



ISSN: 2617-6548

URL: [www.ijirss.com](http://www.ijirss.com)



## Drinking water source and gut microbiota composition in stunted children living in Jakarta slum areas, isn't related?

Ratnayani Ratnayani<sup>1,2</sup>, Diana Sunardi<sup>1\*</sup>, Fadilah Fadilah<sup>3,4</sup>, Rio Jati Kusuma<sup>5</sup>, Badriul Hegar<sup>6</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Nutrition, Faculty of Medicine, Universitas Indonesia- Dr. Cipto Mangunkusumo General Hospital, Jakarta 10430, Indonesia

<sup>2</sup>Nutrition Study Program, Faculty of Health Sciences and Technology, Binawan University, Jakarta 13630, Indonesia

<sup>3</sup>Department of Chemistry, Faculty of Medicine, Universitas Indonesia, Jakarta 10430, Indonesia

<sup>4</sup>Bioinformatics Core Facilities, Institute of Medical Education and Research Indonesia (IMERI), Faculty of Medicine, Universitas Indonesia, Jakarta 10430, Indonesia

<sup>5</sup>Department of Nutrition, Faculty of Medicine, Public Health and Nursing, Gajah Mada University, Yogyakarta 55281, Indonesia

<sup>6</sup>Department of Child Health, Faculty of Medicine, Universitas Indonesia- Dr. Cipto Mangunkusumo Hospital, Jakarta 10430, Indonesia

Corresponding author: Diana Sunardi (Email: [diana\\_sunardi@yahoo.com](mailto:diana_sunardi@yahoo.com))

### Abstract

The drinking water source is one factor related to microbiota composition and stunting. This study aims to analyze microbiota composition with the source of drinking water in stunted and non-stunted children under five in the slums of Jakarta. The number of subjects in this study was 42, consisting of 21 children in the stunted group and 21 in the non-stunted group. The sources of drinking water consumed in this study were water kiosks and branded drinking water. The microbiota composition was analyzed using Next Generation Sequencing (NGS) from subject feces samples. The results showed that the group consuming branded drinking water had a higher abundance of *Odoribacter splanchnicus* compared to the group that consumed water from kiosks. Overall, the group that consumed drinking water from water kiosks had a higher abundance of pathogenic microbiota compared to the group that consumed branded drinking water. In addition, in the stunted group, the abundance of pathogenic microbiota was higher than in the non-stunted group. This study showed that improving the quality of drinking water sources can be a key factor in improving the nutritional status of children.

**Keywords:** Branded drinking water, Drinking water, Gut microbiota, Stunted children, Water kiosks, Water quality.

**DOI:** 10.53894/ijirss.v8i2.5471

**Funding:** This research was funded by Directorate General of Higher Education through Doctoral Dissertation Research Scheme Number NKB-916/UN2.RST/HKP.05.00/2022 and PUTI Postgraduate scheme Number NKB-149/UN2.RST/HKP.05.00/2022, Faculty of Medicine, Universitas Indonesia.

**History:** Received: 20 January 2025 / Revised: 21 February 2025 / Accepted: 27 February 2025 / Published: 18 March 2025

**Copyright:** © 2025 by the authors. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

**Competing Interests:** The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

**Authors' Contributions:** All authors contributed equally to the conception and design of the study. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

**Transparency:** The authors confirm that the manuscript is an honest, accurate, and transparent account of the study; that no vital features of the study have been omitted; and that any discrepancies from the study as planned have been explained. This study followed all ethical practices during writing.

**Institutional Review Board Statement:** This study was conducted according to the guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki and approved by the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Medicine, Universitas Indonesia (protocol code: KET 22/UN2.F1/ETIK/PPM.00.02/2021, 22 March 2021).

**Publisher:** Innovative Research Publishing

## 1. Introduction

A fundamental human right is the availability of clean drinking water, although obtaining this resource can be difficult for many people around the world, particularly in urban slum regions [1]. In several areas of Jakarta, the capital of Indonesia, there are still slum areas that negatively impact health conditions, especially for children [2].

The high prevalence of diarrhea in slums is a result of poor sanitation, limited access to clean food and water, and other factors [3, 4]. Furthermore, slums have restricted access to health services [5]. According to previous research, there is a relationship between drinking water sources and the incidence of diarrhea [6]. In addition, children living in slums are susceptible to illnesses and infections, which pose a risk to their health and immune systems, potentially impacting their nutritional status [7, 8].

