

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Seasonal variation of diarrhoeal pathogens among Guinea-Bissauan children under five years of age

Sointu Mero^{1,2}, Tinja Lääveri^{2,3}, Johan Ursing^{4,5,6}, Lars Rombo^{7,8}, Poul-Erik Kofoed^{6,9}, Anu Kantele^{1,2*}

1 Human Microbiome Research Program, Faculty of Medicine, University of Helsinki, Helsinki, Finland, **2** Meilahti Infectious Diseases and Vaccine Research Center, MeIVac, Department of Infectious Diseases, University of Helsinki and Helsinki University Hospital, Helsinki, Finland, **3** Department of Computer Science, Aalto University, Espoo, Finland, **4** Department of Infectious Diseases, Danderyds Hospital, Stockholm, Sweden, **5** Department of Clinical Science, Karolinska Institutet, Danderyd Hospital, Stockholm, Sweden, **6** Bandim Health Project, Indepth Network, Bissau, Guinea-Bissau, **7** Department of Medical Biochemistry and Microbiology, Uppsala University, Uppsala, Sweden, **8** Centre for Clinical Research, Sörmland County Council, Eskilstuna, Sweden and Uppsala University, Uppsala, Sweden, **9** Department of Paediatrics and Adolescent Medicine, Lillebaelt Hospital, University Hospital of Southern Denmark, Kolding, Denmark

* anu.kantele@hus.fi



OPEN ACCESS

Citation: Mero S, Lääveri T, Ursing J, Rombo L, Kofoed P-E, Kantele A (2023) Seasonal variation of diarrhoeal pathogens among Guinea-Bissauan children under five years of age. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis* 17(3): e0011179. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0011179>

Editor: Josh M. Colston, University of Virginia School of Medicine, UNITED STATES

Received: August 23, 2022

Accepted: February 17, 2023

Published: March 13, 2023

Copyright: © 2023 Mero et al. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution License](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Data Availability Statement: All relevant data are in the manuscript. The individuals' personal data cannot be shared publicly because of research regulations. Contact details for further information: Meilahti Vaccine Research Center, MeVac Biomedicum 1, Helsinki University Hospital and University of Helsinki, POB 700, 00029 HUS, FINLAND email: vaccine@hus.fi.

Funding: This work was supported by the Finnish Governmental Subsidy for Health Science Research, (AK), the Scandinavian Society for

Abstract

Background

Diarrhoea remains a major cause of childhood morbidity and mortality in low-income countries (LICs). The frequency of diarrhoeal episodes may vary by season, yet few prospective cohort studies have examined seasonal variation among various diarrhoeal pathogens using multiplex qPCR to analyse bacterial, viral and parasitic pathogens.

Methods

We combined our recent qPCR data of diarrhoeal pathogens (nine bacterial, five viral and four parasitic) among Guinea-Bissauan children under five years old with individual background data, dividing by season. The associations of season (dry winter and rainy summer) and the various pathogens were explored among infants (0–11 months) and young children (12–59 months) and those with and without diarrhoea.

Results

Many bacterial pathogens, especially EAEC, ETEC and *Campylobacter*, and parasitic *Cryptosporidium*, prevailed in the rainy season, whereas many viruses, particularly the adenovirus, astrovirus and rotavirus proved common in the dry season. Noroviruses were found constantly throughout the year. Seasonal variation was observed in both age groups.

Conclusion

In childhood diarrhoea in a West African LIC, seasonal variation appears to favour EAEC, ETEC, and *Cryptosporidium* in the rainy and viral pathogens in the dry season.

Antimicrobial Chemotherapy Foundation, <https://www.sls.se/vetenskap/sok-anslag/ssac-foundation/> (AK), the Sigrid Jusélius Foundation, <https://www.sigridjuselius.fi/en/> (AK), the University of Helsinki Doctoral School on Health Science, <https://www.helsinki.fi/en/admissions-and-education/apply-doctoral-programmes/doctoral-schools-and-doctoral-programmes/doctoral-school> health-sciences (SM). The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Competing interests: I have read the journal's policy and the authors of this manuscript have the following competing interests: TL received honoraria from Pfizer unrelated to this article. AK received research grants from Valneva and Pfizer unrelated to this article. Other authors have declared that no competing interests.

Author summary

Childhood diarrhoea, a major cause of mortality in low-income countries (LICs), is known to be influenced by seasonal variations. Studies on the seasonality of diarrhoeal pathogens have mostly been conducted in the temperate zone where the seasons differ by temperature. In Guinea-Bissau and many other LICs, seasonality is characterized by precipitation changes with negligible temperature variations. The monsoon-type rainy season lasts from June to October and the dry season from November to May. We expect this seasonality to influence stool pathogen distribution.

To investigate the associations between various diarrhoeal pathogens and seasonality in childhood diarrhoea in Guinea-Bissau, we explored a large variety of bacterial, viral and parasitic agents among children with and without diarrhoea during the rainy versus dry seasons.

We found diarrhoeal pathogens not to be equally present over the year but show seasonal variation with respect to age and precipitation. The waterborne *Cryptosporidium* showed highest prevalence during the wetter months, while viral pathogens (adenovirus, astrovirus and rotavirus) were found most frequently during the arid months. Of bacterial pathogens, EAEC, ETEC, and *Campylobacter* prevailed in the rainy season. Such data add to our understanding of childhood diarrhoea in LICs and serve as a tool for devising preventive measures.

Introduction

The seasonality of diarrhoeal pathogens has mostly been examined in temperate regions [1], where seasons are mainly characterized by variations in temperature. Fewer studies have been conducted in tropical low-income countries (LICs), where the seasons are generally defined by rainfall [2–3]. Data on seasonal variations are quite scarce, but deeper insight into the impact of seasonality on each pathogen's epidemiology may offer tools for prevention and even guide treatment.

In Guinea-Bissau, like in all equatorial tropical countries, the temperature differences over the year are minimal, mostly with averages ranging between 28 and 32 degrees. There is, however, a monsoonal-like rainy season from June to October and a dry season from November to May, with monthly rainfall averages of 70–600mm and 0–20mm, respectively [4]. The data remain limited, but weather conditions may have a considerable effect on the types of prevailing pathogens. For example, in the Global Enteric Multicenter Study (GEMS) conducted in four sub-Saharan African countries (Kenya, Mali, Mozambique, and Gambia) and three South Asian (Bangladesh, India, and Pakistan) [5], Chao et al. report rotavirus prevailing in the drier and bacterial pathogens in the wetter months [6]. Only a few studies have explored seasonality of diarrhoeagenic pathogens among children in Guinea-Bissau [7–9], mainly focusing on rotavirus and *Cryptosporidium*. In the absence of national surveillance programmes, academic research provides despite its limitations, for example, with respect to continuity over time, an important source of data on the seasonality of the agents causing diarrhoea in LICs.

To investigate the associations between various diarrhoeal pathogens and seasonality in childhood diarrhoea, we explored a large variety of bacterial, viral and parasitic agents among children with and without diarrhoea during both rainy and dry seasons. Moreover, while we previously observed differences in the occurrence of various pathogens between infants and young children [10], we now scrutinized whether these differences were seasonally impacted. Characterizing such epidemiology of diarrhoeal pathogens can enhance clinical approaches

for diagnostics and treatment by season. In addition, defining the weather conditions for each pathogen should enable identification of pathways of pathogen spread and prediction of large outbreaks.

Materials and methods

Ethics statement

The study protocol was approved by the Comité Nacional de Ética na Saúde, Instituto Nacional de Saúde Pública, Guinea-Bissau (No: 031/CNES/2010). As described in our previous report in the same study setting [10], the children's parents or caregivers were informed about the aim of the study and they signed a written informed consent form.

Study population and sample material

This study was a secondary analysis of data from an unmatched, health facility-based case-control study, the procedures and primary findings of which have been reported elsewhere [10]. The study was conducted at the Bandim Health and Demographic Surveillance Site (HDSS) serving an area of 16 km² in suburban Bissau, the capital of Guinea-Bissau (www.bandim.org). A total of 561 children were recruited between November 2010 and October 2012 from among consecutive patients (excluding weekends and night-time) seeking medical care at the Bandim Health Centre, which is one of the three health centres in the Bandim HDSS (Fig 1). The study population was selected to cover children with and without diarrhoea in two age groups: infants (0–11 months) and young children (12–59 months). The inclusion criteria comprised age less than five years and information available on the study nurse's interview form concerning presence/lack of diarrhoea at the time of sampling; those with ongoing diarrhoea were included in the diarrhoea group and those with no diarrhoeal symptoms over the past seven days in the control group. Children requiring hospital care were not eligible.

Definition of children's diarrhoea

Diarrhoea was defined by WHO criteria [11] as passage of three or more loose or liquid stools per day or, more frequently than is normal for the individual. The children were defined as not having diarrhoea if they had not had diarrhoea during the last seven days prior to attending the health centre.

