

Evaluation of human risks of surface water and groundwater contaminated with Cd and Pb south of El-Minya Governorate, Egypt.

Salman Salman¹, Ahmed A. Asmoay¹, Amr El-Gohary¹, Hassan Sabet²

¹ Geological Sciences Dep. National Research Center, Dokki, Giza, 12622, Egypt.

² Geology Dep., Faculty of Science, Al-Azhar University, Cairo, Egypt.

Correspondence to: Ahmed A. Asmoay (asmoay@gmail.com)

Abstract:

Water pollution with Cd and Pb has worldwide concern because of their health impact. Evaluation of their concentrations and potential human health risks of surface and groundwater south El-Minya Governorate, Egypt is the main aim of the study. Fifty-five samples were collected; 30 samples surface water and 25 samples groundwater. The samples were analyzed using Atomic Absorption Spectrometry (AAS) to determine Cd and Pb contents. The heavy metals levels in both of surface and groundwater exceeded the maximum allowable level for drinking water which set by WHO. The hazard quotient (HQ) showed that the surface water and the groundwater may pose a health risk to residents, especially the children, primarily due to the high Cd and Pb content. In addition, there might be some concern for adverse Carcinogenic health effects. The pollution returns to human activities. The water can be recommended for irrigation not for drinking.

1. Introduction

Water pollution resources pollution was becoming a worldwide problem. To protect the environment and public health, it is important to have precise knowledge on amount and type of water pollutants especially heavy metals. Because the heavy metals have long biological half-life, they are threat the human health in case of excessive content (Albji et al.,

1 2013). Cadmium and lead are of the most chemical pollutants that threaten the water quality
2 for different uses. Because of their harmful effects, persistence, identification and monitoring
3 of their concentrations in water are of critical importance for protecting ecological and human
4 health (Osei et. al., 2010; Nazar, et. al., 2012).

5 Cadmium has a major environmental concern and ranked as the sixth significant
6 human health hazard toxic substances (ATSDR, 1997). It is released into the aqueous system
7 from metal plating, smelting, mining, cadmium-nickel batteries, phosphate fertilizers, paint
8 industries, pigments and alloy industries as well as from sewage (Kadirvalu and
9 Namasivayam, 2003). The nervous system appears to be the most sensitive target of Cd
10 toxicity. Cadmium exposure can produce a wide variety of acute and chronic effects in
11 humans such as renal failure, lung insufficiency, bone lesions and hypertension (Gupta and
12 Bhattacharyya, 2007; Sun and Li, 2011).

13 Lead is used in many industries including lead smelting and processing, batteries
14 manufacture, pigments, solder, plastics, cable sheathing, ammunition and ceramics. It was the
15 most common environmental contaminant (Chiang et. al, 2012; Fischbein, 1998). Water and
16 soil contaminated with lead pose serious human health risks with global dimensions (Tong et.
17 al., 2000; Brooks et. al., 2010). Lead does not undergo degradation or decomposition. Thus,
18 its long persistence in the environment exacerbates its threat to human health. Lead absorbed
19 by human body disturbs many body processes and is harmful to many organs and tissues such
20 as heart, bones and nervous systems (Needleman, 2004; Bruce et. al., 2012). Fumes from
21 lead-based paints, automobile exhaust, polluted air of industrial plants and cigarette smoke
22 may all contain lead, therefore, products containing lead are now prohibited (Moreira and
23 Moreira, 2004). Due to urbanization, lead and other metals are regularly discharge into fields,
24 water and soils through sewage sludge (Abreu et al., 1998).

1 Depending on their concentration, heavy metals can result in a wide range of toxic
2 effects on humans, plants, animals, and microbes (Caliza et al., 2012; Qu et al., 2012).
3 Quantify both of carcinogenic risks for Cd and non-carcinogenic risk for Cd and Pb to
4 children and adults is important. Human risk assessment methodologies are well developed
5 and documented in lots of investigations by taking into consideration exposure scenarios of
6 metal intake through contaminated water (Muhammad et al., 2011; Shah et al., 2012; Dou and
7 Li, 2012). The hazard quotients (HQ) of the USEPA (1989) are extensively used to
8 characterize the non-carcinogenic health effects of toxic metals by comparison of their
9 exposure effects to a reference dose (RfD) (Qu et al., 2012).

10 The objective of the present study is to assessment the health risk for cadmium and
11 lead in the surface and the ground water systems in the western part of the River Nile between
12 Abu Qurqas and Dyer Mawas districts, El-Minya Governorate, Egypt.

14 **1.1. Location**

15 The study area occupied the middle part of the Nile Valley between longitudes 30° 29'
16 and 30° 54'E and latitudes 27° 37' and 27° 56'N (Fig. 1). It is bounded by the River Nile from
17 the east and the calcareous plateau at the west between Abu Qurqas northward and Dyer
18 Mawas at the south. The water resources in the study area are represented by the River Nile,
19 canals and drains as well as groundwater (Fig. 1). The River Nile passes through high eastern
20 and western calcareous plateaus with a general slope from south to north about 0.1 m/km
21 (Korany et al 2006). The stratigraphic succession in El-Minya area is represented by Tertiary
22 and Quaternary sedimentary rocks (Fig. 2). The distribution of the different rock units was
23 indicated in Said (1981). The stratigraphic sequence is built up from base to top as follow:
24 Middle Eocene limestone intercalated with shale (Samalut Formation); Pliocene
25 undifferentiated sands, clays, and conglomerates; Plio-Pleistocene sand and gravel with clay

1 and shale lenses; Pleistocene sand and gravel with clay lenses and Holocene silt and clay. The
2 main aquifer in the study area is represented by Pleistocene sediments which compose of sand
3 and gravel of different sizes with some clay intercalation. The thickness of this aquifer ranged
4 from 25 to 300 m from desert fringes to central Nile Valley (Sadek 2001). The aquifer is
5 underlined by impermeable Pliocene clay layer and overlain by semi-permeable silty clay
6 layer. The semi-confined bed (silty clay) is missed outside the floodplain and the aquifer
7 becomes unconfined westward in the desert fringes. The groundwater flows generally from
8 the southern part to the northern part of the study area. Locally, the groundwater flows from
9 the center outwards in all directions; therefore, the River Nile is a recharge zone. The aquifer
10 is recharged by Nile water, irrigation system, drains, agricultural infiltration and vertical
11 upward from the deeper saline aquifers (Korany, 1984).

