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International Journal of Applied Sciences and Biotechnology

ISSN 2091-2609

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CODEN (Chemical Abstract Services, USA): IJASKD

Vol-3(3) September, 2015

Available online at:

<http://www.ijasbt.org>

&

<http://www.nepjol.info/index.php/IJASBT/index>



Impact factor*: **1.422**
Scientific Journal Impact factor#: **3.419**
Index Copernicus Value: **6.02**
IBI Factor 2015**: **4.19**

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Research Article

EFFICIENCY OF TRADITIONAL WATER TREATMENT PLANT AND COMPACT UNITS IN REMOVING VIRUSES

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Abstract

The fecal bacteria have been taken as the gold standard for water industry. However, the spread of viral gastroenteritis due to drinking water have given a momentum to a recent push by microbiologists to consider viruses as important pollution indicator as fecal bacteria. Therefore, we designed a study to evaluate the efficiency of two types of water purification systems: the traditional water treatment plant and two types compact units. Both systems produced drinking waters free of bacteria, chemical contaminants and mostly viruses free. However, recent advances in molecular biology techniques, such as RT-PCR have detected Rotaviruses in chlorinated drinking waters resulted from all systems. The frequency of Rotaviruses since October 2010 till September 2012 in Shark El-Mansoura WTP in drinking water samples was 12.5% similar to raw water. While the compact unit at Depo Awam (American design) the frequency of Rotavirus was 16.6% in both raw and drinking water samples. On the other hand the virus frequency in the raw and drinking water sample in El-Danabik unit (Egyptian design) were 12.5% and 4.16% respectively. Signifying failure of the chlorination process in removing viruses completely. However, detection of Rotavirus genome in the drinking water samples does not means the presence of its infectivity. The infectious ability of the rotaviruses was confirmed by CC-RT-PCR in all positive samples, where viral RNA was not detected in the collected drinking water samples. In conclusion RT-PCR and CC-RT-PCR techniques high lightened the need to include viruses as mandatory pollution indicator in water treatment plants.

Keywords: Viral gastroenteritis; Drinking water; Rotaviruses; Pollution; Water purification systems; RT-PCR

Introduction

Many health risks are associated with drinking water include infectious diseases caused by bacteria, protozoa, viruses and intestinal helminthes (Ress *et al.*, 2000 and Gibson *et al.*, 2011). This is dramatized in the 842,000 deaths and billions of cases of diarrheal disease were reported annually due to the inadequate access to either sufficient and/or safe drinking water (Clasen *et al.*, 2014). The dependence of water treatment and manufacturing industry on bacterial indicators such as total coliform, fecal coliform (*Escherichia coli*), Streptococci and *Salmonella* was not enough (Leclerc *et al.*, 2002 and Carducci *et al.*, 2013). Since the bacterial indicators do not always reflect the risks associated with other important pathogenic bacteria, protozoan parasites (*Cryptosporidium*, *Giardia*) and enteric viruses (Griffin *et al.*, 2001, Jiang *et al.*, 2001 and Noble and Fuhrman, 2001).

Waterborne illness is complicated due to the presence of about 140 different serological types of viruses, found in water *via* sewage contamination. These viruses are capable of causing illnesses to humans such as acute gastroenteritis (AGE) diseases (Taylor *et al.*, 2001, Hamza *et al.*, 2009,

Enserink *et al.*, 2015 and Patil *et al.*, 2015). These viruses are transmitted from person to person or through contaminated drinking water, food and bathing or recreational water (Rodriguez-Lazaro *et al.*, 2012). The poor correlation of bacterial indicators with viruses is of particular concern because it cannot be used as reliable indicators of faecal pollution and viral particles in water (Jurzik *et al.*, 2010, Chigor and Okoh, 2012 and Carducci *et al.*, 2013). Furthermore, enteric viruses were detected in raw, surface water, ground water and treated drinking water despite meeting quality standards for coliform bacteria (Cho *et al.*, 2000 and Pusch *et al.*, 2005).