Weather data, definition of dry and rainy season and age stratification

Monthly averages of daily temperature and precipitation for Bissau were extracted from WorldWeatherOnline.com [4] and visualized by plotting them in time series graphs alongside taxon- and species-specific enteropathogen detection rates. The rainy season was defined as the months in which the average rainfall exceeded 50 mm (June to October) and the dry season as months it did not exceed this limit (November to May). The data were also analysed by age group, allowing comparisons between infants (0–11 months) and small children (12–59 months).

PCR for the detection of diarrhoeal pathogens

PCRs for the detection of diarrhoeal pathogens were described in our previous study [10]. Briefly, we used qPCR assays with a large coverage of pathogens: nine enteric bacteria, *Campylobacter*, enteroaggregative (EAEC), enterohaemorrhagic (EHEC), enteroinvasive (EIEC)/*Shigella*, enteropathogenic (EPEC), enterotoxigenic *E. coli* (ETEC), *Salmonella*, *Yersinia* and *Vibrio cholerae* O1 [12]; five viruses: adenovirus 40 and 41, astrovirus, norovirus GI and GII,

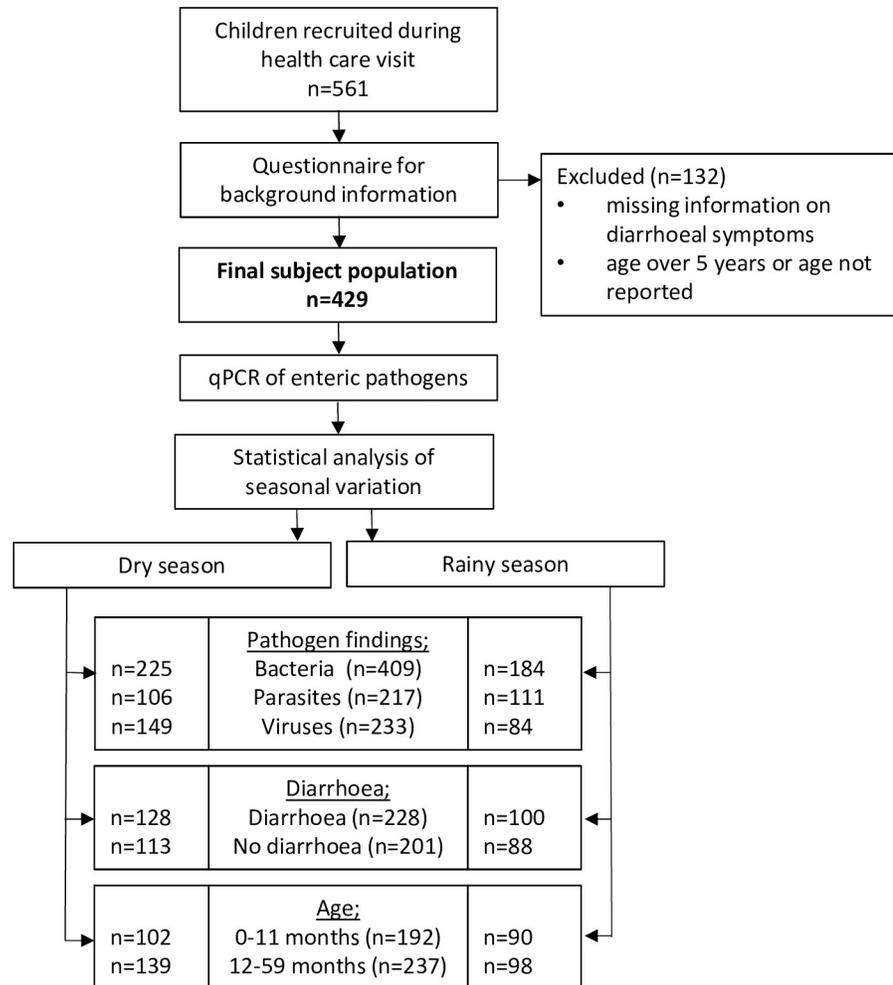


Fig 1. Flow chart of the study. The final study population comprised 429 children; 424 of these were tested for bacterial, 397 for viral, and 426 for parasitic pathogens.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0011179.g001>

rotavirus A and sapovirus (Amplidiag Viral GE; Mobidiag Ltd, Helsinki, Finland); and four parasites: *Cryptosporidium*, *Dientamoeba fragilis*, *Entamoeba histolytica* and *Giardia duodenalis* (Amplidiag Stool Parasites; Mobidiag Ltd, Helsinki, Finland).

Statistical analysis

Pearson's chi-square test or Fisher's exact test were used to compare categorical variables when applicable. Statistical significance was defined as $p < 0.05$ or ORs with 95% CIs ranging either above or below 1. Exact binomial 95% CIs for proportions were calculated. The increase/decrease of pathogen findings by 100 mm of rainfall was analysed by logistic regression. The unadjusted population attributable fraction (AF) was defined as $AF = \frac{Pr(disease) - Pr(disease|not\ exposed)}{Pr(disease)}$ which by the Bayesian formula equals to $Pr(exposed | disease) \left(1 - \frac{1}{RR}\right)$, in which RR is the relative risk of the disease. We used logistic regression with robust standard error estimators to evaluate attributable fractions by predicting the number of cases needed for calculating the estimate of AF and its uncertainty (standard error). The unadjusted AF is estimated by

$\frac{\text{observed no. ill} - \text{expected no. ill on removal of the exposure}}{\text{observed no. ill}}$ [13]. The statistical analyses were carried out using SPSS 22 software (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY) and Stata 17.0 (StataCorp, College Station, TX).

Results

Study population

Of the 561 children recruited, 429 met the inclusion criteria, 228 of them having diarrhoea and 201 not having the disease. Of all children, 211 (50.8%) were females, 193 (45.0%) infants (0–11 months), and 236 (55.0%) young children (12–59 months). Flow chart of study conduct is shown in Fig 1.

Seasonality of diarrhoeal pathogens

As indicated in our previous report, coinfections with multiple pathogen species types (bacteria, viruses, parasites) were common [10]. Overall, findings of viral pathogens in the total study population were most common in the dry season (45.4% in the rainy versus 70.3% in dry season, $p < 0.001$) and parasitic pathogens in the rainy season (59.4% versus 44.4%, $p = 0.002$). With bacterial pathogens, the rates were very high regardless of season (98.4% versus 94.9%) (Table 1 and Fig 2). These differences were mostly explained by six individual pathogens showing seasonal differences in prevalence (Table 1): EAEC, ETEC, *Cryptosporidium*, adenovirus, astrovirus and rotavirus (Fig 3); a seasonal variation was also observed with *Campylobacter*, yet it did not reach statistical significance (58.3% versus 48.9%, $p = 0.056$). EAEC (69.5% versus 59.9%, $p = 0.041$), ETEC (56.7% versus 45.1%, $p = 0.018$) and *Cryptosporidium* (22.5% versus 7.1%, $p < 0.001$) were found more frequently during the rainy season, and rotavirus (12.4% versus 33.0%, $p < 0.001$), astrovirus (4.9% versus 14.6%, $p = 0.001$), and adenovirus (11.4% versus 24.5%, $p = 0.001$) during the dry season. For the other pathogens, no clear differences were seen between seasons. A separate analysis by the amount of rainfall showed that 100 mm per month significantly increased the number of *Campylobacter* ($p = 0.026$) and *Cryptosporidium* ($p < 0.001$) findings, and correspondingly decreased the number of virus findings ($p < 0.001$), mainly adenovirus, astrovirus and rotavirus (Table 1).

The temperature in Guinea-Bissau does not vary much during the year and, thus, the variation in the rates of the various pathogen findings appears not to depend on changes in temperature (Fig 2b).

Seasonality of diarrhoeal pathogens by age group

In both age groups, an association was found between the findings of *Cryptosporidium* and rainy season (Table 2). As for the viral pathogens, an association with the dry season was observed for rotavirus among infants (dry versus rainy season: 40.0% versus 11.2%, $p < 0.0019$), and young children (27.9% versus 13.5%, $p = 0.011$), for astrovirus among infants (16.7% versus 5.6%, $p = 0.019$) and young children (13.1% versus 4.2%, $p = 0.023$) and for adenovirus among infants (31.1% versus 10.1%, $p = 0.001$). For bacterial pathogens, we observed an association with the rainy season in the following age groups: for *Campylobacter* among infants (rainy versus dry season: 58.4% versus 43.6%, $p = 0.041$), for ETEC among infants (62.9% versus 47.5%, $p = 0.033$) and for EAEC among young children (66.3% versus 50.0%, $p = 0.013$).

Impact of season on pathogen findings among those with and without diarrhoea

We compared those with symptomatic diarrhoea to those without diarrhoea separately during each of the two seasons. Statistically significant differences were seen for viruses; they were more

Table 1. Microbial findings among 429 Guinea-Bissauan children under five years of age during dry (November to May) and rainy (June to October) seasons*.