13 2. Material and methods

14 In November 2014, thirty water samples were collected from surface water resources
15 at the study area (Fig. 1 and Table. 1). In addition, 25 groundwater samples were collected
16 from the Quaternary aquifer (Fig. 1). Pre-rinsed polypropylene bottles were filled with the
17 samples, sealed tightly. At lab the samples were filtered through filter paper (Whatman No.
18 42) and digested with nitric acid (APHA, 1995). Samples were analyzed using atomic
19 absorption spectrometer instrument (model: Perkin Elmer 400) in National Research Centre
20 Laboratories.

21 For health risk assessment, chronic daily intake (CDI, mg/kg/day) and hazard quotient
22 (HQ) for each contaminant was calculated according to the following equations (Eq. 1, 2, 3)
23 adopted by Kelepertzis (2014):

$$25 \quad \text{CDI} = \text{C} * \text{IR} * \text{ED} * \text{EF} / \text{BW} * \text{AT} \quad (1)$$

$$\mathbf{HQ_{non-carcinogenic} = CDI / RfD} \quad \mathbf{(2)}$$

$$\mathbf{HQ_{carcinogenic} = CDI *SF} \quad \mathbf{(3)}$$

where, C, IR, ED, EF, BW, AT and RfD represent the concentration of metal in water (mg/L), average daily intake rate (2 L/day for adult and 1.2 L/day for children), exposure duration (15 years), exposure frequency (350 days), body weight (70kg for adult and 28kg for children), average time (ED*365 days for non-carcinogenic and lifetime*365 for carcinogenic risk) and toxicity reference dose. According to USEPA (2011) the RfD for Cd and Pb is 0.0005 and 0.055 mg/kg/day respectively. Also, slope factor (SF) for Cd and Pb is 0.38 and 0.055 mg/kg/day respectively. The average life time for adult is 65 years and 6.5 years for children (USEPA, 2011).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Surface water

River Nile and its tributaries (canals and drains) are the main source of water in Egypt especially for the governorates allocated on the river banks and on its branches. Therefore, the quality of water was evaluated by measuring of Cd and Pb concentrations in south of El-Minya Governorate during 2014 (Table 2). The close difference between mean and median (Table 2) indicate the homogenous distribution of both metals and the unity of their source. Cadmium concentrations (Table 2), ranged from 1 to 48µg/l, exceed the permissible limit (3µg/l) for drinking water according to WHO (2011). Excess Cd could accumulate in the kidney and remains for many years causes irreversible kidney damage (Goyer, 1996). The kidney patients in the study area is presumed to have increased from 10 patient/million in 1974 to about 165 patient/million in 1995 and in 2005 it was 260 patient/million in El-Minya Governorate (El Minshawy and Kamel, 2006). Agricultural activities are considered as the

1 most sources for Cd, where the Egyptian marine phosphorite used for manufacture of super-
2 phosphate fertilizers contains up to 20 ppm Cd (El-Kammar, 1974). Pesticides also can lead to
3 high Cd content in the study area (Bowen, 1966).

4 The highest concentration of Cd was recorded in sample number S₈ of 48μg/l close to
5 Abu Qurqas Sugar factory due to throwing of human wastes or garbage (Al-Shiekh Sharf
6 canal). The lower concentration was recorded in sample number S₆ (1μg/l) which was picked
7 up from the River Nile. These results are in line with those obtained Toufeek (2011) who
8 recorded average Cd concentration 12.5 μg/l at Aswan (southern Egypt), while Salman (2013)
9 found that the Cd level in samples collected from Sohag Governorate were flocculated around
10 16μg/l. Therefore, Osman and Kloas (2010) mentioned that the average Cd concentration in
11 the River Nile at Assuit was 6 μg/l.

12 Lead concentration ranged from 54 to 329μg/l in the studied surface water samples
13 (Table. 2). The study samples content of Pb passes the permissible limit (10μg/l) for drinking
14 water according to WHO (2011). Lead adsorbed by human body disturbs many body
15 processes and is harmful to many organs and tissues such as heart, bones, nervous system
16 (Needleman, 2004; Bruce et al., 2012). The highest concentration Of Pb was recorded in
17 sample number S₂₈ (329μg/l) from Al-Nasriyah canal, while sample number S₆, which was
18 collected from the River Nile at Abu Qurqas district, contains the lowest concentration
19 (54μg/l). These results are in agreement with those obtained by Toufeek (2011) who reported
20 about 214μg/l Pb in the River Nile at Aswan. In addition, Osman and Kloas (2010) proved
21 that the average Pb concentration in the River Nile at Assuit is nearly 24μg/l.

22 The Nile River and canals contain higher Cd and Pb concentrations than the drains
23 indicating the role of the human activities as a main source of these metals because most of
24 the canals penetrate settlements and adjacent to roads. In addition, most of the houses have
25 not sewers and discharge their wastewater and rubbish into canals.

