in the reservoirs, the time during which this study was conducted.

The pH of water is another important factor correlated with the incidence of V. cholerae[37]. 345 High pH can be linked to abundant plankton, and the incidence of V. cholerae has been 346 associated with plankton blooms. Plankton, notably zooplankton, is also an environmental 347 parameter affecting the ecological dynamics of V. cholera in the aquatic environment [38]. 348 Results of this study showed a significant positive correlation between the presence of V. 349 *cholera* in the reservoirs and both alkaline pH and plankton biomass. The pH of the sample 350 collected from the spillway located downstream from the Saaba dam, where a large algal 351 bloom had been observed (chlorophyll *a* level = $185\mu g.l^{-1}$), was 9.78. It was at this site that 352 one of the highest number of V. cholerae was obtained (> 1100 MPN/l). It would have been 353 helpful to have directly measured the zooplankton populations, but the necessary equipment 354 and expertise were not available. Nevertheless, the phytoplankton bloom can be considered a 355

prerequisite for an increase in zooplankton, with which *V. cholerae* has been well documentedas a commensal [4,39].

The incidence of V. cholera non-O1/non-O139 was significantly higher in the urban 358 reservoir samples compared to those from the rural reservoirs. Interestingly, the rural 359 reservoirs where V. cholera non-O1/non-O139 were detected were located closer to each 360 other than other rural reservoirs. Distribution of reservoirs, on a national scale, is more 361 numerous and close together where population densities are highest[20]. Thus, the high 362 density of reservoirs in the densely populated areas can be concluded to provide more contact 363 between humans and bodies of water. Results of this study may indicate a relationship 364 between the human population and the presence of V. cholera non-O1/non-O139 in the 365 aquatic reservoirs. Thus, there would be a higher probability of both transmission (between 366 and among humans) and diffusion (within the aquatic environment) of V. cholera non-367 368 O1/non-O139 [16,40]. Results of the Loumbila reservoir analysis suggest a possible association with local rainfall, leading to an increase in the concentration of suspended matter 369 370 [16].

The observation that the *ctx*Agene was not detected in the isolates of *V. cholera* does not exclude a risk associated with detection of *V. cholerae*non-O1/non-O139 in the aquatic environment. Indeed, several studies have shown the infectious nature of *V. cholera* non-O1/non-O139 [7,41]. These strains are responsible for diarrheal disease that can be fatal [42,43]. Indeed, some studies have shown antigenic conversion of *V. cholera* non-O1/non-O139 to *V. cholera* O1 when conditions are favorable [43-46].

In this study, we have shown that *V. cholera* non-O1/non-O139 lacking genes coding for production of cholera toxin are present in the water of several reservoirs in Burkina Faso[26]. The hot climate and proximity of large human populations around the dams and lakes of Burkina Faso provide favorable conditions for exposure to *V. cholerae* non-O1/non-

- 381 O139 in this environment, raising the question of their role in gastroenteritis in Burkina Faso.
- 382 Epidemiological studies on such diarrheal diseases should be undertaken in that country.

383 Conflict of interest

384 The authors declare no conflict of interest. 385 386 **Acknowledgments** 387 388 SK gratefully acknowledges the Action Service of the Embassy of France in Burkina 389 Faso for allowing him to stay in France at Montpellier University for molecular analyses. 390 We also thank the International Science Foundation for purchase of reagents, and the IRD for 391 financial support for the work on V. cholerae in Burkina Faso. This work was partially funded 392 by Johns Hopkins University and the University of Maryland College Park (NIH Grant 393 2RO1A1039129-11A2). This research was carried out under the umbrella of the W4F project 394 395 "Managing water and food systems in the Volta-Niger basins", with funding from the European Commission (EC) and technical support from the International Fund for 396 397 Agricultural Development (IFAD). The authors are grateful to Philippe Clair for advice and management of the qPCR platform (qPHD University of Montpellier/Montpellier GenomiX, 398 France). 399

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517 Legends to figures

518

519 Fig. 1

Location of reservoirs sampled in Burkina Faso during the dry season in 2014. The four main hydrographic basins of Burkina Faso (Comoé, Mouhoun, Nakambé and Niger) are delineated and the latitudinal gradient of the mean annual rainfall (1960-1990) is indicated. The red colored sites indicate the presence of *V. cholerae* non-O1/non-O139.

524

525 Fig. 2

526 Box-plots of distances separating sites with and without *V. cholerae* (median values are 527 indicated).

528

529 Fig. 3

(A) Abundance of *V. cholerae* (left scale, dark line with dark dots) and thermotolerant
coliforms (TTC, right scale, dashed-line with white dots) at the Loumbila site. (B) Water level
of the Loumbila Lake (left scale, dark line with dark dots), local rainfall (right scale, gray
bars) and concentration of suspended matter (right scale, dashed-line with white dots).

1 Table 1

- 2 Sites sampled in Burkina Faso between April and June, 2014. Relevant information and measured parameters are provided. Sites are ranked by
- 3 sampling chronological order.