	Total	Dry season		Rainy season		Rainy versus dry season		Impact of 100 mm monthly rainfall on pathogen findings	
	n (%)	n (%)	95% CI (%)	n (%)	95% CI (%)	OR (95% CI)	p-value	OR (95% CI)	p-value
All subjects	429 (100)	241 (56.2)		188 (43.8)					
Children with diarrhoea	228 (53.1)	128 (53.1)		100 (53.2)		1.0 (0.7–1.5)	0.987	1.0 (0.9–1.1)	0.856
Any pathogen	422 (98.4)	236 (97.9)		186 (98.9)		2.0 (0.4–10.3)	0.474		
Any bacteria ^a	409 (96.5)	225 (94.9)	91.3–97.3	184 (98.4)	95.4–99.7	3.3 (0.9–11.8)	0.056	1.1 (0.8–1.5)	0.536
<i>Campylobacter</i>	225 (53.1)	116 (48.9)	42.8–55.9	109 (58.3)	50.3–64.8	1.5 (1.0–2.1)	0.056	1.1 (1.0–1.2)	0.026
EAEC	272 (64.2)	142 (59.9)	53.4–66.3	130 (69.5)	62.8–76.3	1.5 (1.0–2.3)	0.041	1.0 (0.9–1.1)	0.704
EHEC	6 (1.4)	3 (1.3)	NA	3 (1.6)	NA	1.3 (0.3–6.4)	1.000	NA	NA
EIEC/ <i>Shigella</i>	98 (23.1)	48 (20.3)	15.1–25.7	50 (26.7)	20.8–33.9	1.4 (0.9–2.3)	0.116	1.0 (0.9–1.2)	0.435
EPEC	266 (62.7)	143 (60.3)	53.4–66.3	123 (65.8)	58.4–72.4	1.3 (0.8–1.9)	0.250	1.0 (0.9–1.1)	0.441
ETEC	213 (50.2)	107 (45.1)	39.0–52.1	106 (56.7)	49.8–64.3	1.6 (1.1–2.3)	0.018	1.0 (0.9–1.1)	0.565
<i>Salmonella</i>	11 (2.6)	5 (2.1)	NA	6 (3.2)	NA	1.5 (0.5–5.1)	0.342	NA	NA
<i>V. cholerae</i>	2 (0.5)	1 (0.4)	NA	1 (0.5)	NA	1.3 (0.1–20.4)	1.000	NA	NA
<i>Yersinia</i>	3 (0.7)	2 (0.8)	NA	1 (0.5)	NA	0.6 (0.1–7.0)	1.000	NA	NA
Any parasites ^b	217 (50.9)	106 (44.4)	37.5–50.5	111 (59.4)	52.4–66.8	1.8 (1.2–2.7)	0.002	1.2 (1.1–1.3)	0.001
<i>Cryptosporidium</i>	59 (13.8)	17 (7.1)	4.2–11.2	42 (22.5)	17.9–30.5	3.8 (2.1–6.9)	< 0.001	1.4 (1.2–1.5)	< 0.001
<i>D. fragilis</i>	43 (10.7)	26 (11.9)	8.0–17.1	17 (9.2)	5.4–14.2	0.8 (0.4–1.4)	0.385	1.1 (0.9–1.2)	0.438
<i>E. histolytica</i>	3 (0.7)	0 (0.0)	NA	3 (1.6)	NA	NA	0.084	NA	NA
<i>Giardia</i>	159 (37.3)	88 (36.8)	30.2–42.8	71 (38.0)	30.1–44.4	1.1 (0.7–1.6)	0.808	1.0 (0.9–1.1)	0.474
Any virus ^c	233 (58.7)	149 (70.3)	64.3–77.0	84 (45.4)	37.1–51.8	0.4 (0.2–0.5)	< 0.001	0.8 (0.7–0.9)	< 0.001
Adenovirus 40, 42	73 (18.4)	52 (24.5)	19.1–31.2	21 (11.4)	7.1–16.7	0.4 (0.2–0.7)	0.001	0.8 (0.6–0.9)	0.005
Astrovirus	40 (10.1)	31 (14.6)	10.3–20.3	9 (4.9)	2.2–8.9	0.3 (0.1–0.6)	0.001	0.7 (0.6–1.0)	0.034
Norovirus GI/GII	92 (23.2)	48 (22.6)	17.4–29.1	44 (23.8)	17.2–29.7	1.1 (0.7–1.7)	0.788	1.0 (0.9–1.1)	0.871
Rotavirus A	93 (23.4)	70 (33.0)	27.0–40.2	23 (12.4)	8.0–17.9	0.3 (0.2–0.5)	< 0.001	0.8 (0.6–0.9)	0.001
Sapovirus	29 (7.3)	20 (9.4)	5.9–14.3	9 (4.9)	2.2–8.9	0.5 (0.2–1.1)	0.081	0.9 (0.7–1.1)	0.426

Data is missing, n (%):

^{a)} 5 (1.2),

^{b)} 3 (0.7),

^{c)} 32 (7.5)

CI = confidence interval; NA = not applicable; OR = odds ratio; **bolding** indicates statistically significant at p<0.05 (Pearson χ^2 test or Fisher’s exact test)

*Coinfections with multiple pathogen species were observed in 97.4% of samples collected in the rainy and 92.1% in the dry season (p = 0.017; OR 3.2 95% CI 1.2–8.7).

Viruses and bacteria were found in 19.5% versus 41.2% (p<0.001; OR 0.3 95% CI 0.2–0.5), bacteria and parasites in 34.1% versus 13.7% (0<0.001; OR 3.2 95% CI 2.0–5.4), viruses and parasites in 0% versus 1.0% (p = 0.500; OR NA), and all three in 24.9% versus 27.5% (p = 0.562; OR 0.9 95% CI 0.6–1.4), respectively.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0011179.t001>

prevalent among those with diarrhoea than those without the disease during both seasons (Table 3). A tendency was seen for practically all viruses, but statistical significance was found for norovirus (rainy season: diarrhoea 29.6% versus no diarrhoea 17.2%; dry season: diarrhoea 28.9% with no diarrhoea 15.5%) and astrovirus (rainy season: diarrhoea 8.2% versus no diarrhoea 1.1%; dry season: diarrhoea 19.3% versus no diarrhoea 9.2%) in both seasons. Of the parasites, the higher rates of cases among those with diarrhoea were seen with *Cryptosporidium* during both seasons. As for bacteria, the only significant findings were those for ETEC, which showed in the dry season higher rates among those with diarrhoea than those without it (rainy season: diarrhoea 57.0% versus no diarrhoea 56.3%; dry season: diarrhoea 52.8% versus no diarrhoea 36.4%). In the rainy season, most of the diarrhoea cases were attributable to norovirus (8%) and *Cryptosporidium* (6%) and in the dry season to ETEC (13%) and norovirus (8%) (Table 3).

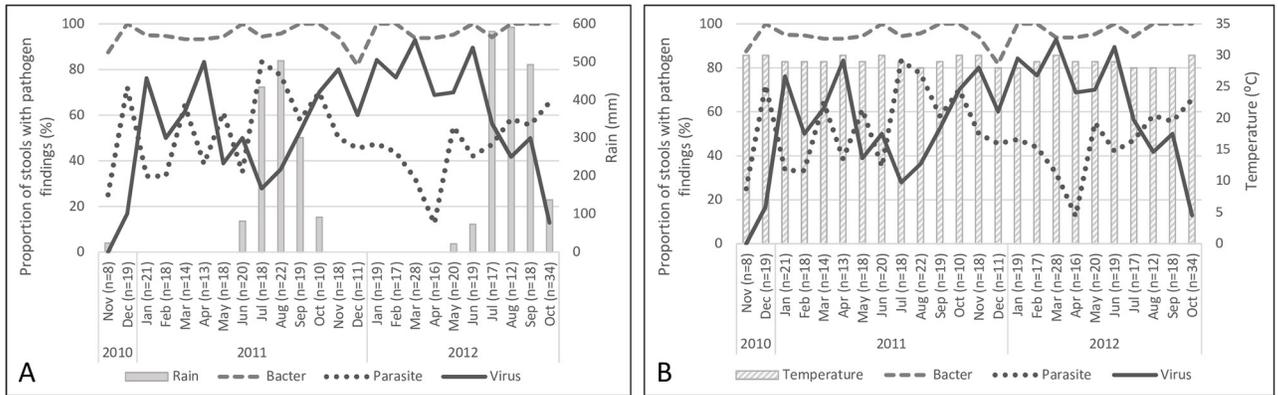


Fig 2. Seasonal variation of diarrhoeal pathogens identified over the 24-month study period with respect to rainfall [4] (A) and temperature (B). Monthly proportions given for those with samples positive for bacterial, parasitic, or viral diarrhoeal pathogens.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0011179.g002>