3.2. Groundwater

Groundwater is the second important water resources in the study area and the only water resource in the desert fringes. It is used for irrigation and unfortunately for domestic and drinking in some villages which lacking safe potable water source. The groundwater samples exhibit relative wide range of the Cd level varying from 2 to 49 μ g/l with mean value 24 μ g/l (Table 3). The groundwater Cd level decreased eastward (Fig. 3) due to mixing with the surface water from River Nile and the role of the silty clay layer in the absorbance of Cd and prevent it to reach the aquifers. However, there are three hot spots of Cd resulted from the intensive human activities and fuel stations. Cd hot spot in the NW part of the study area adjacent to the western desert road was developed as a result of the unconfined condition of the aquifers which become vulnerable to contamination.

Also, the measured Pb content of the analyzed groundwater samples show relative wide range varying from 90 to 410 μ g/l with an average of 242 μ g/l (Table. 3). The marked high level of Pb content implies that the anthropogenic activities are the main source of Pb. The results are in agreement with Melegy et al (2014) who mentioned that Cd and Pb concentration in the groundwater of Sohag were around 21 and 383 μ g/l, respectively. In addition, Salman (2013) reported that the average of Cd and Pb concentrations are 21 and 383 μ g/l respectively in the Quaternary aquifer at Sohag. Pb level in the groundwater of the study area was increased at Abu Qurqas district resulting from the effect of the sugar factory, cesspits and fuel stations (Fig. 4).

All the samples are unsuitable for drinking purpose where they possess Cd and Pb values above the permissible limit of 3 μ g/l for Cd and 15 μ g/l for Pb (WHO, 2011). On the other hand, surface and ground water are suitable for irrigation purposes according to NAS-NAE (1973), where they contain less than 10000 and 5000000 μ g/l of Cd and Pb, respectively.

1 But unfortunately, using the groundwater for drinking in some villages of the study area
2 represents serious health impact. El-Minshawy and Kamel (2006) mentioned that the use of
3 unsafe water for drinking contributes up to 71.8% of the renal failure in the study area.

4 **3.3. Health risk assessment**

5 It was observed that general population in the rural area is using surface water from
6 the rivers or canals and groundwater from hand pumps for drinking and domestic purposes
7 because they don't have access to the tap water from the tube wells. Therefore, health risk
8 assessment (HQ) for surface water and groundwater was carried out in this study. The results
9 of non-carcinogenic and carcinogenic health risks (HQ) due to metal exposure in surface
10 water and groundwater samples are provided in Tables (4) and (5).

11 The non-carcinogenic health risk values for Cd in the drinking surface water for adults
12 vary from 0.05 to 2.06 with an average of 1.30 and for children fluctuate between 0.08 and
13 3.95 with mean 1.96 (Table 4). The Pb values for adults range from 0.03 to 0.16 with mean
14 0.11 and for children extend between 0.04 and 0.25 with an average 0.17 (Table 4). While, the
15 values of non-carcinogenic health risk of Cd in the drinking groundwater for adults range
16 from 0.11 to 2.68 with an average of 1.29 and for children extend between 0.16 and 4.03
17 averaging 1.94 (Table 5). The Pb values for adults range from 0.04 to 0.20 with an average of
18 0.12 and for children vary from 0.07 to 0.31 averaging 0.18 (Table 5). According to USEPA
19 (2011), Cd and Pb values of non-carcinogenic health risk should not exceed 1 to be
20 considered as non-harmful drinking water.

21 The carcinogenic health risk values for Cd in the drinking surface water for adults
22 range from 0.17×10^{-4} to 7.9×10^{-4} with an average of 3.9×10^{-4} and for children extend between
23 0.1×10^{-5} and 4.8×10^{-3} with mean 2.3×10^{-3} (Table 4). The Pb values for adults vary from
24 6.2×10^{-3} to 37×10^{-3} with mean 26×10^{-3} and for children range from 3.7×10^{-2} to 22×10^{-2} with an
25 average 15×10^{-2} (Table 4). As well, the Cd values of carcinogenic health risk for the drinking

1 groundwater range from 4.8×10^{-6} to 1.2×10^{-4} averaging 5.66×10^{-5} for adults and from 2.9×10^{-5}
2 to 7.11×10^{-4} with an average of 3.42×10^{-4} for children (Table 5). Pb values for adults fluctuate
3 between 3.13×10^{-5} and 14.3×10^{-5} with an average of 8.41×10^{-5} , also, the results for children
4 vary from 1.67×10^{-9} to 86.1×10^{-5} averaging 48.5×10^{-5} (Tables 5). According to USEPA
5 (2011), the values of Cd and Pb of carcinogenic health risk should not exceed 10^{-6} which it is
6 the safe limit of the hazard quotient. More than this limit, the drinking water has very harmful
7 effects on the inhabitants.

9 **4. Conclusion**

10 Cadmium and lead contents of the studied samples from Nile River, its tributaries
11 (canals and drains) and groundwater exceed the permissible limits for drinking water and
12 could be disturbing many body processes and are harmful to many organs and tissues such as
13 the heart, bones, kidney and nervous system. The canals are higher in Cd and Pb
14 concentrations than the drains indicating the role of the human activities as a main source of
15 these metals because most of the canals penetrate settlements and adjacent to roads. The
16 lowest concentrations of Cd and Pb were recorded in samples which were picked up from the
17 River Nile.