Considering the following virus attributes: low infectious doses, linkage with both acute and chronic disease and frequent implication in swimmer-associated illnesses (Fong and Lipp, 2005). Moreover, Chigor and Okoh (2012) have shown that bacteriological indicators, some human viruses and coliphages may beneficially serve as an index in determining viral contamination and the presence of human fecal waster. Generally, viruses are more resistant to extreme environmental conditions and treatment processes, such as chlorination, UV radiation and filtration compared

to fecal bacterial indicators and other pathogens (Ahmed *et al.*, 2010). While, enteric viruses are relatively resistant to heat, disinfectants and pH changes despite the absence of viral envelope (Koopmans *et al.*, 2002). Most of the enteric viruses are host specific and thus allow screening of the species which is the source of fecal contamination (Silva *et al.*, 2011 and Wu *et al.*, 2011). Enteric viruses are shed in extremely high numbers in the feces of infected individuals, 10^5 to 10^{13} virus particles per gram of stool (Hamza *et al.*, 2009 and Schultz *et al.*, 2011).

Acute gastroenteritis, mainly diarrhea, is one of the most common diseases in human, and remains a leading cause of morbidity and mortality worldwide. It is reported that about 3–5 billion cases of acute gastroenteritis occur each year in children under 5 years, resulting in nearly 2 million deaths (Parashar *et al.*, 2003, Mulholland, 2004 and Elliott, 2007). In developing countries, the incidence rate of acute gastroenteritis is 2.1 to 3.8 diarrhea episodes per child between 11 and 48 months of age per year (Kosek, 2003).

This has posed the challenge of finding a suitable indicator of viral contamination of drinking water. In 2008, the World Health Organization has estimated that rotavirus alone caused 453, 000 deaths, accounting for 5% of all deaths in children younger than 5 years old (WHO, 2012). Therefore, we have taken rotaviruses as good indicators production good quality drinking waters. In this study, we detected Rotavirus in raw Nile water and after each step of treatment in Shark El-Mansoura Water Treatment Plant (WTP) and the two compact units of Depo Awam and El-Danabik villages.

Materials and Methods

Sites of the water treatment plant and compact units

Two types of water treatment plants distributed in three sites were involved in this study. The conventional Shark El-Mansoura water treatment plant (WTP) which supplies residents of Mansoura City, Egypt, with drinking water. While, the two compact units of Depo Awam (American design) and El-Danabik (Egyptian design) supplies drinking water to residents of respective villages. The WTP is supplied by the raw water from El-Mansouria canal and the water treatment in this plant goes through the traditional steps of flocculation, sedimentation, sand filtration and final chlorination. The Depo Awam unit is supplied by fresh waters from Bahr Tnah and El-Danabik unit is supplied by raw water from a small fresh water canal branched from El-Bahr El-Sageer canal.

Water Samples Collection

A total of 192 water samples (20 liters each) were collected from the three sites in the period of October 2010 to September 2012. A total of 96 samples were collected from the different steps of water purification in WTP as follow: 24 samples from raw water (inlet), 24 samples after sedimentation step, 24 samples after sand filtration step and

24 samples from outlet water (drinking). While, 48 water samples were collected from each compact unit: 24 samples from inlet raw water and 24 samples from outlet water. The chlorinated water samples were treated with sodium thiosulfate (0.5% wt/v) to inactivate chlorine followed by 6N aluminum chloride, to increase the stability of the viruses in the concentrated water samples (APHA, 2005).

Physicochemical Analysis of Water Samples

The physicochemical properties of raw water samples: like temperature, pH, turbidity, alkalinity, electrical conductivity, hardness, chloride, dissolved oxygen and consumed oxygen were measured by the standard procedure detailed in the Egyptian standard methods (EMH, 2007) and the American standard methods (APHA, 2005)..

Bacteriological Analysis of Water Samples

Fecal contamination analysis of water samples were performed according to the universally accepted standard methods for bacteriological examination of waters. In these methods we estimated the number of live heterotrophic bacteria on R2A (low nutrient media), total coliform bacteria using membrane filter technique within 24 h at 35°C on an Endo-type medium containing lactose, the fecal coliform using M-FC media at $44.5 \pm 0.2^\circ\text{C}$ and detection of fecal *Streptococcus* group on m-enterococci media grown for 48 hr at $35 \pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$ (APHA, 2005).