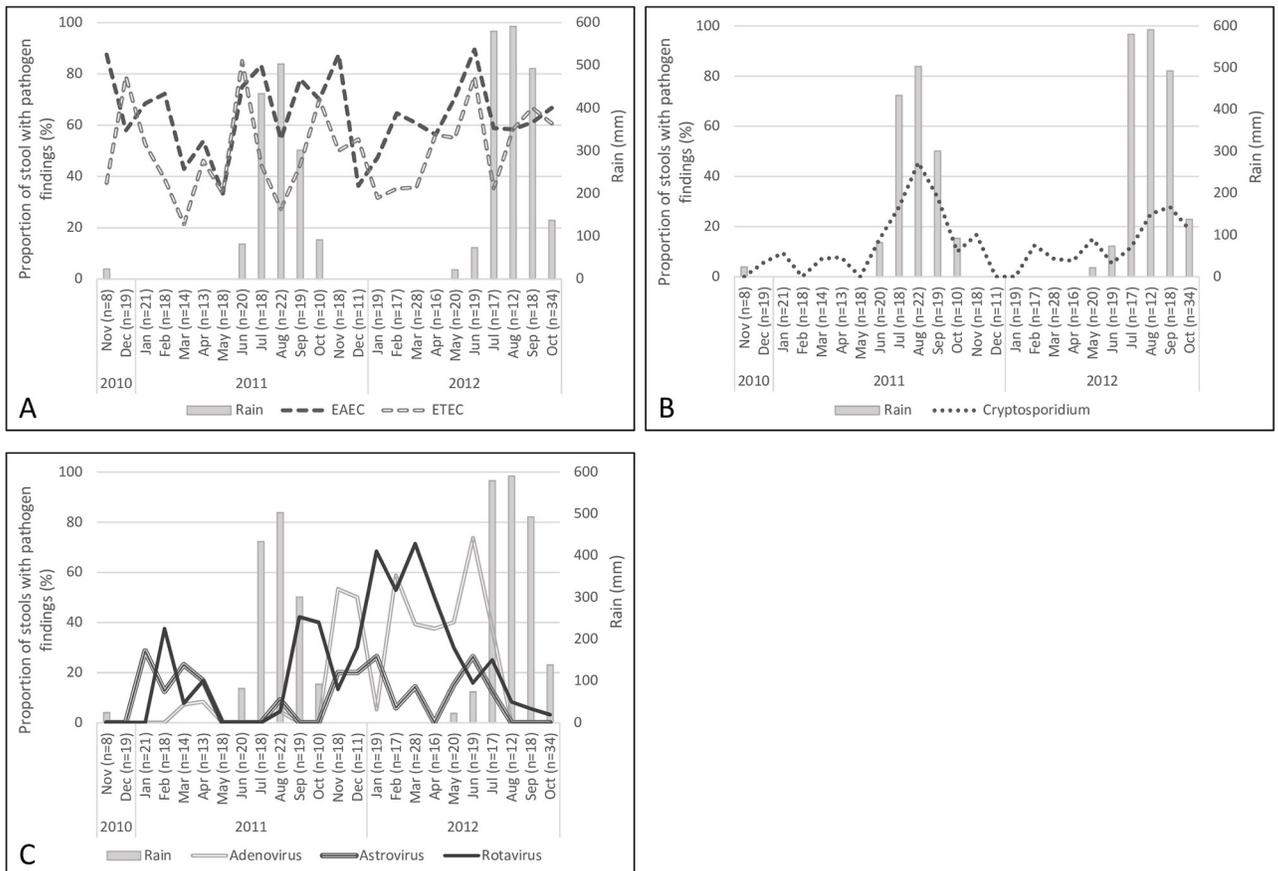


Fig 3. Seasonal variation of diarrhoeal pathogens with respect to rainfall [4]. For the six pathogens showing seasonal variation in incidence, data are shown as monthly proportions of samples positive for A) bacterial (EAEC, ETEC), B) parasitic (*Cryptosporidium*), and C) viral pathogens (adeno-, astro-, and rotavirus). Details of all pathogen findings are shown in S1 Fig. Numbers of children are indicated in parentheses for each month.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0011179.g003>

Table 2. Effect of seasonality on microbial findings by age group.

	Total n (%)	0–11 months			12–59 months			Rainy versus dry season OR (95% CI) p-value	Rainy versus dry season OR (95% CI) p-value
		Rainy season n (%)	Dry season n (%)		Rainy season n (%)	Dry season n (%)			
All	429 (100)	90 (46.9)	102 (52.1)			98 (41.4)	139 (58.6)		
Children with diarrhoea	228 (53.1)	42 (46.7)	57 (55.9)	0.7 (0.4–1.2)	0.202	58 (59.2)	71 (51.1)	1.4 (0.8–2.3)	0.217
Any pathogen	422 (98.4)	88 (97.8)	101 (99.0)	0.4 (0.0–4.9)	0.601	98 (100)	135 (97.1)	NA	0.144
Any bacteria ^a	409 (96.5)	87 (97.8)	97 (96.0)	1.8 (0.3–10.0)	0.686	97 (99.0)	128 (94.1)	6.1 (0.7–49.3)	0.083
<i>Campylobacter</i>	225 (53.1)	52 (58.4)	44 (43.6)	1.8 (1.0–3.2)	0.041	57 (58.2)	72 (52.9)	1.2 (0.7–2.1)	0.428
EAEC	272 (64.2)	65 (73.0)	74 (73.3)	1.0 (0.5–1.9)	0.971	65 (66.3)	68 (50.0)	2.0 (1.2–3.4)	0.013
EHEC	6 (1.4)	1 (1.1)	0 (0.0)	NA	0.468	2 (2.0)	3 (2.2)	0.9 (0.2–5.6)	1.000
EIEC/ <i>Shigella</i>	98 (23.1)	14 (15.7)	14 (13.9)	1.2 (0.5–2.6)	0.717	36 (36.7)	34 (25.0)	1.7 (1.0–3.1)	0.053
EPEC	266 (62.7)	61 (68.5)	62 (61.4)	1.4 (0.8–2.5)	0.303	62 (63.3)	81 (59.6)	1.2 (0.7–2.0)	0.566
ETEC	213 (50.2)	56 (62.9)	48 (47.5)	1.9 (1.0–3.4)	0.033	50 (51.0)	59 (43.4)	1.4 (0.8–2.3)	0.248
<i>Salmonella</i>	11 (2.6)	4 (4.5)	4 (4.0)	1.1 (0.3–4.7)	1.000	2 (2.0)	1 (0.7)	2.8 (0.3–4.7)	0.573
<i>V. cholerae</i>	2 (0.5)	0 (0.0)	1 (1.0)	NA	1.000	1 (1.0)	0 (0.0)	NA	0.419
<i>Yersinia</i>	3 (0.7)	1 (1.1)	1 (1.0)	1.1 (0.1–18.4)	1.000	0 (0.0)	1 (0.7)	NA	1.000
Any parasites ^b	217 (50.9)	46 (51.1)	29 (28.7)	2.6 (1.4–4.7)	0.002	65 (67.0)	77 (55.8)	1.6 (0.9–2.8)	0.084
<i>Cryptosporidium</i>	59 (13.8)	23 (25.6)	8 (7.9)	4.0 (1.7–9.5)	0.001	19 (19.6)	9 (6.5)	3.5 (1.5–8.1)	0.002
<i>D. fragilis</i>	43 (10.7)	2 (2.3)	7 (7.5)	0.3 (0.1–1.4)	0.170	15 (15.6)	19 (15.2)	1.0 (0.5–2.2)	0.931
<i>E. histolytica</i>	3 (0.7)	1 (1.1)	0 (0.0)	NA	0.471	2 (2.1)	0 (0.0)	NA	0.169
<i>Giardia</i>	159 (37.3)	24 (26.7)	21 (20.8)	1.4 (0.7–2.7)	0.340	47 (48.5)	67 (48.6)	1.0 (0.6–1.7)	0.988
Any viruses ^c	233 (58.7)	44 (49.4)	72 (80.0)	0.2 (0.1–0.5)	<0.001	40 (41.7)	77 (63.1)	0.4 (0.2–0.7)	0.002
Adenovirus 40, 42	73 (18.4)	9 (10.1)	28 (31.1)	0.3 (0.1–0.6)	0.001	12 (12.5)	24 (19.7)	0.6 (0.3–1.2)	0.157
Astrovirus	40 (10.1)	5 (5.6)	15 (16.7)	0.3 (0.1–0.9)	0.019	4 (4.2)	16 (13.1)	0.3 (0.1–0.9)	0.023
Norovirus GI/GII	92 (23.2)	26 (29.2)	26 (28.9)	1.0 (0.5–1.9)	0.962	18 (18.8)	22 (18.0)	1.0 (0.5–2.1)	0.892
Rotavirus A	93 (23.4)	10 (11.2)	36 (40.0)	0.2 (0.1–0.4)	<0.001	13 (13.5)	34 (27.9)	0.4 (0.2–0.8)	0.011
Sapovirus	29 (7.3)	4 (4.5)	10 (11.1)	0.4 (0.1–1.2)	0.099	5 (5.2)	10 (8.2)	0.6 (0.2–1.9)	0.387

Data is missing, n (%):

^a) 5 (1.2),

^b) 3 (0.7),

^c) 32 (7.5)

CI = confidence interval; NA = not applicable; OR = odds ratio; **bolding** indicates statistically significant at $p < 0.05$ (Pearson χ^2 test or Fisher's exact test)

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0011179.t002>

Discussion

The prevalence of individual pathogens differed by season and age group, and according to whether or not the children had diarrhoea. *Cryptosporidium* was most prevalent during the rainy season, whereas viral pathogens (adenovirus, astrovirus and rotavirus) were most frequently found during the dry season. Bacterial pathogens showed a tendency towards slightly higher rates in the rainy (98.4%) than the dry (94.9%) season, but overall, EAEC, EPEC, ETEC and *Campylobacter* were the most prevalent pathogens in both seasons.