18 The non-carcinogenic health risk of Cd values exceeds 1 which is the safe limit of the
19 hazard quotient indicating harmful drinking water while the Pb values do not pass that limit.
20 The values of Cd and Pb of carcinogenic health risk exceed the safe limit of the hazard
21 quotient and accordingly the drinking water has very harmful effects on the inhabitants.

22 The water resources in the study area (surface and groundwater) are suitable for
23 irrigation purposes. Source of pollution in the investigated area were derived from
24 anthropogenic activities such as industries, agriculture, mining and sewage. The water in
25 concerned area is suitable to use for irrigation purpose and unsuitable for drinking.

1

2 **Recommendations**

3 It is recommended to connect the houses in different rural parts of the study area with
4 safe drinking water lines with regular monitoring of water resources and the end user water
5 lines.

6

7 **Acknowledgments**

8 The authors gratefully acknowledge the National Research Centre for funding this
9 research as a Ph.D. internal project and the grant no. is (8/5/9) to support Mr. Ahmed A.
10 Asmoay to do the lab work.

11

12 **5. References**

- 13 Abreu, C. A., Abreu, M. F., and Andrade, J. C.: Distribution of lead in the soil profile
14 evaluated by DTPA and Mehlich-3 solutions. *Bragantia*, 57: 185-192,1998.
- 15 Albaji, A., Ziarati, P., and Shiralipour, R.: Mercury and Lead contamination study of drinking
16 Water in Ahavz, Iran. *International Journal of Farming and Applied Sciences*, 1(19), 751-
17 755, 2013.
- 18 APHA.: Standard methods for the examination of water and wastewater. American Public
19 Health Association, 19th ed., Washington, D C: 1467p, 1995.
- 20 ATSDR.: Toxicological profile for Cadmium. Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease
21 Registry: 430p, 1997.
- 22 Bowen, D.: Quaternary geology. Pergamon, Oxford: 221p, 1966.
- 23 Brooks, R. M., Bahadory, M., Tovia, F., and Rostami, H. N.: "Removal of Lead from
24 Contaminated Water". *International Journal of Soil, Sediment, & Water*, 3 (2), 1-14, 2010.

- 1 Bruce, S. G., Zarema, A., and Igor, M. G.: Analysis of Lead toxicity in human cells. *BMC*
2 *Genomics*, 13:344, 2012.
- 3 Caliza, J., Montserrat, G., Martíb, E., Sierrab, J., Cruañasb, R., Garaub, M. A., Triadó-
4 Margarita, X., and Vilaa, X.: The exposition of a calcareous Mediterranean soil to toxic
5 concentrations of Cr, Cd and Pb produces changes in the microbiota mainly related to
6 differential metal metal bioavailability. *Chemosphere*, 89, 494–504, 2012.
- 7 Chiang, Y. W., Santos, R. M., Ghyselbrecht, K., Cappuyns, V., Martens, J. A., Swennen, R.,
8 Gerven, T. V., and Meesschaert, B.: Strategic selection of an optimal sorbent mixture for
9 in-situ remediation of heavy metal contaminated sediments: Framework and case study. *J*
10 *Environmental Management*, 105, 1- 11, 2012.
- 11 Dou, M., and Li, C.: Health risk assessment of Cadmium pollution emergency. *Energy*
12 *Procedia*, 16, 290-295, 2012.
- 13 El -Kashouty, M.: Modeling of limestone aquifer in the western part of the River Nile
14 between Beni Suef and El-Minia. *Arab J Geosci*, 6, 55–76, 2013.
- 15 Elewa, A. M. T., El-Sayed, E., El-Kashouty, M., and Morsi, M.: Quantitative study of surface
16 and groundwater systems in the western part of the River Nile, Minia Governorate, Upper
17 Egypt: Water Quality in Relation to Anthropogenic Activities. *Greener Journal of Physical*
18 *Sciences*, 3 (6), 212-228, 2013.
- 19 El-Kammar, A.: Comparative mineralogical and geochemical study on some Egyptian
20 phosphorities from Nile Valley, Qussier area and Kharga Oasis, Egypt. Ph. D. Thesis,
21 Cairo Univ: 425 p, 1974.
- 22 El-Minshawy, O., and Kamel, E. G.: Renal replacement therapy and increased risk of
23 cardiovascular. *Egypt. J Hosp Med*, 22: 29-38, 2006.

1 Fischbein, A.: Occupational and environmental exposure to Lead,” In: W N Rom, Ed,
2 Environmental and Occupational Medicine, 3rd Edition, Lippincott-Raven, Philadelphia:
3 973-996, 1998.

4 Goyer, R. A.: Toxic effects of metals: mercury. In Casarett and Duoll's toxicology. The Basic
5 Science of Poisons, 5thed (Klassen CD, ed), McGraw-Hill, New York, NY, 709-712, 1996.

6 Gupta, S. S., Bhattacharyya, G. K.: Influence of acid activation of kaolinite and
7 montmorillonite on adsorptive removal of Cd (II) from water, Industrial & Engineering
8 Chemistry Research, 46 (11), 3734-3742, 2007.

9 Kadirvalu, K., and Namasivayam, C.: Activated carbon from coconut coirpith as metal
10 adsorbent: Adsorption of Cd (II) from Aqueous Solution. Advances in Environmental
11 Research, 7 (4), 471, 2003.

12 Kelepertzis, E.: Investigating the sources and potential health risks of environmental
13 contaminants in the soils and drinking waters from the rural clusters in Thiva area
14 (Greece). Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety. 100, 258–265, 2014.

15 Korany, E., Sakr, S., Darwish, M, and Morsy, S.: Hydrogeologic modeling for the assessment
16 of continuous rise of groundwater levels in the quaternary aquifer, Nile valley, Egypt: case
17 study. Inter Conf Geol Arab World (GAW8), Cairo University, 703-711, 2006.