Stunting remains a major public health issue in Indonesia, particularly in major cities like Jakarta. World Health Organization [1] reports that thirty percent of Indonesia's under-five children suffer from stunting, making it one of the worst countries in Southeast Asia [9]. The same issues persist in Jakarta, especially in the slum regions where there is little access to clean water, poor sanitation, and limited healthcare [10, 11]. According to a UNICEF Indonesia study (2012), children living in informal settlements face an increased risk of malnourishment and stunting due to several interrelated causes [2].

According to recent studies, children's development and general health are greatly influenced by the gut microbiota, a complex community of microorganisms that live in the digestive system [12, 13]. Immune system performance, pathogen defense, and nutrient absorption are all significantly influenced by the gut flora [14]. However, environmental conditions, such as water quality, can have a major impact on its composition [15, 16]. Several studies on the relationship between drinking water sources and microbiota composition are still limited, especially in child subjects [17, 18].

The aim of the present study was to analyze the relationship between drinking water sources and microbiota composition in stunted and non-stunted children in slum areas of Jakarta. This study seeks to find possible connections between environmental factors and child health outcomes by evaluating the sources of drinking water that are accessible and examining the microbial communities that exist in the gut. The results may help guide public health initiatives and policies that target vulnerable groups facing malnourishment and stunting while also enhancing water quality.

## 2. Materials and Methods

### 2.1. Study Protocols and Participants

This study is part of a study on the composition of the microbiota in stunted and non-stunted and related contributing factors [19]. This cross-sectional study was conducted in Urban Village, a slum area in North Jakarta. The study comprised 42 children aged 2 to 5 years, who were split into two groups: non-stunted ( $-2SD \leq HAZ < 3SD$ ) and stunted ( $HAZ \leq -2SD$ ). None of the children had taken antibiotics in the month prior to the stool tests. The University of Indonesia's Faculty of Medicine's Ethical Committee approved the study protocol, which was assigned reference number KET 22/UN2.F1/ETIK/PPM.00.02/2021.

### 2.2. DNA Extraction, and 16S rRNA Sequencing, and Gut Microbiota Composition

This analysis is the same as in previous studies [19]. The mothers of subjects were given DNA/RNA Shield Fecal Collection Tubes to use in order to gather stool samples. The samples were stored at room temperature since the DNA/RNA Shield™ Fecal Collection Tube ensures sample stability under ambient conditions. The DNA/RNA Shield™ reagent effectively lyses samples and renders pathogens inactive. DNA was extracted using the Presto™ Stool DNA Extraction Kit Protocol from Geneaid. The A260/A280 ratio, which is used to gauge DNA purity, was 1.8 to 2.0. The Illumina MiSeq System was utilized for 16S rRNA metagenomic sequencing after the V3–V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene was amplified by PCR in accordance with NGS Meta-genomic Amplicon Sequencing protocols.

Gut Microbiota Composition R Studio and QIIME (<http://www.qiime.org>) were used for the computational studies. The default configurations in QIIME were used for quality filtering. Based on 97% identity, reads were categorized into operational taxonomic units (OTUs). Using the Silva database as a guide, the representative sequences were categorized, and taxonomy was added to the OTU table. OTUs and singletons with an abundance of less than 0.005% were eliminated. Using linear discriminant analysis (LDA) effect size (LEfSE), microbiological differences between the stunted and non-stunted groups were investigated. The study utilized the Kruskal–Wallis rank sum test to detect features that differed among the taxa allocated. Subsequently, LDA was utilized to measure the effect size of each feature, with significance being established at an alpha value of less than 0.05.

### 2.3. Statistical Analysis

The Statistical Program for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0 was used to analyze the data. Univariate data were displayed, including the composition of the gut microbiota and the characteristics of the drinking water source. Using the Independent T-test, the relationship between the makeup of the gut microbiota and the source of drinking water was examined.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Source of Drinking Water

Most participants in both the stunted and non-stunted groups used refill water from the water kiosk, depending on the source of drinking water. In contrast to the stunted group (14.3%), the non-stunted group used more branded drinking water (38.1%). Table 1 shows the subjects' distribution according to their drinking water source.

**Table 1.**

Source of drinking water in a stunted and non-stunted group.