Site	Latitude	Longitude	Administrative region	Situation	Sampling place ^a	V ^b (Mm ³)	Z ° (cm)	pН	C25 ^d (μS/cm)	SPM ^e (mg/l)	Chl a¹ (µg/l)	V. cholerae (MPN/I)	<i>V. cholerae</i> ⁹ positive strains	TTC/100 ml ^h
Loumbila-1	1229'34.0"	01º24'25.8"	Plateau Central	rural	center	42.2	330	7.6	n.d.	11.9	n.d.	0	-	5.5
Bam	13°19'57.4"	01°30'48.8"	Centre Nord	urban	cente r	31.0	160	7.6	101.1	38.1	10.5	0.36	+	0
Tibin	1391'11.8"	0126'36.0"	Centre Nord	rural	sho re	0.0	n.d.	7.3	138.6	167.6	15.0	0	+	100
Bamsa	13°15'36.2"	01º06'02.8"	Centre Nord	rural	cen ter	n.d. 🦱	220	7.9	115.4	46.7	12.0	0	+	0
Dem	1391'27.8"	0109'12.1"	Centre Nord	rural	cente r	4.0	120	7.8	141.4	20.4	25.8	0	-	0
Sian	1305'46.1"	01억3'04.7"	Centre Nord	rural	cent er	2.0	100	7.8	163.3	64.7	14.3	0	+	200
Kaya	1305'33.4"	01º04'07.5"	Centre Nord	urban	shor e	5.1	n.d.	8.5	230.3	391.0	25.4	1.5	+	100
Pouytenga	12°13'41.5"	00°25'54.9"	Centre Est	urban	shore	0.6	60	7.4	480.9	3153.3	n.m.	43	+	30000
Ouaga2	12º23'16.7"	01°31'22.4"	Centre	urban	center	1.2	85	7.7	309.8	144.5	64.5	43	+	0
Ouaga3	1223'24.9"	01°30'29.3"	Centre	urban	center	1.5	140	8.6	92.5	53.6	65.5	9.3	+	0
Loumbila-2	1229'38.6"	01º24'22.8"	Plateau Central	rural	center	42.2	260	7.6	155.6	11.4	13.6	0	-	0
Sourou	12%18'07.2"	0326'55.9"	Boucle Mouhoun	rural	center	370.0	320	8.6	226.0	18.2	33.4	0	-	0
Goundi	129248.4"	0228'37.1"	Centre Ouest	rural	s hore	n.d.	100	8.6	106.4	53.2	17.9	0	-	0
Yako-Kanazoé	1300'41.9"	0203'55.1"	Nord	rural	cen ter	75.0	410	7.6	136.1	9.9	11.7	0	-	100
Bala	11°33'37.9"	0409'24.8"	Hauts Bassins	rural	ce nter	1.5	160	6.6	129.6	5.0	5.3	0	-	0
Salbisgo	1209'53.6"	02°22'36.1"	Centre Ouest	rural	shore	3.6	100	7.7	362.8	481.3	15.8	0	-	0
Yamtenga	1220'20.1"	01º26'51.0"	Centre	urban	shore	0.6	60	7.9	350.0	319.0	n.m.	460	+	1000
Saaba (reservoir)	1220'39.8"	01º24'12.2"	Centre	ru ral	shore	5.4	60	7.9	369.9	333.0	66.3	24	+	500