Virus Isolation

Primary and secondary water samples concentrations were performed by adsorption/elution technique (APHA, 2005). Primarily, the water samples were acidified (pH 3.5) before filtration, to enhance the adsorption of virus particles to the negatively charged nitrocellulose membrane filters. Viruses were eluted from the nitrocellulose membranes by a 70 ml of 0.05 M glycine buffer containing 3% beef extract, pH ~9.5 (Smith and Gerba, 1982 and Rose *et al.*, 1984). In the secondary concentration, the eluate from primary concentrate is again acidified (pH 3.5) to help viruses to be trapped in the flocks of proteins and organic components before being harvested by centrifugation at 3,000 rpm. Each of the harvested pellets was dissolved in 1 ml Na_2HPO_4 (0.14N, pH 9) and kept at -70°C until used for detection of viruses (Katzenelson *et al.*, 1976).

Extraction of Total RNA from Rotaviruses

The Rotaviruses RNA was extracted by the TRIzol method (BIOZOL Total RNA Extraction reagent, BioFlux, Japan) according to the manufacturer's instructions as detailed by Steyer *et al* (2008). The RNA pellet was dissolved in 50-100µl of RNase-free water and stored at -70°C for further use.

Reverse Transcriptase-PCR (RT-PCR)

Rotavirus viral protein 6 (VP6), is the gold standard for detection and diagnosis of all Retroviruses. Two pairs of oligonucleotide primers were used to amplify a 379-b region of the VP6 gene: VP6-F: 5'-

GACGGNGCNACTACATGGT-3' and VP6-R: 5'-GTCCAA TTCATNCCTGGTGG-3'. A second pair of primers, VP6-NF: 5'-GCTAGAA ATTTTGATACA-3' and VP6-NR: 5'-TCTGCAGTTTGTGAATC-3', were used to amplify a 155 b fragments. Extracted water samples (5 μ l) were heated to 99°C for 5 min and immediately placed on ice. Salts, nucleotides, primers and 100 U of reverse transcriptase (Fermentas-EU) were added in 10 μ l final volume to give a working concentration of 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.3, 40 mM KCl, 5 mM MgCl₂, 5 mM DTT, 0.5 mM Tween 20, 0.2 mM of each dNTP's (Fermentas-EU) and 1 μ M of both VP6-F and VP6-R primers. The samples were incubated for 60 min. at 50°C for the RT reaction. Five μ l of the RT product were added to a final volume of 50 μ l of the PCR reaction mix containing 5 μ l of the PCR buffer (Fermentas-EU), 2 mM MgCl₂, 0.2 mM of each dNTP's, 1 μ M of each primer and 2.5 U of the *Taq* DNA polymerase enzyme (Fermentas-EU). After a denaturation step of 95°C for 3 min, 40 cycles of amplification at 94°C for 1 min, 50°C for 1 min, and 72°C for 1 min. were performed with a final extension of 72°C for 10 min. The nested PCR involved adding 2 μ l of first-round PCR product to a 48 μ l PCR mix containing 10 mM Tris (pH 8.0), 50 mM HCl, 2.5 mM MgCl₂, 0.2 mM of each dNTP's (Fermentas-EU), 1 μ M of VP6NF and VP6NR primers, and 2.5 U of *Taq* DNA polymerase (Fermentas-EU). Cycling conditions for VP6NF/VP6NR were 35 cycles of 94°C for 1 min, 42°C for 1 min, and 72°C for 1 min. PCR products (10 μ l) were analyzed by electrophoresis on 3% agarose gels (Iturriza-Gómara *et al.*, 2002 and Gallimore *et al.*, 2006).

Results and Discussion

International and local standards were set and established worldwide for drinking water purifications processes which included minimum and maximum limits for contaminants. Water purification processes are intended to remove all sorts of contaminants from natural waters (rivers, canals and/or reservoirs) which are loaded with undesirable chemicals and biological contaminants, that can cause human illness such as bacteria, viruses, fungi, protozoa and some algae.