Source of Drinking Water	Stunted (n=21)	Non-Stunted (n=21)	p-Value <sup>1</sup>
Water Kiosks	18(85.7)	13(61.9)	0.083
Branded Drinking Water	3(14.3)	8(38.1)	

<sup>1</sup>Analyzed by Chi-Square Test**3.2. Composition of Gut Microbiota in Stunted and Non-Stunted Group**

The microbiota composition of the non-stunted and stunted groups is displayed in Table 2. Several bacteria have been reported in previous studies [19]. More pathogenic bacteria, including *Escherichia coli*, *Enterococcus*, *Mitsuokella*, and *Providencia alcalifaciens*, were generally present in the stunted group. On the other hand, beneficial bacteria including *Bifidobacterium*, *Lactobacillus*, *Blautia*, *Odoribacter splanchnicus*, and *Akkermansia muciniphila* were more prevalent in the non-stunted group.

**Table 2.**

Composition of Gut Microbiota in Stunted and Non-Stunted Group.

Microbiota	Abundance (OTU)		p-Value <sup>1</sup>
	Stunted	Non-Stunted	
<i>Bifidobacterium</i>	59.352	98.071	0.148
<i>Lactobacillus</i>	1973	7126	0.678
<i>Enterococcus</i>	181	76	0.052
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	19.225	17.324	0.554
<i>Blautia</i> [19]	11.550	20.755	0.016
<i>Lachnospiraceae</i> [19]	2601	6134	0.048
<i>Monoglobus</i> [19]	183	484	0.030
<i>Bilophila</i> [19]	10.790	12.417	0.031
<i>Mitsuokella</i> [19]	24.469	2847	0.037
<i>Alloprevotella</i> [19]	23.952	7888	0.049
<i>Akkermansia muciniphilla</i> [19]	405	1116	0.012
<i>Odoribacter splanchnicus</i> [19]	32.747	42.993	0.040
<i>Bacteroides clarus</i> [19]	7772	8900	0.045
<i>Providencia alcalifaciens</i> [19]	861	353	0.023

<sup>1</sup>Analyzed by the Independent t-Test.**3.3. Gut Microbiota and Source of Drinking Water**

The composition of the microbiota was examined in this study in relation to the use of various drinking water sources (Table 3). Beneficial bacteria such as *Bifidobacterium*, *Lactobacillus*, *Blautia*, *Lachnospiraceae*, *Monoglobus*, *Alloprevotella*, *Akkermansia muciniphila*, *Odoribacter splanchnicus*, and *Bacteroides clarus* were found to be more abundant in the participants who drank branded drinking water, according to the analysis. *Odoribacter splanchnicus* was found to differ significantly in the statistical tests, with a p-value of 0.021.

**Table 3.**

Gut Microbiota and Source of Drinking Water.

Microbiota	Source of Drinking Water		p-Value
	Water Kiosks	Branded Drinking Water	
<i>Bifidobacterium</i>	3242	5217	0.555
<i>Lactobacillus</i>	130	462	0.455
<i>Enterococcus</i>	7	4	0.803
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	926	716	0.261
<i>Blautia</i>	4394	4911	0.490
<i>Lachnospiraceae</i>	56	75	0.473
<i>Monoglobus</i>	136	145	0.509
<i>Bilophila</i>	263	256	0.806
<i>Mitsuokella</i>	248	106	0.193
<i>Alloprevotella</i>	1730	535	0.152
<i>Akkermansia muciniphilla</i>	1079	2608	0.405
<i>Odoribacter splanchnicus</i>	412	599	0.021
<i>Bacteroides clarus</i>	115	53	0.234
<i>Providencia alcalifaciens</i>	9	5	0.220

<sup>1</sup>Analyzed by the Independent t-Test.

#### 4. Discussion

This study focuses on the relationship between drinking water sources and microbiota composition. In this study, drinking water sources were divided into water kiosks and branded drinking water. We all understand that branded drinking water is standardized according to government food and beverage regulations. While drinking water from water kiosks is a non-regulated refilled bottle/gallon, we do not know where the water comes from and what the health quality of the bottle/gallon is. The results showed that there were differences in microbiota abundance between the water kiosk and branded drinking water groups. The bacteria that was significantly different in the two groups was *Odoribacter splanchnicus*, where the abundance was higher in the group consuming branded drinking water. This study is similar to a study on drinking water sources and microbiota composition conducted in Nicaraguan children, which showed that children from households with high total coliforms in drinking water had many pathogenic bacteria such as *Bdellovibrionales*, *Treponema* genus, and *Vibrio* [20].