Impact of temperature on occurrence of diarrhoea and diarrhoeal pathogens

Many research findings from high-income countries connect diarrhoeal pathogens with temperature rather than rainfall [1,14–17]. In their systematic literature review covering 59 studies

Table 3. Diarrhoeal pathogens in children with and without diarrhoea during the dry and rainy seasons.

	Total n (%)	Dry season					Rainy season				
		No diarrhoea n (%)	Diarrhoea n (%)	Diarrhoea versus no diarrhoea OR (95% CI)	p-value	AF (95% CI)	No diarrhoea n (%)	Diarrhoea n (%)	Diarrhoea versus no diarrhoea OR (95% CI)	p-value	AF (95% CI)
Total	429 (100)	113 (46.9)	128 (53.1)				88 (46.8)	100 (53.2)			
Any pathogen	422 (98.4)	109 (96.5)	127 (99.2)	4.7 (0.5–42.3)	0.189		87 (98.9)	99 (99.0)	1.1 (0.1–18.5)	1.000	
Any bacteria ^a	409 (96.5)	103 (93.6)	122 (96.1)	1.7 (0.5–5.4)	0.395	-0.2 (-0.5–0.6)	85 (97.7)	99 (99.0)	2.3 (0.2–26.1)	0.598	0.4 (-2.1–0.9)
<i>Campylobacter</i>	225 (53.1)	56 (50.9)	60 (47.2)	0.9 (0.5–1.4)	0.574	-0.0 (-0.2–0.1)	51 (58.6)	58 (58.0)	1.0 (0.5–1.4)	0.932	0.1 (-0.2–0.2)
EAEC	272 (64.2)	71 (64.5)	71 (55.9)	0.7 (0.4–1.2)	0.176	-0.1 (-0.3–0.0)	63 (72.4)	67 (67.0)	0.8 (0.4–1.5)	0.422	-0.1 (-0.3–0.1)
EHEC	6 (1.4)	3 (2.7)	0 (0.0)	NA	0.099	NA	2 (2.3)	1 (1.0)	0.4 (0.0–4.8)	0.598	NA
EIEC/Shigella	98 (23.1)	17 (15.5)	31 (24.4)	1.8 (0.9–3.4)	0.087	0.1 (-0.0–0.1)	19 (21.8)	31 (31.0)	1.6 (0.8–3.1)	0.158	0.1 (-0.0–0.1)
EPEC	266 (62.7)	66 (60.0)	77 (60.6)	1.0 (0.6–1.7)	0.921	0.0 (-0.1–0.2)	60 (69.0)	63 (63.0)	0.8 (0.4–1.4)	0.391	-0.1 (-0.3–0.1)
ETEC	213 (50.2)	40 (36.4)	67 (52.8)	2.0 (1.2–3.3)	0.011	0.1 (0.0–0.2)	49 (56.3)	57 (57.0)	1.0 (0.6–1.8)	0.926	-0.0 (-0.2–0.1)
<i>Salmonella</i>	11 (2.6)	3 (2.7)	2 (1.6)	0.6 (0.1–3.5)	0.665	NA	3 (3.4)	3 (3.0)	0.9 (0.2–4.4)	1.000	NA
<i>V. cholerae</i>	2 (0.5)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.8)	NA	1.000	NA	0 (0.0)	1 (1.0)	NA	1.000	NA
<i>Yersinia</i>	3 (0.7)	1 (0.9)	1 (0.8)	0.9 (0.1–14.0)	1.000	NA	0 (0.0)	1 (1.0)	NA	1.000	NA
Any parasites ^b	217 (50.9)	49 (43.8)	57 (44.9)	1.0 (0.6–1.7)	0.860	0.0 (-0.1–0.1)	48 (55.2)	63 (63.0)	1.4 (0.8–2.5)	0.277	0.1 (-0.1–0.2)
<i>Cryptosporidium</i>	59 (13.8)	3 (2.7)	14 (11.0)	4.5 (1.3–16.0)	0.012	0.0 (0.0–0.1)	14 (16.1)	28 (28.0)	2.0 (1.0–4.2)	0.052	0.1 (-0.0–0.1)
<i>D. fragilis</i>	43 (10.7)	13 (12.9)	13 (11.1)	0.8 (0.4–1.9)	0.689	-0.0 (-0.1–0.1)	7 (8.0)	10 (10.3)	1.3 (0.5–3.6)	0.597	0.0 (-0.0–0.1)
<i>E. histolytica</i>	3 (0.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	NA	NA	NA	3 (3.4)	0 (0.0)	NA	0.099	NA
<i>Giardia</i>	159 (37.3)	43 (38.4)	45 (35.4)	0.9 (0.5–1.5)	0.636	-0.0 (-0.1–0.1)	31 (35.6)	40 (40.0)	1.2 (0.7–2.2)	0.539	0.0 (-0.1–0.1)
Any viruses ^c	233 (58.7)	59 (60.2)	90 (78.9)	2.5 (1.4–4.5)	0.003	0.3 (0.1–0.4)	31 (35.6)	53 (54.1)	2.1 (1.2–3.8)	0.012	0.2 (0.0–0.3)
Adenovirus 40, 42	73 (18.4)	27 (27.6)	25 (21.9)	0.7 (0.4–1.4)	0.343	-0.0 (-0.1–0.0)	6 (6.9)	15 (15.3)	2.4 (0.9–6.6)	0.072	0.0 (-0.0–0.1)
Astrovirus	40 (10.1)	9 (9.2)	22 (19.3)	2.4 (1.0–5.4)	0.038	0.1 (0.0–0.1)	1 (1.1)	8 (8.2)	7.6 (0.9–62.4)	0.037	0.0 (0.0–0.1)
Norovirus GI/GII	92 (23.2)	15 (15.3)	33 (28.9)	2.3 (1.1–4.5)	0.018	0.1 (0.0–0.1)	15 (17.2)	29 (29.6)	2.0 (1.0–4.1)	0.049	0.1 (0.0–0.2)
Rotavirus A	93 (23.4)	30 (30.6)	40 (35.1)	1.2 (0.7–2.2)	0.490	0.0 (-0.1–0.1)	10 (11.5)	13 (13.3)	1.2 (0.5–2.8)	0.716	0.0 (-0.0–0.1)
Sapovirus	29 (7.3)	8 (8.2)	12 (10.5)	1.3 (0.5–3.4)	0.557	0.0 (-0.0–0.1)	2 (2.3)	7 (7.1)	3.3 (0.7–16.2)	0.176	0.0 (-0.0–0.0)

Data missing, n (%):

^{a)} 5 (1.2),

^{b)} 3 (0.7),

^{c)} 32 (7.5)

AF = attributable fraction; CI = confidence interval; NA = not applicable; OR = odds ratio; **bolding** indicates statistically significant at p<0.05 (Pearson χ^2 test or Fisher’s exact test)

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0011179.t003>

published 1974–2010, Philipsborn et al. report an association between high temperature and findings of diarrhoeagenic *E. coli* (DEC). They depict a growth of 8% in DEC incidence for each 1 °C increase in monthly temperature; however, nontropical industrialized countries were also included in the review [14]. The impact of temperature may be related to various factors, such as enhanced pathogen survival, increased pathogen load in (animal) reservoirs, and prolonged transmission seasons [14] or differences in expression of virulence genes [1]. Since the temperature in Guinea-Bissau does not vary much by season [4], no major temperature-related impact appeared likely.

Impact of rainfall on occurrence of diarrhoea

As there are substantial seasonal variations in rainfall in Guinea-Bissau, we also expected to see such variation in diarrhoea cases. Indeed, Colombatti et al. report severe faecal

contamination of drinking water from taps and wells during the rainy season in the country [18]. In the literature, however, the impact of rainfall on the occurrence of diarrhoea remains somewhat controversial [19–20]. In many African countries, such as Botswana [19] Mozambique [20] and Niger [21], rainfall has been associated with diarrhoea. A Ghanaian investigation found diarrhoea risk to grow 5.1% for every 10mm increase in rainfall [21]. Flooding and heavy precipitation may flush faecal and other waste into areas where humans easily become exposed [22]. The seasons may also affect water quality and access to water as well as various wildlife and agricultural activities [20,23–24]. Some studies suggest that in households with poor-quality water sources, the risk of diarrhoea grows with heavy rainfall, while dry conditions decrease it [20–22,25]. On the other hand, during the dry season, drought and smaller rainfall can increase the proportion of wastewater in surface water, leading to greater pathogen concentration in both drinking and irrigation water [26]. In dry conditions water sources are also more likely to be shared by human and animal populations [1]. Some studies [19,27–28] relate the higher rate of pathogen findings in the dry season to decreased access to handwashing [22]. Indeed, handwashing with soap can bring about a reduction of up to 27% of diarrhoeal cases [29].