18 Korany, E.: Statstical approach in the assessment of the geohydrologic profiles. 9th Intern
19 Congr Statist Compu Sci Social and emogr Res, Cairo, Ain Shams University Press, 161-
20 176, 1984.

21 Melegy, A. A., Shaban, A. M., Hassaan, M. M., and Salman, S. A.: Geochemical
22 Mobilization of Some Heavy Metals in Water Resources and Their Impact on Human
23 Health in Sohag Governorate, Egypt. Arabian Journal of Geosciences, 7, 4541 – 4552,
24 2014.

- 1 Moreira, F. R., and Moreira, J. C.: Effects of Lead exposure on the human body and health
2 implications. *Revista Panamericana de Salud Pública*, 15: 119-129, 2004.
- 3 Muhammad, S., Shah, M. T., and Khan, S.: Health risk assessment of heavy metals and their
4 source apportionment in drinking water of Kohistan region, northern Pakistan. *MicroChem*
5 *J*, 98, 334–343, 2011.
- 6 NAS-NAE.: Water quality criteria. Report prepared by committee of water quality on request
7 of U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. National Academy of Science and National
8 Academy of Engineering, Washington, D C, USA: 594p, 1973.
- 9 Nazar, R., Iqbal, N., Masood, A., Iqbal, M., Khan, R., Syeed, S., and Khan, N. A.: Cadmium
10 toxicity in plants and role of mineral nutrients in Its Alleviation. *American Journal of Plant*
11 *Sciences*, 3, 1476-1489, 2012.
- 12 Needleman, H.: Lead poisoning. *Annual Review Medicine*, 55: 209-222, 2004.
- 13 Osei, J., Nyame, F. K., Armah, T. K., Osa, S. K., Dampare, S. B., Fianko, J. R., Adomako,
14 D., and Bentil, N.: Application of multivariate analysis for identification of pollution
15 sources in the Densu Delta Wetland in the vicinity of a Landfill site in Ghana. *J Water*
16 *Resource and Protection*, 2: 1020-1029, 2010.
- 17 Osman, A. G. M., and Kloas, W.: 2010. Water quality and heavy metal monitoring in water,
18 sediments, and tissues of the African Catfish *Clarias gariepinus* (Burchell, 1822) from the
19 River Nile, Egypt. *J Environmental Protection*, 1, 389-400, 2010.
- 20 Qu, C. S., Ma, Z. W., Yang, J., Liu, Y., Bi, J., and Huang, L.: Human exposure pathways of
21 heavy metals in lead-zinc mining area, Jiangsu Province, China. *PLoS One*, 7 (11),
22 e46793, 2012.
- 23 Sadek, M.: Isotopic criteria for upward leakage in the alluvial aquifer in north El Minia district,
24 Egypt. *Egypt. Geol Surv and Mining Authority*, 19 p, 2001.
- 25 Said, R.: Geological evaluation of the Nile; *Springer-Verlag, NY*, Berlin: 151p, 1981.

- 1 Salman, S. A.: Geochemical and environmental studies on the territories west River Nile,
2 Sohag Governorate, Egypt. Ph. D. Thesis, Al-Azhar Univ., 2013.
- 3 Shah, T., Ara, J., Muhammad, S., Khan, S., and Tariq, S.: Health risk assessment via surface
4 water and subsurface water consumption in the mafic and ultra-mafic terrain, Mohmand
5 agency, Northern Pakistan. *J Geochemical Exploration*, 118, 60-67, 2012.
- 6 Sun, H., and Li, L.: Investigation of distribution for trace Lead and Cadmium in chinese
7 herbal medicines and their decoctions by graphite furnace Atomic Absorption
8 Spectrometry. *American Journal of Analytical Chemistry*, 2, 217-222, 2011.
- 9 Tong, S., Schirnding, Y. E. V., and Prapamontol, T.: Environmental Lead exposure: A public
10 health problem of global dimensions. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 78: 1068-
11 1077, 2000.
- 12 Toufeek, M. E. F.: 2011. Distribution of Cadmium and Lead in Aswan reservoir and River
13 Nile water at Aswan. *World Applied Sci J*, 13 (2), 369 – 375, 2011.
- 14 USEPA.: Risk Assessment Guidance for Superfund. United States Environmental Protection
15 Agency: EPA/540/1-89/002, 1989.
- 16 USEPA.: Exposure Factors Handbook. United States Environmental Protection Agency,
17 Washington, D C: EPA/600/R-09/052F, 2011.
- 18 WHO.: Guideline for drinking water quality. World Health Organization, 4th Ed: 564p, 2011.
- 19