The source of drinking water is one of the many variables that can lead to stunting. Wells, water kiosks, and the Jakarta Water Management Domestic Pipe (PAM) were the main sources of drinking water for the residents of the slum area [21]. In the present study, the sample water that the subjects used was from branded drinking water and water kiosks. The source of drinking water in the stunted group came more from water kiosks compared to the non-stunted group, who tended to consume more drinking water from branded sources.

Sources of drinking water are often associated with cases of malnutrition in children under five [22, 23]. One of the factors that can be linked to the occurrence of stunting in Jakarta is the poor quality of drinking water. Due to a lack of access to clean, safe drinking water, many locals rely on contaminated water sources, such as untreated groundwater and contaminated rivers [2]. Recurrent infections and diarrheal illnesses caused by exposure to this contaminated water are major contributors to malnutrition and impaired nutritional absorption, which are significant causes of stunting [15]. Since poor water quality has a direct negative impact on children's health and development, studies have demonstrated that improving WASH conditions is essential for lowering stunting rates [24]. In line with this, a recent study found that, compared to non-stunted groups, the number of subjects who consumed branded drinking water was higher in the stunted group.

Children who are exposed to hazardous microorganisms and chemicals through contaminated water may experience stunted growth, malnutrition, and an increased vulnerability to waterborne infections, among other poor health outcomes. On the other hand, better sanitation and access to water can have a major positive influence on the growth, comfort, and general well-being of children [25].

The results of this study showed that whereas the non-stunted group had a larger abundance of beneficial bacteria, the stunted group had a higher abundance of pathogenic bacteria. As in previous studies, the group of stunted children had many microbiota, including *Enterococcus*, *Escherichia coli*, *Alloprevotella*, and *Mitsuokella*. In contrast, the group of non-stunted children was dominated by good bacteria such as *Bifidobacteria*, *Lactobacillus*, *Odoribacter splanchnicus*, and *Akkermansia muciniphila* [19]. This is in line with several previous studies showing that in the group of malnourished children, more pathogenic bacteria were found compared to the group of healthy children [26, 27].

There are many factors that influence the composition of microbiota, one of which is related to hygiene, sanitation, and drinking water sources [3, 15, 28, 29]. Since newborns are particularly susceptible to the negative effects of polluted water, it is especially important to ensure safe drinking water throughout the vital period from weaning to the formation of a full immune system [30]. Dependence on shallow groundwater, which is frequently contaminated, is widespread in low-income urban settings, putting local residents at risk for health problems [31].

Having access to clean drinking water can have a significant impact on society as well as on people's individual health. Enhanced water accessibility is linked to better comfort, safety, dignity, and convenience for households [25].

The composition of the gut microbiota is greatly influenced by the source and quality of drinking water, and this has a substantial effect on general health and development, particularly in children. The equilibrium of the gut microbiota is disrupted when contaminated water sources, which are frequently present in urban slum areas, introduce a range of diseases and harmful bacteria into the digestive tract [15]. This imbalance can result in diseases like environmental enteropathy, which weakens the immune system and impairs the absorption of nutrients, thereby causing malnourishment and stunting [12].

In this study, it was found that the group consuming drinking water from water kiosks was dominated by pathogenic bacteria such as *Enterococcus* [32], *Escherichia coli* [33], *Mitsuokella* Harper, et al. [34], and *Providencia* [35, 36]. In contrast, the group consuming drinking water from branded sources was dominated by beneficial bacteria such as *Bifidobacterium* [37], *Lactobacillus* [38], *Akkermansia muciniphila* Si, et al. [39], and *Odoribacter splanchnicus* [40]. The results of the study also showed that for *Odoribacter splanchnicus*, there was a significant difference between the water kiosk group and the branded drinking water group.

*Odoribacter splanchnicus* is an anaerobic bacterium of the *Bacteroidetes* phylum. It is frequently identified in the gut microbiota of humans [40]. Recent research has indicated a connection between several health outcomes, including children's growth and development, and the presence and quantity of gut bacteria, such as *Odoribacter splanchnicus*. Studies have shown that malnutrition and stunting may be linked to an imbalance in the gut microbiota, which is frequently characterized by a decrease in beneficial bacteria such as *Odoribacter splanchnicus* [41]. The fermentation of dietary fibers into short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs), which are essential for gut health and nutrient absorption, is the function of this bacterium. A decreased quantity of *Odoribacter splanchnicus* has been linked to several illnesses, including inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), cystic fibrosis, and non-alcoholic fatty liver disease [40]. Stunting can also result from a lack of *Odoribacter splanchnicus* and other SCFA-producing bacteria, which can likewise cause nutrient malabsorption and compromised gut barrier function [42].

