



## The Natural Background Activity Concentration of ( $^{226}\text{Ra}$ , $^{232}\text{Th}$ and $^{40}\text{K}$ ) and the Annual Effective Dose from Different Water Sources Consumption in Phosphate Polluted Area

M. H. El-Zayat\* and M. El-Zohry

\*Ministry of Education, Egypt

Physics Department, Sohage University, Egypt

THE present study is a part of series studies carried out on Nile valley phosphate mining areas, Egypt in order to gather information about radionuclides mobility and distribution and access the associated radiological health risk. This study was carried out on different water source samples collected from Al-Mahamid, Upper Egypt where the study showed that the activity concentrations of  $^{226}\text{Ra}$  and  $^{232}\text{Th}$  are close to each other for all water source samples and the activity concentration of  $^{40}\text{K}$  is higher than that of  $^{226}\text{Ra}$  and  $^{232}\text{Th}$  for all water source samples. These data are compared with those obtained for different countries. The estimated annual effective dose ( $D_{\text{eff}}$ ) ranged from infants to adults were also examined. The total annual effective dose obtained for infant, children and adults are lower than that obtained by WHO and UNSCEAR. The health risks to members of the public due to exposure to low dose radiation from the various drinking water sources which is regarded as chronic risk of somatic or hereditary effects were estimated. The result shows that 56 out of 1,000,000 may suffer some form of cancer fatality and 20 out of 100,000 may suffer some hereditary effects.

**Keywords:** Phosphate / Radionuclides / Annual effective dose / WHO / UNSCEAR.

### Introduction

Radionuclides are known to be associated with Phosphate rocks which contain relatively high concentrations of naturally occurring radioactive materials from the uranium and thorium decay series [1]. In April 2015, the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) World Distribution of Uranium Deposits (UDEPO) estimated there were 13.8 million tons of uranium in phosphate rock deposits [2, 3 and 4]. There are no radiological controls on the operation of these industries or restrictions on how waste is discharged which relate to its radionuclide content [5]. When radioactivity released in the air, they can travel some distance depending upon many factors as wind speed and direction and altitude of the release. The products of airborne releases can be transported to humans by direct ingestion, inhalation or that deposited on the ground will find their way into plant and animal life and thereby into the food chain, or through deposition

of airborne into water which can reach humans either by direct ingestion or via the food chain. The radionuclide contributing significantly to the ingestion dose via consumption of water is radium [6]. Many salts of radium are soluble in water and therefore surface water may be enriched in radium and its progenies.  $^{226}\text{Ra}$  is an earth alkaline element sharing the metabolic pathways of calcium in the human body [6 and 7]. Ingestion of natural radionuclides depends on the consumption rates of water and on the radionuclide concentrations. Ingested radionuclides are absorbed into the blood [8] and accumulates in specific tissues that they may damage. Of absorbed uranium, 66% is rapidly eliminated via urine while the rest is distributed and stored in the kidney (12-15%), bone (10-15%) and soft tissues. The rate of clearance of such radionuclide from the tissue or organ is dependent on the biological half-life. Higher concentration of radioactivity in environmental media can cause exposure risk to the general populace which may lead to radiation related sickness such as leukemia,

\*Corresponding author : a.ll\_m@yahoo.com

Received : 1 / 5 / 2019 ; accepted : 16 / 6 / 2019

DOI : 10.21608/EJPHYSICS.2019.12416.1020

©2020 National Information and Documentaion Center (NIDOC)

cancer of bladder, kidney, testis and lungs [9, and 10]. World Health Organization (WHO) [11] recommended reference dose level of 0.1 mSv from one-year consumption of drinking water. This study was carried out on different water sources samples from phosphate polluted area in Al-Mahamid, Upper-Egypt in order to estimate the activity concentration of natural radionuclides  $^{226}\text{Ra}$ ,  $^{232}\text{Th}$  and  $^{40}\text{K}$  and assess the associated radiological health risk due to ingestion of such water.