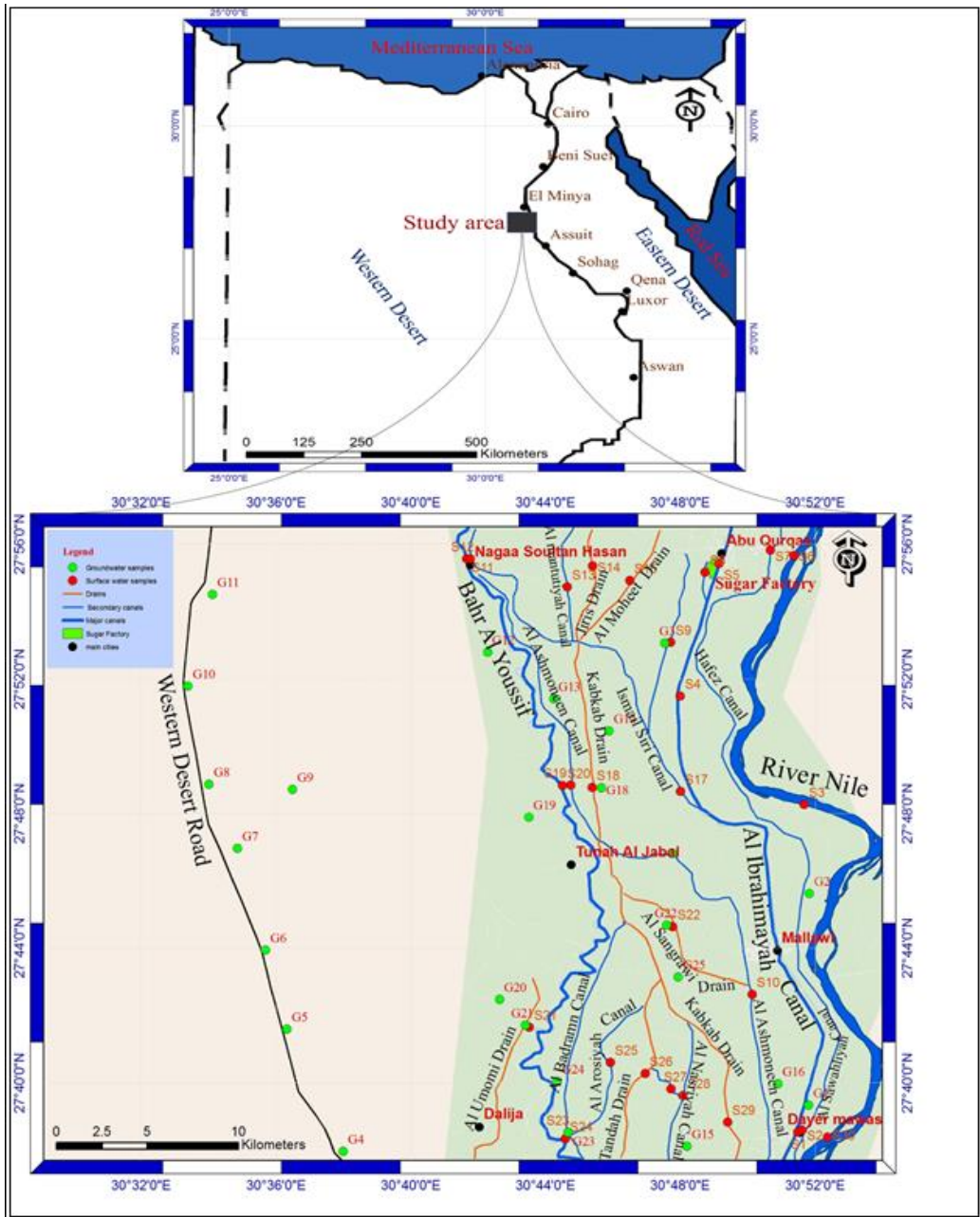


Figure 1: Location map of the study area.

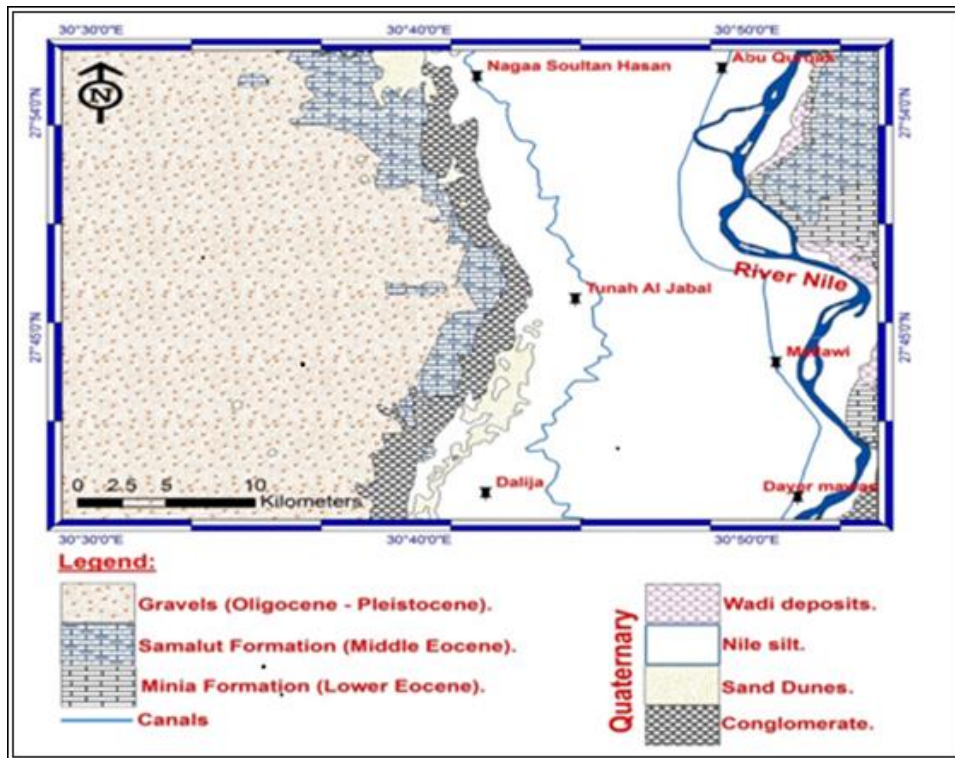


Figure 2: Geologic map of the study area.