Importantly, only about 15% of Guinea-Bissauan inhabitants have been estimated to have access to adequate sanitation, and only 2% to basic waste management services (waste separation, treatment and safe disposal) [30]. Although we did not see a change in the rates of diarrhoea per se, the prevalence of various pathogen findings changed by season, as discussed below.

Impact of season on occurrence of diarrhoeal pathogens

***Cryptosporidium* common during rainy season.** According with previous studies [2,14,21], the pathogen most strongly associated with the rainy season was *Cryptosporidium*, a major cause of waterborne gastrointestinal disease with potential to large outbreaks [31]. An earlier study carried out in Guinea-Bissau 1991–1997 also connects the peak in the prevalence of *Cryptosporidium* with wetter times of the year; very few cases having this pathogen have been reported for dry seasons [7]. Indeed, cryptosporidiosis incidence has been suggested to be related to contamination of water supplies through heavy rainfall [1–2,6,32]. This tallies with our number of detected cases increasing sharply in July, peaking in August when the rains are heaviest, and decreasing again with the sparse precipitation in October (Fig 3).

As for the other parasites in our study, we saw no signs of seasonality for *Giardia* and *Dientamoeba*. This difference between the various parasites seems logical, since *Giardia* and *Dientamoeba* are often transmitted directly via the faecal-oral route rather than water like *Cryptosporidium*. Their spread can be largely controlled by improving hygiene and sanitation conditions, according with their non-seasonal occurrence [33–34].

Bacterial pathogens prevalent all year. Bacterial pathogens proved very common throughout the year (rainy season 98.4% versus dry season 94.9%; $p = 0.056$) (Table 1). Findings of *Campylobacter* increased by the amount of rainfall. Moreover, ETEC and EAEC were associated with the rainy season for all children (Table 1). The extensive cohort study of ETEC infections conducted by Steinsland et al. in Guinea-Bissau 1996 and 1998 monitored children from birth to two years of age with weekly faecal sampling. Observing an increase in ETEC during the 1997 rainy season, they concluded that rainy season epidemics may be annual [35]. This accords with our ETEC data for infants: they had more ETEC findings during the rainy season, whereas no seasonal difference was seen in the older age group, a possible consequence of gradually developing intestinal immunity to this highly common pathogen. A similar seasonal trend was also seen for *Campylobacter* infections. In

industrialized countries, *Campylobacter* infections peak over warmer summer months, but many African studies show no strong seasonal trends [36–37]. However, an earlier investigation carried out in Guinea-Bissau 1987–88 [38] accords with our findings. The seasonal difference for EAEC was only seen among young children, but not infants, though (Table 2). The reason for this remains unknown.

Viral pathogens common during dry season. According with earlier research [2,14,21,39–40], decrease in the amount of rainfall and the dry season were strongly associated with findings of adenovirus, astrovirus, and rotavirus (Fig 2). In fact, their incidences dropped dramatically already at the beginning of the rainy season (Fig 3). These findings agree with a study exploring rotavirus diarrhoea in Guinea-Bissau between 1996 and 1998 [9]. The virus's high prevalence in the dry season has been suggested to be attributable to aridity of soil increasing aerial transport of dried faecal material in the form of droplet nuclei. In addition, dust may serve as a vehicle for virus particles [26,41].

Unlike the case of the other viruses in our study, norovirus findings were evenly distributed throughout the year. This difference may be ascribed to noroviruses being transmitted not only by the faecal-oral route but also aerosols from vomiting. Noroviruses' seasonality has barely been studied in LICs, but among Malawian children aged 18 months or younger, noroviruses have been reported to prevail in the rainy season [42]. In cooler regions, norovirus infections have been found mainly to be related to colder temperatures (“winter vomiting disease”) [43]. Indeed, the literature suggests low temperature (-5 – 20°C) and low relative humidity (10–60%) to be associated with the occurrence of norovirus epidemics worldwide [44].

Impact of participants' ages on seasonal differences. The associations between age, season and diarrhoea are complicated. For example, highly prevalent pathogens encountered early in life may no longer cause diarrhoea for older children due to pre-existing intestinal immunity elicited by previous exposures [5,36]. The frequency and load of pathogens to which children become exposed may vary by age and season, resulting in differences between pathogen findings for infants and young children. Indeed, when scrutinizing the seasonality of the pathogens in the two age groups, the association appeared stronger among infants than young children. Among infants, seasonal differences were observed for *Campylobacter*, ETEC, *Cryptosporidium*, adeno-, astro- and rotavirus, while among young children such differences were seen for EAEC, *Cryptosporidium*, astro-, and rotavirus. Our data encourage further research, particularly since we found no recent studies that would compare pathogens' seasonality and children's ages.

Diarrhoeal pathogens found in dry and rainy seasons among children with and without diarrhoea. Some of the previous studies from West Africa report DEC rates (1–15%) lower than ours (23–64%) [45–47]. Apart from differences in study sites and PCR cut-off values, the explanation may be merely methodological: we detected DEC directly from stools by PCR, while they used culture-based methods an approach known to be substantially less sensitive [48]. Our rates concur with those reported among local children in LICs [49–50] and traveller studies conducted in West Africa [51–52], all assessing the pathogens directly from stools by PCR.

Our prevalence analysis of various pathogens and diarrhoeal symptoms during the dry or rainy season scrutinizes a subject barely covered in scientific literature. Our data does not show many significant differences apart from greater prevalence of astrovirus, norovirus and *Cryptosporidium* among those with diarrhoea than those without in both seasons. It is noteworthy that these pathogens all have low infectious doses. As for bacterial pathogens, the only statistically significant finding was that of ETEC during the dry season; it proved more prevalent among those with diarrhoeal symptoms than those without any—despite ETEC's greater occurrence in the rainy season. This phenomenon may be ascribed to ETEC's high infectious

doses: as the inoculum may be diluted during the rainy season, many of the exposed individuals do not catch infectious doses. The finding may also be explained by the presence of ETEC in biofilms in water tanks used during the dry season for irrigation or washing fresh vegetables and fruits [53]. Biofilms may serve as reservoirs for this group of *E. coli* [54]. Bacterial recovery from dry-surface biofilm has been shown to amount to 100% [55]. The relatively low attributable fractions for practically all single pathogens reveal the polymicrobial character of childhood diarrhoea in West Africa, highlighting the preventive value of hygiene measures.

Limitations

The main limitation in our study was the restricted number of cases, which prevented some of the potential analyses used in other studies [21,26,40]: with higher numbers of patients and longer follow-up period, more flexible approaches have been used for characterizing the timing, amplitude and number of annual seasonal peaks in enteropathogen detection [40,56]. We now opted, instead, to use attributable fractions to express the proportions of the observed pathogens attributable to 11 mm increase in rainfall.

Furthermore, we did not analyse the LT (heat-labile) and ST (heat-stable) toxin expressions of the ETEC strains or various ETEC serotypes. Such analyses could have shed light on the seasonal variation found for ETEC, since diarrhoea is associated particularly strongly with ST-producing strains [36], and in the dry and rainy seasons different serotypes may predominate, some of them more diarrhoeagenic than others.

We did not have the opportunity to identify *Cryptosporidium* species at the genus level. It would have been particularly interesting to explore which species predominate during the rainy and dry seasons, as *C. hominis* has been reported to mostly account for waterborne outbreaks and *C. parvum* for foodborne outbreaks [57]. The seasonal patterns may have been affected by the fact that some pathogens, such as noroviruses, EAEC, *Salmonella* or *Campylobacter* may be detected in stools for some weeks after the resolution of clinical symptoms [10]. This should, however, mostly impact the cases found during the first weeks of the season.

Although the data does not provide information on actual incidences, the numbers of patients attending the health centre and agreeing to participate are given. It is possible that those with diarrhoea were more willing to participate, but this should not vary by season.

Conclusion

Diarrhoeal pathogens are not equally presented over the year, but show seasonal variation with respect to precipitation in Guinea-Bissau. Waterborne pathogens such as *Cryptosporidium* can be expected during the rainy season, whereas viral pathogens appear more common during the dry season. Knowledge of pathogens' seasonal variations could not only guide empiric treatment but also provide tools for devising interventions and preventive measures.