#### *Geographical aspects*

Phosphate deposits in Egypt are part of the Middle East to the North African Phosphogenic Province of the Late Cretaceous-Palaeogene age. The occurrences are divided into three east-west trending facies belts, phosphorite of the northern facies belt spreading from Bahariya oasis to Sinai, phosphorite of the central facies belt which confined to three localities: (i) The Red Sea Coast from Safaga to the Quseir land-stretch. (ii) The Nile Valley between Idfu and Qena. (iii) The Western Desert on the Abu Tartur Plateau (New Valley area) and phosphorite of the southern facies belt [12]. The Nile Valley phosphate deposits extend between latitudes  $25^{\circ} 30' - 26^{\circ} 30'$  and longitudes  $32^{\circ} 30' - 33^{\circ} 30'$  on both sides of the Nile Valley [13]. Our study area is a part of the Nile Valley phosphate area in the area of Al-Mahamid, Upper Egypt ( $25^{\circ} 6' 18.81''\text{N}$ ,  $32^{\circ} 49' 15.53''\text{E}$  and  $25^{\circ} 6' 4.11''\text{N}$ ,  $32^{\circ} 49' 31.91''\text{E}$ ), where mining of phosphate ore is mostly by surface mining. The overburden is removed either by scraping or by drilling and blasting, depending on the nature of the rock. The phosphate bed is drilled, blasted and removed by trucks to the crushing plant, where it is crushed to less than 5 cm and screened, then attrition washed to remove the clayey fine fraction and the hard-siliceous coarse fraction the control of air pollution under these circumstances is very challenging [12 and 13]. During these operations, the dust spreads in varying degrees to cover neighboring areas [14].

#### *Sampling and measurements*

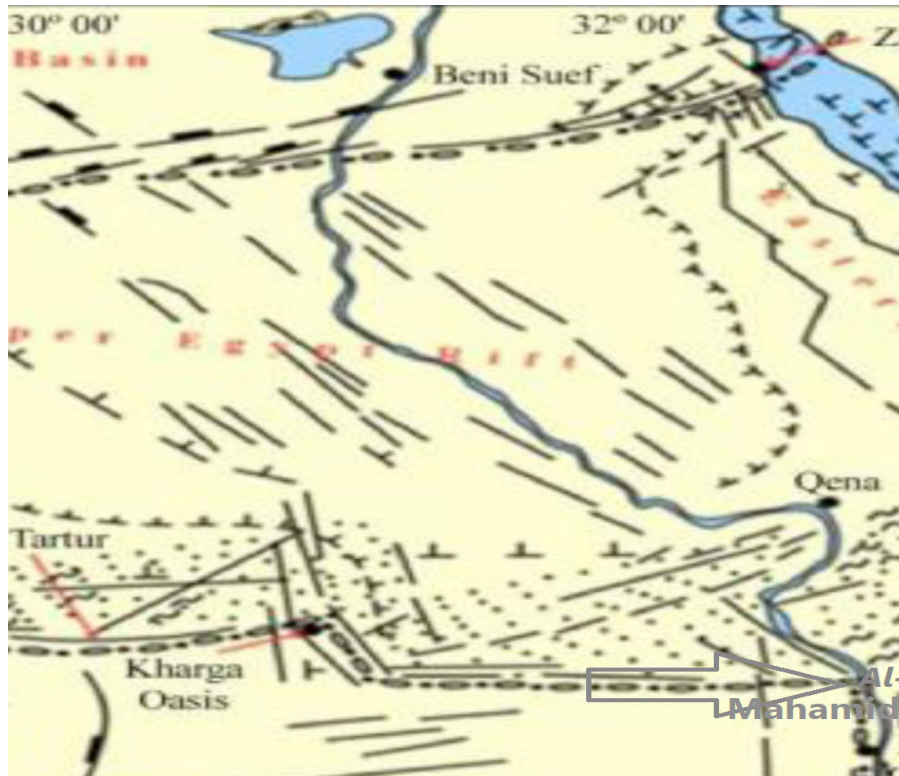
For the purposes of this study a number of different samples of water were collected from different sources and points to cover the total area under investigation (three water samples from three wells distributed randomly throughout the area, a canal water, Nile water as well as tap water from some houses around the study area). Samples were collected using polyethylene bottles 5-liters volume. Two samples were taken