Based on the findings of this study, the quality of drinking water sources plays an important role in the composition of gut microbiota in stunted children. The group of children who consumed drinking water from water kiosks had a higher

number of pathogenic microbiota compared to the group who consumed branded drinking water, as seen in the differences in the presence of *Escherichia coli* and *Providencia alcalifaciens* bacteria. The presence of these pathogenic microbiota can affect the digestive system and nutrient absorption, which contributes to malnutrition and stunting problems. The clinical implications of these findings suggest that improving the quality of drinking water sources can be a strategic step in enhancing the nutritional status of children, especially in areas with limited access to clean water. Efforts to improve sanitation and better water access are urgently needed to support optimal growth and development in children, as well as to reduce the prevalence of stunting in vulnerable communities.

The strength of this study lies in its focus on the stunted group in one of the slum areas in Jakarta. Research on the relationship between drinking water sources and microbiota composition is still limited. However, this study has a weakness, namely that no analysis was carried out on the content of the drinking water sources used by the research subjects.

## 5. Conclusions

In the present study, the stunted group had a higher abundance of harmful bacteria. One factor related to microbiota composition in this study is the source of drinking water. The group consuming branded drinking water had a higher abundance of the bacterium *Odoribacter splanchnicus* compared to the group consuming water from a water kiosk. Thus, maintaining a balanced gut microbiota while addressing water quality issues is therefore a critical component of public health strategies aimed at improving nutrition and growth, particularly in vulnerable populations such as children in urban slums.