Supporting information

S1 Fig. The monthly proportion of diarrhoea and pathogens in respect to rainfall with a confidence interval; A) diarrhoea, B) any bacter, C) *Campylobacter*, D) EAEC, E) EIEC/*Shigella*, F) EPEC, G) ETEC, H) any parasite, I) *Cryptosporidium*, J) *D. fragilis*, K) *Giardia*, L) any virus, M) adenovirus 40/41, N) astrovirus, O) norovirus GI/GII, P) rotavirus A, Q) sapovirus. Data are not presented for EHEC (n = 6), *Salmonella* (n = 11), *V. cholerae* (n = 2), *Yersinia* (n = 3) and *E. histolytica* (n = 2).
(TIF)

S1 Data. All relevant data for the study.
(XLSX)

Author Contributions

Conceptualization: Johan Ursing, Lars Rombo, Poul-Erik Kofoed, Anu Kantele.

Data curation: Johan Ursing, Lars Rombo, Poul-Erik Kofoed, Anu Kantele.

Formal analysis: Sointu Mero, Tinja Lääveri, Johan Ursing.

Funding acquisition: Sointu Mero, Anu Kantele.

Investigation: Sointu Mero, Johan Ursing, Lars Rombo, Poul-Erik Kofoed, Anu Kantele.

Methodology: Sointu Mero.

Project administration: Johan Ursing, Lars Rombo, Poul-Erik Kofoed, Anu Kantele.

Resources: Poul-Erik Kofoed, Anu Kantele.

Software: Tinja Lääveri.

Supervision: Tinja Lääveri, Anu Kantele.

Validation: Sointu Mero.

Visualization: Sointu Mero, Tinja Lääveri.

Writing – original draft: Sointu Mero, Tinja Lääveri, Anu Kantele.

Writing – review & editing: Sointu Mero, Tinja Lääveri, Johan Ursing, Lars Rombo, Poul-Erik Kofoed, Anu Kantele.

References

1. Levy K, Woster AP, Goldstein RS, Carlton EJ. Untangling the impacts of climate change on waterborne diseases: a systematic review of relationships between diarrheal diseases and temperature, rainfall, flooding, and drought. *Environ Sci Technol*. 2016 May 17; 50(10):4905–22. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.5b06186> PMID: 27058059
2. Lal A, Hales S, French N, Baker MG. Seasonality in human zoonotic enteric diseases: a systematic review. *PLoS One*. 2012; 7(4):e31883. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0031883> PMID: 22485127
3. Lo Iacono G, Armstrong B, Fleming LE, Elson R, Kovats S, Vardoulakis S, et al. Challenges in developing methods for quantifying the effects of weather and climate on water-associated diseases: A systematic review. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis*. 2017 Jun; 11(6):e0005659. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0005659> PMID: 28604791
4. Bissau Climate Weather Averages [Internet]. WorldWeatherOnline.com. [cited 2022 Aug 11]. <https://www.worldweatheronline.com/bissau-weather/bissau/gw.aspx>
5. Kotloff KL, Blackwelder WC, Nasrin D, Nataro JP, Farag TH, van Eijk A, et al. The Global Enteric Multi-center Study (GEMS) of diarrheal disease in infants and young children in developing countries: epidemiologic and clinical methods of the case/control study. *Clin Infect Dis Off Publ Infect Dis Soc Am*. 2012 Dec; 55 Suppl 4(Suppl 4):S232–245. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/cis753> PMID: 23169936
6. Chao DL, Roose A, Roh M, Kotloff KL, Proctor JL. The seasonality of diarrheal pathogens: A retrospective study of seven sites over three years. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis*. 2019 Aug; 13(8):e0007211. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0007211> PMID: 31415558
7. Perch M, Sodemann M, Jakobsen MS, Valentiner-Branth P, Steinsland H, Fischer TK, et al. Seven years' experience with *Cryptosporidium parvum* in Guinea-Bissau, West Africa. *Ann Trop Paediatr*. 2001 Dec; 21(4):313–8.
8. Fischer TK, Valentiner-Branth P, Steinsland H, Perch M, Santos G, Aaby P, et al. Protective immunity after natural rotavirus infection: a community cohort study of newborn children in Guinea-Bissau, west Africa. *J Infect Dis*. 2002 Sep 1; 186(5):593–7. <https://doi.org/10.1086/342294> PMID: 12195345

9. Fischer TK, Aaby P, Mølbak K, Rodrigues A. Rotavirus disease in Guinea-Bissau, West Africa: a review of longitudinal community and hospital studies. *J Infect Dis.* 2010 Sep 1; 202 Suppl:S239–242. <https://doi.org/10.1086/653568> PMID: 20684710
10. Mero S, Timonen S, Lääveri T, Løfberg S, Kirveskari J, Ursing J, et al. Prevalence of diarrhoeal pathogens among children under five years of age with and without diarrhoea in Guinea-Bissau. *PLoS Negl Trop Dis.* 2021 Sep; 15(9):e0009709. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0009709> PMID: 34587158
11. WHO. Diarrhoeal disease. [Internet]. [accessed 2023 Feb 13]. <https://www.who.int/news-room/factsheets/detail/diarrhoeal-disease>
12. Antikainen J, Kantele A, Pakkanen SH, Lääveri T, Riutta J, Vaara M, et al. A quantitative polymerase chain reaction assay for rapid detection of 9 pathogens directly from stools of travelers with diarrhea. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol Off Clin Pract J Am Gastroenterol Assoc.* 2013; 11(10):1300–1307.e3. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cgh.2013.03.037> PMID: 23639597
13. Greenland S, Drescher K. Maximum likelihood estimation of the attributable fraction from logistic models. *Biometrics.* 1993 Sep; 49(3):865–72. PMID: 8241375
14. Philipsborn R, Ahmed SM, Brosi BJ, Levy K. Climatic drivers of diarrheagenic *Escherichia coli* Incidence: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Infect Dis.* 2016 Jul 1; 214(1):6–15.
15. Stoll BJ, Glass RI, Huq MI, Khan MU, Holt JE, Banu H. Surveillance of patients attending a diarrhoeal disease hospital in Bangladesh. *Br Med J Clin Res Ed.* 1982 Oct 23; 285(6349):1185–8. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.285.6349.1185> PMID: 6812801
16. Guerrant RL, Kirchoff LV, Shields DS, Nations MK, Leslie J, de Sousa MA, et al. Prospective study of diarrheal illnesses in northeastern Brazil: patterns of disease, nutritional impact, etiologies, and risk factors. *J Infect Dis.* 1983 Dec; 148(6):986–97. <https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/148.6.986> PMID: 6361176
17. Pai CH, Ahmed N, Lior H, Johnson WM, Sims HV, Woods DE. Epidemiology of sporadic diarrhea due to verocytotoxin-producing *Escherichia coli*: a two-year prospective study. *J Infect Dis.* 1988 May; 157(5):1054–7.
18. Colombatti R, Vieira CS, Bassani F, Cristofoli R, Coin A, Bertinato L, et al. Contamination of drinking water sources during the rainy season in an urban post-conflict community in Guinea Bissau: implications for sanitation priority. *Afr J Med Med Sci.* 2009 Jun; 38(2):155–61. PMID: 20175419
19. Alexander KA, Carzolio M, Goodin D, Vance E. Climate change is likely to worsen the public health threat of diarrheal disease in Botswana. *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* 2013 Mar 26; 10(4):1202–30. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph10041202> PMID: 23531489
20. Horn LM, Hajat A, Sheppard L, Quinn C, Colborn J, Zermoglio MF, et al. Association between precipitation and diarrheal disease in Mozambique. *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* 2018 Apr 10; 15(4). <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph15040709> PMID: 29642611
21. Platts-Mills J, Houpt ER, Liu J, Zhang J, Guindo O, Sayinzoga-Makombe N, et al. Etiology and incidence of moderate-to-severe diarrhea in young children in Niger. *J Pediatric Infect Dis Soc.* 2021 Dec 31; 10(12):1062–1070. <https://doi.org/10.1093/pids/piab080> PMID: 34468743
22. Bhavnani D, Goldstick JE, Cevallos W, Trueba G, Eisenberg JNS. Impact of rainfall on diarrheal disease risk associated with unimproved water and sanitation. *Am J Trop Med Hyg.* 2014 Apr; 90(4):705–11. <https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.13-0371> PMID: 24567318
23. Jagai JS, Castronovo DA, Monchak J, Naumova EN. Seasonality of cryptosporidiosis: A meta-analysis approach. *Environ Res.* 2009 May; 109(4):465–78. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2009.02.008> PMID: 19328462
24. Hunter PR, Thompson RCA. The zoonotic transmission of *Giardia* and *Cryptosporidium*. *Int J Parasitol.* 2005 Oct; 35(11–12):1181–90.
25. Anyorikeya M, Ameme DK, Nyarko KM, Sackey SO, Afari E. Trends of diarrhoeal diseases in children under five years in the War Memorial Hospital-Navrongo, Ghana: 2010–2013. *Pan Afr Med J.* 2016; 25 (Suppl 1):8. <https://doi.org/10.11604/pamj.suppl.2016.25.1.6173> PMID: 28210376
26. Colston JM, Zaitchik BF, Badr HS, Burnett E, Ali S, Rayamajhi A, et al. Associations between eight earth observation—derived climate variables and enteropathogen infection: an independent participant data meta-analysis of surveillance studies with broad spectrum nucleic acid diagnostics. *Geohealth.* 2022 Jan 1; 6(1). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2021GH000452> PMID: 35024531
27. Alemayehu B, Ayele BT, Valsangiacomo C, Ambelu A. Spatiotemporal and hotspot detection of U5-children diarrhea in resource-limited areas of Ethiopia. *Sci Rep.* 2020 Jul 3; 10(1):10997. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-67623-0> PMID: 32620796
28. Thiam S, Diène AN, Sy I, Winkler MS, Schindler C, Ndione JA, et al. Association between childhood diarrhoeal incidence and climatic factors in urban and rural settings in the health district of Mbour, Senegal. *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* 2017 Sep 12; 14(9). <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph14091049> PMID: 28895927