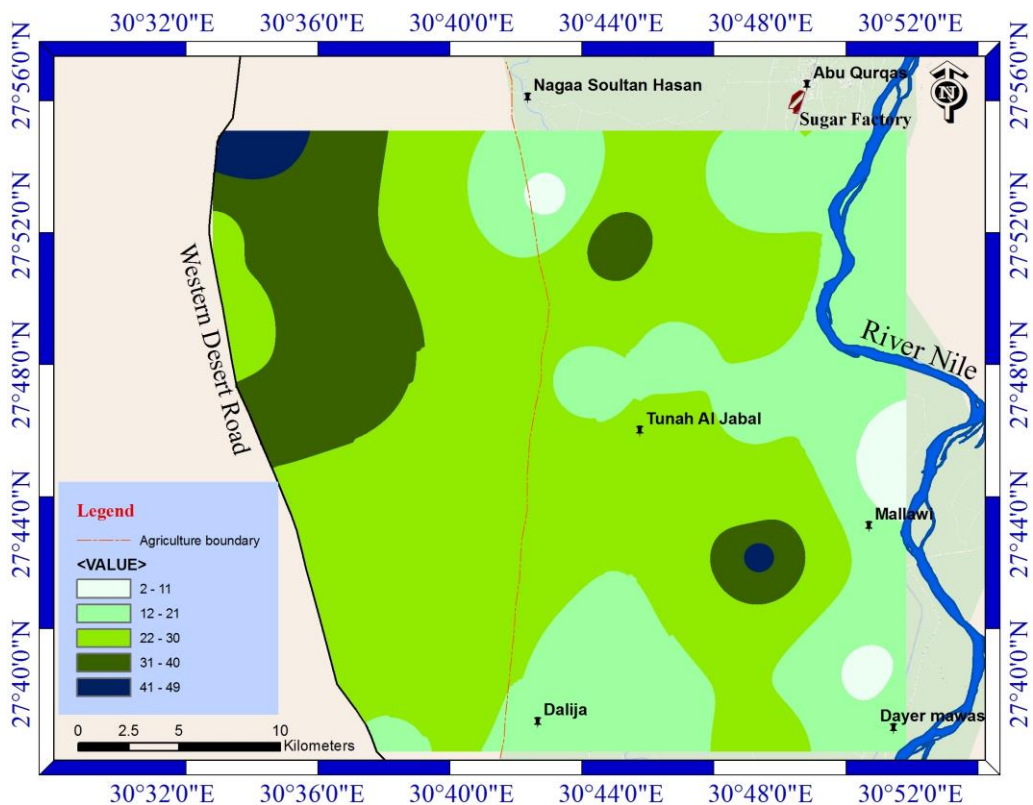


Figure 3: Spatial distribution map of Cd in the studied groundwater samples.

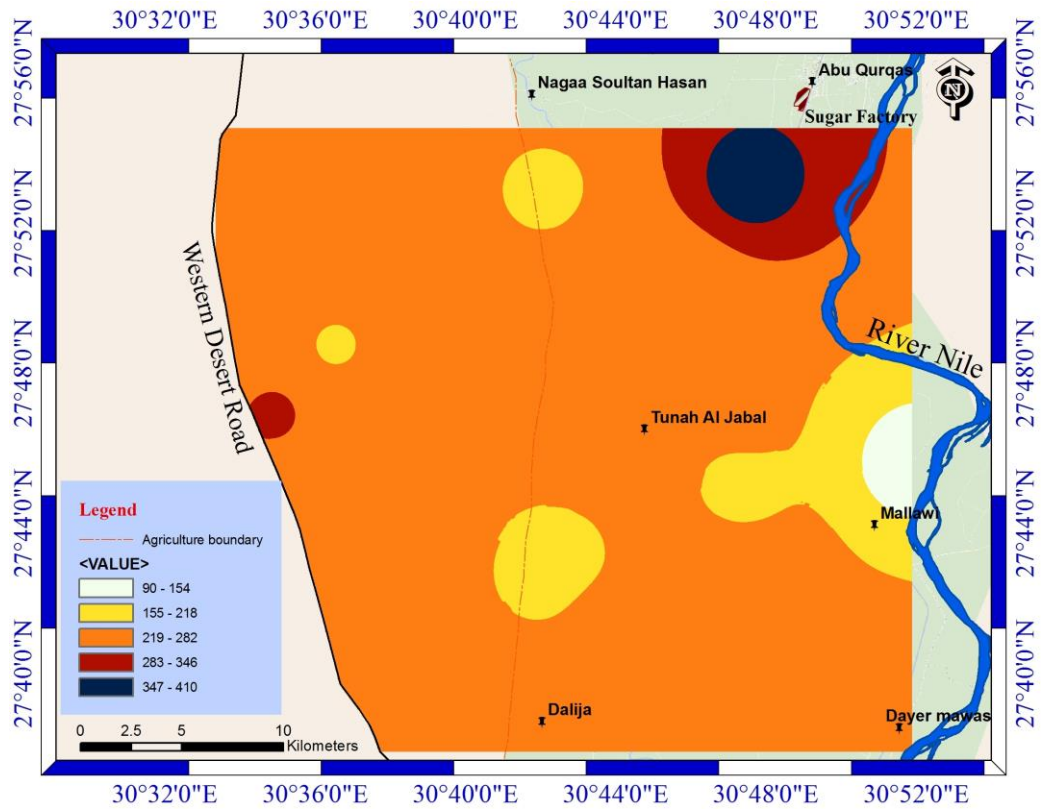


Figure 4: Spatial distribution map of Pb in the studied groundwater samples.

Table 1: Surface water samples and localities.