## References

- [1] World Health Organization, "Human rights," Retrieved: <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/human-rights-and-health>, 2023.
- [2] S. Kusumaningrum *et al.*, "The situation of children and young people in Indonesian cities. Jakarta," Retrieved: <https://www.unicef.org/indonesia/media/12166/file/The20Situation%20Analysis%20of%20Children%20and%20Young%20People%20in%20Indonesian%20Cities.pdf>, 2020.
- [3] M. W. Merid *et al.*, "Impact of access to improved water and sanitation on diarrhea reduction among rural under-five children in low and middle-income countries: a propensity score matched analysis," *Tropical Medicine and Health*, vol. 51, no. 1, p. 36, 2023. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s41182-023-00525-9>
- [4] R. Mallick, S. Mandal, and P. Chouhan, "Impact of sanitation and clean drinking water on the prevalence of diarrhea among the under-five children in India," *Children and Youth Services Review*, vol. 118, p. 105478, 2020. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chilyouth.2020.105478>
- [5] UN-HABITAT, "The value of sustainable urbanization. Nairobi," Retrieved: <https://unhabitat.org/world-cities-report-2020-the-value-of-sustainable-urbanization>, 2020.
- [6] Y. Otsuka, L. Agestika, N. Sintawardani, and T. Yamauchi, "Risk factors for undernutrition and diarrhea prevalence in an urban slum in Indonesia: Focus on water, sanitation, and hygiene," *The American journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, vol. 100, no. 3, p. 727, 2019. <https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.18-0063>
- [7] S. Murarkar *et al.*, "Prevalence and determinants of undernutrition among under-five children residing in urban slums and rural area, Maharashtra, India: A community-based cross-sectional study," *BMC Public Health*, vol. 20, pp. 1-9, 2020. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-020-09642-0>
- [8] J. Singh, T. Singh, M. Lal, S. Mahajan, and P. Padda, "Morbidity profile of under-5 slum dwellers of Amritsar city: A descriptive cross-sectional study," *Journal of Family Medicine and Primary Care*, vol. 10, no. 11, pp. 4131-4136, 2021. [https://doi.org/10.4103/jfmpc.jfmpc\\_110\\_21](https://doi.org/10.4103/jfmpc.jfmpc_110_21)
- [9] International Food Policy Research Institute. Global Nutrition Report, "International Food Policy Research Institute. Global Nutrition Report. <https://doi.org/10.2499/9780896295841>," 2016.
- [10] R. Abdulhadi, A. Bailey, and F. Van Noorloos, "Access inequalities to WASH and housing in slums in low-and middle-income countries (LMICs): A scoping review," *Global Public Health*, vol. 19, no. 1, p. 2369099, 2024. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17441692.2024.2369099>
- [11] S. Kanungo, P. Chatterjee, J. Saha, T. Pan, N. D. Chakrabarty, and S. Dutta, "Water, sanitation, and hygiene practices in urban slums of Eastern India," *The Journal of Infectious Diseases*, vol. 224, no. Supplement\_5, pp. S573-S583, 2021. <https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/jiab354>
- [12] A. L. Kau, P. P. Ahern, N. W. Griffin, A. L. Goodman, and J. I. Gordon, "Human nutrition, the gut microbiome and the immune system," *Nature*, vol. 474, no. 7351, pp. 327-336, 2011. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature10213>
- [13] M. Derrien, A.-S. Alvarez, and W. M. de Vos, "The gut microbiota in the first decade of life," *Trends in Microbiology*, vol. 27, no. 12, pp. 997-1010, 2019. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tim.2019.08.001>
- [14] J. Y. Yoo, M. Groer, S. V. O. Dutra, A. Sarkar, and D. I. McSkimming, "Gut microbiota and immune system interactions," *Microorganisms*, vol. 8, no. 10, p. 1587, 2020. <https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms8101587>
- [15] F. M. Ngure, B. M. Reid, J. H. Humphrey, M. N. Mbuya, G. Peltó, and R. J. Stoltzfus, "Water, sanitation, and hygiene (WASH), environmental enteropathy, nutrition, and early child development: making the links," *Annals of the new York Academy of Sciences*, vol. 1308, no. 1, pp. 118-128, 2014. <https://doi.org/10.1111/nyas.12330>
- [16] E. Kortekangas *et al.*, "Environmental exposures and child and maternal gut microbiota in rural Malawi," *Paediatric and Perinatal Epidemiology*, vol. 34, no. 2, pp. 161-170, 2020. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ppe.12623>
- [17] T. Vanhaecke, O. Bretin, M. Poirel, and J. Tap, "Drinking water source and intake are associated with distinct gut microbiota signatures in US and UK populations," *The Journal of Nutrition*, vol. 152, no. 1, pp. 171-182, 2022. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jn/nxab312>
- [18] G. A. Lugli *et al.*, "Tap water as a natural vehicle for microorganisms shaping the human gut microbiome," *Environmental Microbiology*, vol. 24, no. 9, pp. 3912-3923, 2022. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1462-2920.15988>
- [19] Ratnayani *et al.*, "Association of gut microbiota composition with stunting incidence in children under five in Jakarta Slums," *Nutrients*, vol. 16, no. 20, p. 3444, 2024. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu16203444>