from each position. The position was recorded using the global positioning system (GPS). The 5-liters volume of solution was concentrated to 1-liter volume [15]. Marinelli beakers (1-liters volume) were used as a measuring container. Each beaker was filled up to brim and a tight cap was pressed on so that the air was completely removed from it. The samples were stored for over 4 weeks to reach secular equilibrium before radiometric analysis. Low-level background gamma-ray spectrometer consists basically of  $3 \times 3$ -inch NaI(Tl), S-1212-I model, with a 1024 microcomputer multichannel analyzer, 5510 ORTEC Norland was used to measure the specific activity of the samples. The applied detector has a peak gamma-ray efficiency of  $1.2 \times 10^{-5}$  at 1332 KeV, energy resolution of 7.5% at 662 KeV [16] and operation bias voltage 800-1000 V D.C. The detector was housed inside a massive lead shield to reduce the background radiation. The energy calibration was carried out by acquiring a spectrum from radioactive standards of known energies ( $^{137}\text{Cs}$  and  $^{60}\text{Co}$ ). For the efficiency calibration a multi-element standard of known activities was used. By assuming secular equilibrium in the uranium and thorium decay series, the  $^{238}\text{U}$  and the  $^{232}\text{Th}$  activities were determined indirectly via activities of their daughter. The nuclides chosen were  $^{214}\text{Bi}$  (609.3, 1120.3 and 1764 KeV) and  $^{214}\text{Pb}$  (351 KeV) for  $^{238}\text{U}$ ,  $^{208}\text{Tl}$  (2614 KeV),  $^{212}\text{Pb}$  (238 KeV) and  $^{228}\text{Ac}$  (911 KeV) for  $^{232}\text{Th}$  [17 and 18]. The specific activity of  $^{40}\text{K}$  was determined directly by 1461 KeV photopeak. The background was measured frequently and subtracted from the net count for all measured samples. The activity concentrations of the natural radionuclides in the measured samples were computed using the following equation [19]:

$$A_s = \frac{N}{\epsilon P_r M} \quad (\text{e.M.Pr}) \quad (\text{Bq/Kg}) \quad (1)$$

Where N is the net counting rate of  $\gamma$ -ray (counts per second) corrected for background,  $\epsilon$  the detector efficiency of the specific  $\gamma$ -ray,  $P_r$  the absolute transition probability of  $\gamma$ -decay and M the mass of the sample (Kg). The total annual effective dose due to intake of drinking water sources sampled for 3 different age groups (infants, children and adults) was estimated using the following formula [7, 10 and 20]: (2)

Where:  $D_{\text{eff}}$  is the annual effective dose equivalent from consumption of drinking water,  $A_r$  is the concentration of natural radionuclide in water (Bq/L),  $I_L$  is the consumption rate of water (L/y).



Map of the study area, Al-Mahamid, Upper Egypt.

TABLE 1. Dose conversion factors (mSv/Bq) for ingestion of radionuclides for members of the public [21].

S/N	Radioisotopes	Infant < 1 year	Children 10 years	Adult > 17 years
1	<sup>226</sup> Ra	5.7 E-06	8.0 E-07	2.8 E-07
2	<sup>232</sup> Th	1.6 E-06	2.9 E-07	2.3 E-07
3	<sup>40</sup> K	5.2 E-05	1.3 E-08	6.2 E-09

$DC_R$  is the dose conversion factor (mSv/Bq) table (1). The water intake rates were 0.5 L/d and 1.0 L/d for infants (0-1 yrs) and children (10 yrs) respectively and 2 L/d for adults ( $\geq 17$  yrs) [20]. The health risks to members of the public due to exposure to low dose radiation from the various drinking water sources which is regarded as chronic risk of somatic or hereditary effects were estimated [7].

$$\text{Fatality cancer risk} = D_{\text{eff}} \times C_{\text{RF}} \quad (3)$$

where  $C_{\text{RF}}$  is the cancer risk factor =  $5.5 \times 10^{-2}$   
 Lifetime fatality cancer risk to adult = fatality cancer risk  $\times 70$  yrs (4)

$$\text{Severe hereditary effects} = D_{\text{eff}} \times H_{\text{EF}} \quad (5)$$

where  $H_{\text{EF}}$  is the hereditary effect factor =  $0.2 \times 10^{-2}$

Lifetime hereditary effect in adult = Severe hereditary effects  $\times 70$  yrs (6)