Sample No.	Canals	Sample No.	Canals & Drains
S ₃ , S ₆ , S ₃₀	River Nile	S ₂₈	Al Nasriyah canal
S ₁ , S ₅	Al Ibrahimayah canals	S ₉	Branch from Ismail Siri canal
S ₁₁ , S ₂₀ , S ₂₄	Bahr Youssef	S ₂₇	Branch from Al Nasriyah canal
S ₂	Al Sawahliyah canals	S ₄	Al Sellic Drain
S ₇	Hafez canal	S ₁₄	Jiris Drain
S ₈	Al ShiekhSharf canal	S ₁₅	Al Moheet Drain
S ₁₀ , S ₁₆ , S ₁₉	Al Ashmoneen canal	S ₁₈ , S ₂₉	Kabkab Drain
S ₁₂ , S ₁₇	Ismail Siri canal	S ₂₁	Al umomi Drain
S ₁₃	Al Mantutiyah canal	S ₂₂	Al Sangrawi Drain
S ₂₃	Al Badraman canal	S ₂₆	Tandah Drain
S ₂₅	Al Arosiyah canal		

Table 2: Cd and Pb concentrations in the surface water samples (µg/l).

Sample No.	Nile & Canals		Drains		Sample No.	Nile & Canals		Drains	
	Cd	Pb	Cd	Pb		Cd	Pb	Cd	Pb
S ₁	39	184	-	-	S ₁₈	-	-	17	216
S ₂	37	210	-	-	S ₁₉	15	208	-	-
S ₃	22	270	-	-	S ₂₀	15	208	-	-
S ₄	-	-	22	222	S ₂₁	-	-	28	183
S ₅	19	241	-	-	S ₂₂	-	-	21	260
S ₆	1	54	-	-	S ₂₃	33	275	-	-
S ₇	19	96	-	-	S ₂₄	21	250	-	-
S ₈	48	288	-	-	S ₂₅	7	272	-	-
S ₉	9	209	-	-	S ₂₆	-	-	22	273
S ₁₀	20	222	-	-	S ₂₇	16	298	-	-
S ₁₁	19	268	-	-	S ₂₈	35	329	-	-
S ₁₂	43	262	-	-	S ₂₉	-	-	23	198
S ₁₃	28	303	-	-	S ₃₀	28	192	-	-
S ₁₄	-	-	42	234	Mean	24	233	23	224
S ₁₅	-	-	12	213	Median	21	245	22	219
S ₁₆	32	225	-	-	Min.	1	54	12	183
S ₁₇	22	261	-	-	Max.	48	329	42	273

Table 3: Cd and Pb concentrations ($\mu\text{g/l}$) in the study groundwater samples.

Sample No.	Cd	Pb	Sample No.	Cd	Pb
G ₁	15	249	G ₁₅	24	274
G ₂	2	90	G ₁₆	8	242
G ₃	19	410	G ₁₇	19	228
G ₄	20	224	G ₁₈	19	228
G ₅	26	252	G ₁₉	19	243
G ₆	23	242	G ₂₀	28	162
G ₇	36	296	G ₂₁	14	266
G ₈	25	230	G ₂₂	27	193
G ₉	39	213	G ₂₃	17	275
G ₁₀	29	229	G ₂₄	19	264
G ₁₁	49	254	G ₂₅	42	276
G ₁₂	9	197	Mean	24	242
G ₁₃	38	270	Minimum	2	90
G ₁₄	23	242	Maximum	49	410

Table 4: Statistical parameters of non-carcinogenic and carcinogenic health risks for surface water samples.

Parameter	Non-carcinogenic for Adults		Non-carcinogenic for Children	
	HQ Cd	HQ Pb	HQ Cd	HQ Pb
Minimum	0.05	0.03	0.08	0.04
Maximum	2.06	0.16	3.95	0.25
Average	1.30	0.11	1.96	0.17
Parameter	Carcinogenic for Adults		Carcinogenic for Children	
	HQ Cd	HQ Pb	HQ Cd	HQ Pb
Minimum	0.17×10^{-4}	6.2×10^{-3}	0.1×10^{-5}	3.7×10^{-2}
Maximum	7.9×10^{-4}	37×10^{-3}	4.8×10^{-3}	22×10^{-2}
Average	3.9×10^{-4}	26×10^{-3}	2.3×10^{-3}	15×10^{-2}

HQ = Hazard quotient; $\text{HQ}_{\text{non-carcinogenic}} = \text{CDI} / \text{RfD}$; $\text{HQ}_{\text{carcinogenic}} = \text{CDI} / \text{SF}$

Table 5: Statistical parameters of non-carcinogenic and carcinogenic health risks for groundwater samples.

Parameter	Non-carcinogenic for Adults		Non-carcinogenic for Children	
	HQ Cd	HQ Pb	HQ Cd	HQ Pb
Minimum	0.11	0.04	0.16	0.07
Maximum	2.68	0.20	4.03	0.31
Average	1.29	0.12	1.94	0.18
Parameter	Carcinogenic for Adults		Carcinogenic for Children	
	HQ Cd	HQ Pb	HQ Cd	HQ Pb
Minimum	4.8×10^{-6}	3.13×10^{-5}	2.9×10^{-5}	1.67×10^{-9}
Maximum	1.2×10^{-4}	14.3×10^{-5}	7.11×10^{-4}	86.1×10^{-5}
Average	5.66×10^{-5}	8.41×10^{-5}	3.42×10^{-4}	48.5×10^{-5}

HQ = Hazard quotient; $HQ_{\text{non-carcinogenic}} = \text{CDI} / \text{RfD}$; $HQ_{\text{carcinogenic}} = \text{CDI} / \text{SF}$