Two types of water purifications systems do exist in Egypt and worldwide. The traditional methods of water purification (includes physical processes such as flocculation, sedimentation, sand filtration and chlorination) and the pre-packed compact smaller units used for quick water purification mainly in rural areas. The two systems examined in Mansoura and its surroundings proved to be highly efficient in removing all sorts of chemicals and microbial contaminants from raw waters and produced drinking waters meeting all national and international standards. However, their abilities to remove the viral causative agents of human illnesses, such as Rotaviruses. Since Rotaviruses was detected in some drinking water

samples from both systems. While seasonal detection of Rotaviruses in winter and autumn was observed.

Water quality through the presence of pathogenic enteric microorganisms may negatively affect human health. Where, coliform bacteria, such as *Escherichia coli*, and coliphages are normally used as indicators of water quality. However, the presence of above-mentioned indicators do not always suggest the presence of human enteric viruses which may be more resistance than the bacterial indicators. Therefore, Lin and Ganesh, (2013) concluded that it is highly important to study human enteric viruses in water to avoid their pathogenic action on children and immune-compromised people. While the current study demonstrated the efficiency and efficacy of the two water treatment systems in removing all microbial and undesired chemical contaminants. It failed to completely remove causative agents of gastroenteritis viruses such as Rotaviruses (Tables 1, 2 and Fig 1).

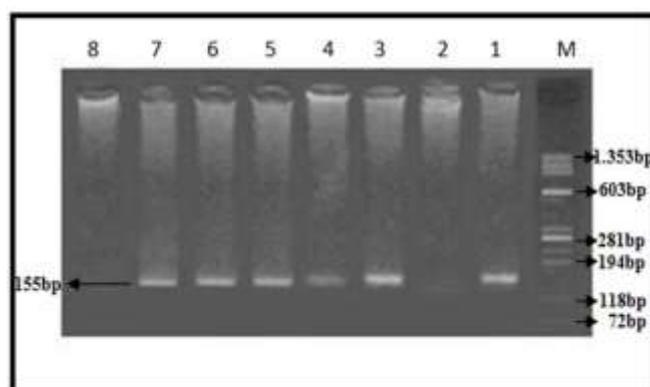


Fig. 1: Agarose gel electrophoresis (3%) in TBE buffer stained with ethidium bromide showing RT-PCR product profile of VP6 gene characteristic of Rotaviruses in examined water samples, lane 1: raw water of Shark El Mansoura (Jan.2011), lane 2: after sedimentation water of Shark El Mansoura (Jan.2011), lane 3: after sand filtration of Shark El Mansoura (Jan.2011), lane 4: chlorinated effluents of Shark El Mansoura (Jan.2011), lane 5: raw water of Depo Awam CU (Nov.2011), lane 6: chlorinated effluents of Depo Awam CU (Nov.2011), lane 7: raw water of El-Dnabik CU (Nov.2011), lane 8: chlorinated effluents of El-Dnabik CU (Nov.2011), all bands of positive samples were appeared with a size about 155b. Marker: ØX 174 / HaeIII (Bio labs).

RT-PCR analysis (using the highly conserved the sixth viral structural proteins, VP6) of water samples collected from Shark El-Mansoura traditional water treatment plant showed a frequency of Rotaviruses in the monthly collected water samples (October 2010 – September 2012) of 3/24 (12.5%), 3/24 (12.5%), 4/24 (16.6%) and 3/24 (12.5%) in raw water, after sedimentation, after sand filtration and in chlorinated effluents (drinking water samples), respectively (Table 1). During the same period, the frequency of Rotaviruses in monthly collected water samples of Depo Awam was 16.60% (4/24) and 16.6% (4/24) in raw water and chlorinated effluents, respectively. While, the frequency of Rotaviruses in El-Dnabik station was 12.50%

(3/24), and 4.16% (1/24) in raw water and Chlorinated effluents, respectively. Only water samples collected in the months of January 2011 and September 2011 showed positive results for the existence of Rotaviruses. While, RT-PCR positive Rotavirus were detected in raw and drinking

water samples collected from the compact units of Depo Awam and Danabik in the months of November 2010 and Septemehr 2011, suggesting a failure in the systems in the mentioned months only.

Table 1: Rotavirus in water samples collected from Water treatment plants.