Saaba (spillway)	12º20'42.7"	01º24'13.0"	Centre	rur al	shore	n.d.	n.d.	9.8	145.7	46.8	184.2	>1100	+	0
Loumbila-3	12°29'37.7"	01º24'21.8"	Plateau Central	rural	center	42.2	270	7.6	83.5	4.7	17.0	0	-	0
Boura	11 02'49.3"	02°29'52.1"	Centre Ouest	rural	ce nter	4.2	330	8.1	75.0	11.9	15.9	0	-	500
Leo	11 05'34.0"	02º06'35.4"	Centre Ouest	urban	shor e	0.1	60	6.3	114.0	485.0	n.m.	0	-	500
Sapouy	11°32'38.6"	01%45'45.8"	Centre Ouest	rural	s hore	0.7	160	6.3	n.d.	313.2	n.m.	0	-	0
Bapla-Diébougou	10°52'56.0"	03°15'46.7"	Sud Ouest	u rban	center	n.d.	300	8.5	257.0	9.4	23.8	0	-	0
Moutori-Dano	11 09'29.7"	03 04 32.3"	Sud Ouest	urba n	shore	n.d.	60	8.3	170.7	63.5	64.6	>1100	-	0
Pa	11°29'23.9"	03°14'33.6"	Hauts Bassins	rural	shor e	n.d.	200	7.7	96.4	8.6	17.4	0	-	0
Loumbila-4	1229'38.3"	01º24'21.6"	Plateau Central	rural	center	42.2	270	8.0	222.4	10.2	10.8	0	-	0
Dissin	10°56'21.7"	02°55'36.4"	Sud Ouest	rural	shor e	0.1	60	7.5	73.8	237.9	n.m.	0	-	0
Navri Kpè	10°59'05.3"	02 56 26.7"	Sud Ouest	rural	s hore	2.6	n.d.	7.4	117.9	21.2	53.8	0	-	0
Deux Balé	11º43'04.9"	0300'37.5"	Boucle Mouhoun	ru ral	shore	6.0	n.d.	7.7	132.7	26.8	42.8	0	-	200
Toukoumtouré	12°15'17.3"	01°19'02.6"	Centre	rural	s hore	0.4	60	6.7	75.1	580.0	n.m.	0	-	0
Arzuma	12°13'07.6"	01⁰17'46.0"	Centre	rural	center	1.4	150	7.8	105.3	20.7	27.1	0	-	0
Tanvi Nakemtenga	12୩3'35.7"	0121'06.6"	Centre	rural	center	0.6	170	7.6	105.3	53.1	15.8	0	-	0
Nabazana	12°12'13.4"	01º21'07.8"	Centre	rural	cente r	4.0	100	7.7	97.6	51.7	24.7	0.92	-	0
Loumbila-5	12°29'38.2"	01º24'21.6"	Plateau Central	rural	center	42.2	270	7.5	84.3	43.1	14.8	2.3	+	100
Nobili	11º44'27.6"	01°15'24.0"	Centre Sud	rural	sho re	0,7	60	7.0	97.0	217.9	n.m.	0	-	0
Bazega	11º44'06.2"	01º21'12.0"	Centre Sud	rural	cen ter	11.2	230	7.4	94.9	25.3	44.1	0	-	5
Ziga (reservoir)	12°29'24.4"	01 05'25.5"	Plateau Ce ntral	rural	center	200.0	290	7.4	112.3	23.0	9.0	0	-	0
Ziga (downstream)	1229'25.2"	01°04'55.1"	Plateau Central	rural	shore	n.d.	n.d.	7.0	n.d.	50.8	38.1	0	-	10
Loumbila-6	1229'38.8"	01º24'21.6"	Plateau Central	rural	center	42.2	n.d.	7.5	85.6	20.8	17.6	0	-	5
Bagré (reservoir)	1129'253.7"	00°32'56.9"	Centre E st	rural	center	1700.0	1190	7.5	86.6	44.7	2.6	0	-	5
Bagré	11°28'48.8"	0032'26.9"	Centre Est	rural	shor e	n.d.	n.d.	7.4	86.7	56.0	2.6	0	-	5

2

(downstream)														
Petit Bagré	1128'25.4"	00°30'47.0"	Centre Est	rura I	shore	3.5	n.d.	7.5	111.1 5	52.1	1.2	0	-	0
Koubri-ville	12억1'34.0"	01º24'16.2"	Centre	rural	c enter	9.7	205	5.7	n.d. 12	240.0	n.m.	0	-	0

4 ^a Sampling place: center of the lake *versus* near shore; ^b V: Total volume of reservoir in millions of cubic meters; ^c Z: depth of sampling site; ^d C25: equivalent conductivity at

5 25 °C; ^e SPM: suspended particulate matter; ^fChl *a*: Chlorophyll *a*; ^gV. *cholerae* positive strains: presence of identified strains; ^hTTC: thermotolerant coliforms.

6 *n.d.*: non determined values; *n.m.*: non measurable Chl *a* values owing to excessive turbidity.

CEP TER MARINE

3

1 Table 2

- 2 Non-parametric Spearman's rank order correlation between environmental and
- 3 microbiological variables.

	T (°C)	рН	C25 ^a (µS/cm)	SPM ^b (mg/l)	Chl a ^c (µg/l)	V. cholerae (MPN/l)	TTC ^d /100ml
7 ^e ()	0.515	0.075	-0.226	-0.733	-0.498	-0.454	0.012
Z (cm)	0.003 (**)	0.668	0.204	< 0.001 ^(***)	0.008 (**)	0.006 (**)	0.943
		0.327	-0.129	-0.615	-0.318	-0.386	-0.465
I (°C)		0.052	0.459	< 0.001 ^(***)	0.086	0.019 ^(*)	0.004 (**)
			0.387	-0.186	0.416	0.388	-0.041
рН			0.017 ^(*)	0.237	0.016 ^(*)	0.011 ^(*)	0.793
				0.192	0.273	0.348	0.136
C25 (µS/cm)				0.233	0.117	0.028 (*)	0.399
					0.201	0.357	0.223
SPM (mg/l)					0.245	0.018 ^(*)	0.145
						0.488	-0.003
Chl a (µg/l)						0.003 (**)	0.984
V. cholerae							0.170
(MPN/l)							0.267

4 ^a C25: equivalent conductivity at 25 °C; ^b SPM: suspended particulate matter; ^c Chl *a*: Chlorophyll *a*; ^d TTC:

5 thermotolerant coliforms; ^e Z: depth of sampling site.

 $\label{eq:constraint} {\sf 6} \qquad {}^{(*)} \ p < 0.05; \ {}^{(**)} \ p < 0.01; \ {}^{(***)} \ p < 0.001.$

1 Figure 1



2

CER E

1 Figure_2



2

1 Figure 3