29. Darvesh N, Das JK, Vaivada T, Gaffey MF, Rasanathan K, Bhutta ZA. Water, sanitation and hygiene interventions for acute childhood diarrhea: a systematic review to provide estimates for the Lives Saved Tool. *BMC Public Health*. 2017 Nov 7; 17(Suppl 4):776. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-017-4746-1> PMID: 29143638
30. WHO. Global progress report on WASH in health care facilities: Fundamentals first. 2021.
31. Fayer R. *Cryptosporidium*: a water-borne zoonotic parasite. *Vet Parasitol*. 2004 Dec 9; 126(1–2):37–56.
32. Lake IR, Bentham G, Kovats RS, Nichols GL. Effects of weather and river flow on cryptosporidiosis. *J Water Health*. 2005 Dec; 3(4):469–74. <https://doi.org/10.2166/wh.2005.048> PMID: 16459850
33. Cacciò SM. Molecular epidemiology of *Dientamoeba fragilis*. *Acta Trop*. 2018 Aug; 184:73–7.
34. Dixon BR. *Giardia duodenalis* in humans and animals—Transmission and disease. *Res Vet Sci*. 2021 Mar; 135:283–9.
35. Steinsland H, Valentiner-Branth P, Perch M, Dias F, Fischer TK, Aaby P, et al. Enterotoxigenic *Escherichia coli* infections and diarrhea in a cohort of young children in Guinea-Bissau. *J Infect Dis*. 2002 Dec 15; 186(12):1740–7.
36. Platts-Mills JA, Babji S, Bodhidatta L, Gratz J, Haque R, Havt A, et al. Pathogen-specific burdens of community diarrhoea in developing countries: a multisite birth cohort study (MAL-ED). *Lancet Glob Health*. 2015; 3(9):564. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2214-109X\(15\)00151-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2214-109X(15)00151-5) PMID: 26202075
37. Mason J, Iturriza-Gomara M, O'Brien SJ, Ngwira BM, Dove W, Maiden MCJ, et al. *Campylobacter* infection in children in Malawi is common and is frequently associated with enteric virus co-infections. *PLoS One*. 2013; 8(3):e59663.
38. Mølbak K, Wested N, Højlyng N, Scheutz F, Gottschau A, Aaby P, et al. The etiology of early childhood diarrhea: a community study from Guinea-Bissau. *J Infect Dis*. 1994; 169(3):581–7. <https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/169.3.581> PMID: 8158030
39. Ouedraogo N, Ngangas SMT, Bonkoungou IJO, Tiendrebeogo AB, Traore KA, Sanou I, et al. Temporal distribution of gastroenteritis viruses in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso: seasonality of rotavirus. *BMC Public Health*. 2017 Mar 21; 17(1):274. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-017-4161-7> PMID: 28327111
40. Colston JM, Ahmed AM, Soofi SB, Svensen E, Haque R, Shrestha J, et al. Seasonality and within-subject clustering of rotavirus infections in an eight-site birth cohort study. *Epidemiol Infect*. 2018 Apr; 146(6):688–697. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0950268818000304> PMID: 29534766
41. Patel MM, Pitzer VE, Alonso WJ, Vera D, Lopman B, Tate J, et al. Global seasonality of rotavirus disease. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 2013 Apr; 32(4):e134–147. <https://doi.org/10.1097/INF.0b013e31827d3b68> PMID: 23190782
42. Fan YM, Oikarinen S, Lehto KM, Nurminen N, Juuti R, Mangani C, et al. High prevalence of selected viruses and parasites and their predictors in Malawian children. *Epidemiol Infect*. 2019 Jan; 147:e90. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0950268819000025> PMID: 30869004
43. Robilotti E, Deresinski S, Pinsky BA. Norovirus. *Clin Microbiol Rev*. 2015 Jan; 28(1):134–64. <https://doi.org/10.1128/CMR.00075-14> PMID: 25567225
44. Shamkhali Chenar S, Deng Z. Environmental indicators for human norovirus outbreaks. *Int J Environ Health Res*. 2017 Feb; 27(1):40–51. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09603123.2016.1257705> PMID: 27876423
45. Bonkoungou IJ, Haukka K, Österblad M, Hakanen AJ, Traoré AS, Barro N, Siitonen A. Bacterial and viral etiology of childhood diarrhea in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso. *BMC Pediatr*. 2013 Mar 19; 13:36. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2431-13-36> PMID: 23506294
46. Addy PA, Antepim G, Frimpong EH. Prevalence of pathogenic *Escherichia coli* and parasites in infants with diarrhoea in Kumasi, Ghana. *East Afr Med J*. 2004 Jul; 81(7):353–7.
47. Sambe-Ba B, Espié E, Faye ME, Timbiné LG, Sembene M, Gassama-Sow A. Community-acquired diarrhea among children and adults in urban settings in Senegal: clinical, epidemiological and microbiological aspects. *BMC Infect Dis*. 2013; 13: 580. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2334-13-580> PMID: 24321175
48. Lertsethtakarn P, Silapong S, Sakpaisal P, Serichantalergs O, Ruamsap N, Lurchachaiwong W, et al. Travelers' diarrhea in Thailand: a quantitative analysis using TaqMan array card. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2018 Jun 18; 67(1):120–127.
49. Liu J, Platts-Mills JA, Juma J, Kabir F, Nkeze J, Okoi C et al. Use of quantitative molecular diagnostic methods to identify causes of diarrhoea in children: a reanalysis of the GEMS case-control study. *Lancet*. 2016 Sep 24; 388(10051):1291–301. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(16\)31529-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(16)31529-X) PMID: 27673470
50. Platts-Mills JA, Liu J, Rogawski ET, Kabir F, Lertsethtakarn P, Sigua M et al. Use of quantitative molecular diagnostic methods to assess the aetiology, burden, and clinical characteristics of diarrhoea in

- children in low-resource settings: a reanalysis of the MAL-ED cohort study. *Lancet Glob Health* 2018; 6: e1309–18. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2214-109X\(18\)30349-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2214-109X(18)30349-8) PMID: 30287127
51. Lääveri T, Pakkanen SH, Antikainen J, Riutta J, Mero S, Kirveskari J et al. High number of diarrhoeal co-infections in travellers to Benin, West Africa. *BMC Infect Dis*. 2014 Feb 12; 14:81. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2334-14-81> PMID: 24521079
 52. Lääveri T, Vilkinen K, Pakkanen SH, Kirveskari J, Kantele A. A prospective study of travellers' diarrhoea: analysis of pathogen findings by destination in various (sub)tropical regions. *Clin Microbiol Infect*. 2018 Aug; 24(8):908.e9–908.e16. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmi.2017.10.034> PMID: 29133155
 53. Li J, Wang Z, Karim MR, Zhang L. Detection of human intestinal protozoan parasites in vegetables and fruits: a review. *Parasit Vectors*. 2020 Jul 29; 13(1):380. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13071-020-04255-3> PMID: 32727529
 54. Ahmed D, Islam MS, Begum YA, Janzon A, Qadri F, Sjöling A. Presence of enterotoxigenic *Escherichia coli* in biofilms formed in water containers in poor households coincides with epidemic seasons in Dhaka. *J Appl Microbiol*. 2013 Apr; 114(4):1223–9.
 55. Adator EH, Cheng M, Holley R, McAllister T, Narvaez-Bravo C. Ability of Shiga toxin-producing *Escherichia coli* to survive within dry-surface biofilms and transfer to fresh lettuce. *Int J Food Microbiol*. 2018 Mar 23; 269:52–9.
 56. Stolwijk AM, Straatman H, Zielhuis GA. Studying seasonality by using sine and cosine functions in regression analysis. *J Epidemiol Community Health*. 1999 Apr; 53(4):235–8. <https://doi.org/10.1136/jech.53.4.235> PMID: 10396550
 57. Zahedi A, Ryan U. *Cryptosporidium*—an update with an emphasis on foodborne and waterborne transmission. *Res Vet Sci*. 2020 Oct; 132:500–12.