Year	WTPs	Shark El Mansoura ¹				Depo Awam ²		El Dnabik ³	
	Months	Raw water	After Sedimentation	After Sand Filtration	Tap water	Raw water	Tap water	Raw water	Tap water
2010	October	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	November	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-
	December	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2011	January	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-
	February	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
	March	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	April	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	May	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	June	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	July	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	August	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	September	+	-	-	+	-	+	+	+
	October	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-
	November	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	-
	December	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-
2012	January	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-
	February	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
	March	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	April	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	May	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	June	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	July	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	August	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	September	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

1- Traditional water treatment plant

2- American design compact unit

3- Egyptian design compact unit

+: Presence

-: Absence

Table 2: Total coliforms, fecal coliforms and fecal streptococci of selected raw water and drinking samples

Water Treatment System	Type of Water	Bacterial Colony Forming Unit (CFU) / 100 ml														
		Total coliforms					Fecal coliforms					Fecal streptococci				
	Month/year	Oct 2010	Jan 2011	Apr 2011	Jul 2011	Sep 2011	Oct 2010	Jan 2011	Apr 2011	Jul 2011	Sep 2011	Oct 2010	Jan 2011	Apr 2011	Jul 2011	Sep 2011
Shark El-Mansoura ¹	Raw water	59x10 ³	30x10 ³	53x10 ³	73x10 ³	56x10 ³	69x10 ²	55x10 ²	12x10 ²	25x10 ²	45x10 ²	44x10	35x10	22x10	35x10	19x10
	Drinking water	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill
Depo Awam ²	Raw water	57x10 ³	29x10 ³	41x10 ³	70x10 ³	45x10 ³	77x10 ²	34x10 ²	10x10 ²	19x10 ²	26x10 ²	57x10	39x10	37x10	37x10	29x10
	Drinking water	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill
Danabik ³	Raw water	56x10 ³	26x10 ³	43x10 ³	68x10 ³	47x10 ³	76x10 ²	30x10 ²	9x10 ²	17x10 ²	29x10 ²	58x10	37x10	33x10	39x10	21x10
	Drinking water	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill	nill

1- Traditional water treatment plant

2- American design compact unit

3- Egyptian design compact unit

Table 3: The physico-chemical parameters of selected water samples in different seasons

Seasons	Autumn 2010						Winter 2011						Spring 2011						Summer 2011						
	Shark ¹		Depo ²		ElDnabik ³		Shark ¹		Depo ²		ElDnabik ³		Shark ¹		Depo ²		ElDnabik ³		Shark ¹		Depo ²		ElDnabik ³		
WTPs	Raw	Tap	Raw	Tap	Raw	Tap	Raw	Tap	Raw	Tap	Raw	Tap	Raw	Tap	Raw	Tap	Raw	Tap	Raw	Tap	Raw	Tap	Raw	Tap	
Water types	Raw	Tap	Raw	Tap	Raw	Tap	Raw	Tap	Raw	Tap	Raw	Tap	Raw	Tap	Raw	Tap	Raw	Tap	Raw	Tap	Raw	Tap	Raw	Tap	
Temp	23.2	24.7	23	23.5	23	23.4	18	18	18.6	18.4	18	18.7	24	24.5	24.5	24.4	24.4	24	24	31.7	31.5	30.3	30	30	30.4
R.CL	0	2	0	2	0	1.8	0	1.8	0	1.7	0	1.8	0	1.8	0	1.5	0	1.7	0	2	0	1.8	0	1.7	
Turbidity	8.2	0.17	14	0.4	12	0.4	8.5	0.15	6.8	0.96	10	0.25	9.4	0.14	15.4	0.95	11.1	0.34	8.4	0.15	11	0.82	12	0.8	
PH	7.68	7.32	7.63	7.34	7.7	7.37	7.74	7.25	7.78	7.32	7.75	7.38	7.7	7.3	7.75	7.45	7.78	7.25	7.75	7.3	7.72	7.38	8	7.4	
T.D.S	267	277	265	273	265	287	295	316	276	289	373	319	237	240	231	236	235	251	207	211	209	212	195	200	
Alkanility	146	132	144	138	148	132	148	132	142	136	148	132	126	118	128	118	128	124	134	114	138	128	122	116	
TotalHardnes	142	140	138	138	140	142	144	138	146	140	138	148	118	114	114	118	112	130	120	114	124	124	120	120	
Ca Hardnes	88	88	88	88	86	82	86	82	88	80	82	88	82	80	78	84	78	82	64	66	82	82	80	76	
Mg Hardnes	54	52	50	50	54	60	58	56	58	60	56	60	36	34	36	34	34	48	46	48	42	42	40	44	
Sulphate	20	25	20	25	20	24	38	42	28	34	37	34	27	36	23	32	28	31	24	30	30	33	28	34	
Chlorides	30	38	28	38	26	32	38	46	30	38	36	48	26	30	22	30	24	30	18	26	20	30	18	24	
Amonia	0.13	0	0.13	0	0.2	0	0.17	0	0.15	0	0.15	0	0.12	0	0.15	0	0.16	0	0.16	0	0.19	0	0.18	0	
Nitrite	1.7	2.7	2.1	3.8	2	3.8	3.7	5	2.8	3.9	2.4	3.2	3.81	4.4	2.5	5.3	3.4	5.5	3.9	5.7	2.8	5.3	3.1	5.5	
Nitrate	0.017	0	0.006	0	0.008	0	0.031	0	0.08	0	0.015	0	0.021	0	0.021	0	0.022	0	0.005	0	0.023	0	0.021	0	
Iron	0.05	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.01	0	0.002	0.01	0.04	0.01	0.01	0	0.02	0	0.02	0.01	0.01	0	0	0	
Mnganes	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Almonium	0.038	0.065	0.038	0.078	0.044	0.069	0.014	0.021	0.01	0.08	0.017	0.061	0.008	0.014	0.02	0.034	0.006	0.019	0.009	0.022	0.021	0.51	0.02	0.04	
(DO)	6.4	7.9	6.2	8.2	5.6	7.9	5.7	8	6.4	7.8	5.6	5.3	6	8	6	7.4	6	7.4	5.2	6.5	5.6	7.2	6.2	7.5	
(COD)	3.9	0	4	0	3.9	0	4	0	3.9	0	4	0	3.9	0	3.5	0	3.9	0	4.6	0	3.2	0	4	0	