- [20] B. A. Piperata *et al.*, "Characterization of the gut microbiota of Nicaraguan children in a water insecure context," *American journal of human biology*, vol. 32, no. 1, p. e23371, 2020. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ajhb.23371>
- [21] N. M. Iskandar, *Opportunities of low impact development for water infrastructure in Jakarta*. Indonesia: The University of Texas, 2021.
- [22] R. Saheed *et al.*, "Impact of drinking water source and sanitation facility on malnutrition prevalence in children under three: A gender-disaggregated analysis using PDHS 2017–18," *Children*, vol. 9, no. 11, p. 1674, 2022. <https://doi.org/10.3390/children9111674>
- [23] V. A. Nurhidayati and H. Riyadi, "Quality of water sources, sanitation, and hygiene in households with stunted children in rural and Urban Areas in West Java," *Amerta Nutrition*, vol. 6, pp. 8-13, 2022. <https://doi.org/10.20473/amnt.v6i1SP.2022.1>
- [24] Z. A. Bhutta *et al.*, "Evidence-based interventions for improvement of maternal and child nutrition: What can be done and at what cost?," *The Lancet*, vol. 382, no. 9890, pp. 452-477, 2013. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(13\)60996-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(13)60996-4)
- [25] G. Hutton and C. Chase, "The knowledge base for achieving the sustainable development goal targets on water supply, sanitation and hygiene," *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, vol. 13, no. 6, p. 536, 2016. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph13060536>
- [26] D. M. Dinh *et al.*, "Longitudinal analysis of the intestinal microbiota in persistently stunted young children in South India," *PloS One*, vol. 11, no. 5, p. e0155405, 2016. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0155405>
- [27] I. S. Surono, D. Widiyanti, P. D. Kusumo, and K. Venema, "Gut microbiota profile of Indonesian stunted children and children with normal nutritional status," *PLoS One*, vol. 16, no. 1, p. e0245399, 2021. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0245399>
- [28] C. S. Kwami, S. Godfrey, H. Gavilan, M. Lakhanpaul, and P. Parikh, "Water, sanitation, and hygiene: Linkages with stunting in rural Ethiopia," *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, vol. 16, no. 20, p. 3793, 2019. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16203793>
- [29] H. Torlesse, A. A. Cronin, S. K. Sebayang, and R. Nandy, "Determinants of stunting in Indonesian children: evidence from a cross-sectional survey indicate a prominent role for the water, sanitation and hygiene sector in stunting reduction," *BMC Public Health*, vol. 16, pp. 1-11, 2016. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-016-3339-8>
- [30] A. Ramesh, K. Blanchet, J. H. Ensink, and B. Roberts, "Evidence on the effectiveness of water, sanitation, and hygiene (WASH) interventions on health outcomes in humanitarian crises: A systematic review," *PloS One*, vol. 10, no. 9, p. e0124688, 2015. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0124688>
- [31] A. Maliki *et al.*, "Seasonal bacterial contamination of groundwater in the zagora area, morocco," *Ecological Engineering & Environmental Technology*, vol. 24, pp. 8-230, 2023. <https://doi.org/10.12912/27197050/168336>
- [32] S. Ramos, V. Silva, M. d. L. E. Dapkevicius, G. Igrejas, and P. Poeta, "Enterococci, from harmless bacteria to a pathogen," *Microorganisms*, vol. 8, no. 8, p. 1118, 2020. <https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms8081118>
- [33] J. B. Kaper, J. P. Nataro, and H. L. Mobley, "Pathogenic escherichia coli," *Nature Reviews Microbiology*, vol. 2, no. 2, pp. 123-140, 2004. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrmicro818>
- [34] K. M. Harper, M. Mutasa, A. J. Prendergast, J. Humphrey, and A. R. Manges, "Environmental enteric dysfunction pathways and child stunting: A systematic review," *PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases*, vol. 12, no. 1, p. e0006205, 2018. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0006205>
- [35] M. M. Shah *et al.*, "First report of a foodborne *Providencia alcalifaciens* outbreak in Kenya," *The American Journal of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, vol. 93, no. 3, p. 497, 2015. <https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.15-0126>
- [36] M. Yoh *et al.*, "Importance of *Providencia* species as a major cause of travellers' diarrhoea," *Journal of Medical Microbiology*, vol. 54, no. 11, pp. 1077-1082, 2005. <https://doi.org/10.1099/jmm.0.45846-0>
- [37] G. Alessandri, D. van Sinderen, and M. Ventura, "The genus *Bifidobacterium*: From genomics to functionality of an important component of the mammalian gut microbiota," *Computational and Structural Biotechnology Journal*, vol. 19, pp. 1472-1487, 2021. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.csbj.2021.03.006>
- [38] E. Triana and N. Nurhidayat, "Selection and identification of *Lactobacillus* as a candidate for cholesterol-lowering probiotics based on 16S RNA sequence analysis," *Biota: Jurnal Ilmiah Ilmu-Ilmu Hayati*, pp. 55-60, 2007.
- [39] J. Si, H. Kang, H. J. You, and G. Ko, "Revisiting the role of *Akkermansia muciniphila* as a therapeutic bacterium," *Gut Microbes*, vol. 14, no. 1, p. 2078619, 2022. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19490976.2022.2078619>
- [40] K. Hiippala *et al.*, "Novel *Odoribacter splanchnicus* strain and its outer membrane vesicles exert immunoregulatory effects in vitro," *Frontiers in Microbiology*, vol. 11, p. 575455, 2020. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2020.575455>
- [41] S. Subramanian *et al.*, "Persistent gut microbiota immaturity in malnourished Bangladeshi children," *Nature*, vol. 510, no. 7505, pp. 417-421, 2014. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature13421>
- [42] L. V. Blanton *et al.*, "MICROBIOME gut bacteria that prevent growth impairments transmitted by microbiota from malnourished children," *Science*, vol. 351, no. 6275, pp. 830-U57, 2016. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aad3311>