1- Traditional water treatment plant (Shark El Mansoura)

2- American design compact unit (Depo Awam)

3- Egyptian design compact unit (El Dnabik)

These results were similar to the previously published reports on Rotaviruses in raw Nile water, treated drinking water and ground waters in Egypt (El-Senousy *et al.*, 2004, El-Senousy and El-Mahdy, 2009, El-Senousy *et al.*, 2013a&b and El-Senousy *et al.*, 2014), Tunisia (Sdiri-Loulizi *et al.*, 2008) and France (Gratacap-Cavallier *et al.*, 2000). The French report emphasized that the winter epidemics of Rotavirus infections was associated with a high level of interhuman transmission, after they have analyzed drinking waters in homes of children suffering from Rotaviral gastroenteritis by RT-PCR. Moreover, they have detected in the children's feces rotavirus genome different from human Rotaviruses, three of them were of animal origin (porcine or bovine). On the other hand, Grassi, *et al* (2010) showed the widespread viral contamination in different water samples collected from Italy and Rotaviruses peaked in spring. On the contrary, Verheyen, *et al* (2009) have concluded that no seasonal pattern for viral contaminations was found after comparisons of water samples obtained during the dry and wet seasons from Benin, West Africa. The detection of genome in the drinking water samples did not mean the capability of the virus to cause diseases. It does not confirm the infectivity of the virus (He *et al.*, 2009). Liu *et al.*, (2006) attributed the higher frequency of detection of rotaviruses (for example) was due to an outbreak of diarrheal in Beijing 2006 where Rotavirus was detected in 60% of all diarrheal patients. The traditional water treatment is extensive process and involves several steps subjective to humans interferences, compact units do everything inside without such interference. Although the disinfecting power of chlorine is well documented in the literature against all types of microbes including viruses, the detection of Rotaviruses in the drinking water sample in Shark El-Mansoura WTP suggested a failure in the chlorination process which needs attention. Chlorination was reported denature the proteins and causes breakage in the nucleic acid molecules (Ogata, 2007). These should be sufficient to remove all forms of microbes and viruses. Moreover, the detection of viruses in drinking waters produced by the two compact units indicate an inherited problems with these units which requires more and thorough investigation.

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