### Results and Discussion

From table (2) and fig (1) the average activity concentrations of <sup>226</sup>Ra, <sup>232</sup>Th and <sup>40</sup>K were  $1.35 \pm 0.06$ ,  $0.87 \pm 0.04$ , and  $5.40 \pm 0.20$  Bq/L respectively for tap water (W.T) samples. The values of <sup>226</sup>Ra ranged from  $0.98 \pm 0.05$  to  $3.04 \pm 0.16$ , <sup>232</sup>Th ranged from  $0.81 \pm 0.04$  to  $1.84 \pm 0.08$  and <sup>40</sup>K ranged from  $3.72 \pm 0.13$  to  $10.47 \pm 0.40$  Bq/L for canal water (W.C) samples. For ground water (W.G) samples the values of <sup>226</sup>Ra ranged from  $1.99 \pm 0.10$  to  $3.80 \pm 0.18$ , <sup>232</sup>Th ranged from  $1.30 \pm 0.06$  to  $1.44 \pm 0.07$  and <sup>40</sup>K ranged from  $5.07 \pm 0.19$  to  $12.40 \pm 0.45$  Bq/L. The values of <sup>226</sup>Ra ranged from  $1.09 \pm 0.05$  to  $2.56 \pm 0.11$ , <sup>232</sup>Th  $1.29 \pm 0.06$  to  $1.46 \pm 0.06$  and <sup>40</sup>K from  $8.01 \pm 0.29$  to  $9.16 \pm 0.33$  Bq/L for Nile water (W.N) samples. The specific activity concentration of <sup>40</sup>K is greater than that of <sup>226</sup>Ra and <sup>232</sup>Th for all water

sources samples and the activity concentration of  $^{226}\text{Ra}$  is more than that of  $^{232}\text{Th}$  for almost water sources samples as  $^{226}\text{Ra}$  is more soluble than  $^{232}\text{Th}$ . Table 3 summarizes the concentration values of  $^{226}\text{Ra}$ ,  $^{232}\text{Th}$  and  $^{40}\text{K}$  which were obtained from the current study and other studies for other countries. As can be seen from the table 3  $^{226}\text{Ra}$  values for ground water of present study matches with the values reported by Isam, et al.[28]in Sweden and Godoy, et al.[31]in brazil and higher than the values reported by Ahmed [29] in Egypt (Qena) and (Safaga - Quseir) and lower than those reported by Salonen [24]in Finland.  $^{232}\text{Th}$  values for ground, Nile, canal and tap water of present study close to each other and are matches with the values reported by Saqan, et al.[27] in Jordan.  $^{40}\text{K}$  values of ground, Nile, canal and tap water for present study are lower than the values reported by Saqan, et al.[27]in Jordan. From table 4 and fig. 2 the annual effective dose for different age groups ranges from 0.037 to 0.103  $m\text{Sv/y}$  for infants, 0.0004 to 0.001  $m\text{Sv/y}$  for children and from 0.0004 to 0.0008  $m\text{Sv/y}$  for adult for canal water samples. In ground water, it ranges from 0.052  $m\text{Sv/y}$  to 0.120  $m\text{Sv/y}$  for infants,

0.0008 to 0.001  $m\text{Sv/y}$  for children and 0.0007 to 0.001  $m\text{Sv/y}$  in adult. For Nile water, the total effective dose ranges from 0.078 to 0.090  $m\text{Sv/y}$  for infant, 0.0005 to 0.0009 for children and 0.0005 to 0.0008  $m\text{Sv/y}$  for adult. It can be observed that the radiation dose received by infants is higher than that received by children and adults for all water sources samples. The total annual effective dose obtained for infant, children and adults are lower than that obtained by WHO [10] and UNSCEAR [20]. The result showed that cancer risk for adults varies from  $20 \times 10^{-6}$  to  $56 \times 10^{-6}$  for all water sources samples and Lifetime fatality cancer risk varies between  $1 \times 10^{-3}$  and  $4 \times 10^{-3}$ . Whereas the hereditary effect to adult per year varied from  $0.728 \times 10^{-6}$  to  $2.036 \times 10^{-6}$  and the lifetime hereditary effects in adult varies from  $51 \times 10^{-6}$  to  $142 \times 10^{-6}$ . the result shows that 56 out of 1,000,000 may suffer some form of cancer fatality and 20 out of 100,000 may suffer some hereditary effects. The United States Environmental protection Agency (USEPA) recommended acceptable cancer fatality risk limit of  $1.0 \times 10^{-6}$  to  $1.0 \times 10^{-4}$  (i.e. 1 person out of 1,000,000 to 10,000 persons suffering from some form of cancer fatality) [7, 10 and 32].

**TABLE 2. The activity concentration of  $^{226}\text{Ra}$ ,  $^{232}\text{Th}$  and  $^{40}\text{K}$  (Bq/L) for different water sources (W.T= Tap water, W.C= Canal water, W.G= Ground water and W.N= Nile water)samples.**

Sample ID	Latitude	Longitude	$\pm A(^{226}\text{Ra})$	$\pm A(^{232}\text{Th})$	$\pm A(^{40}\text{K})$
W.T <sub>1</sub>	25° 7'56.72"N	32°47'11.17"E	1.30 ± 0.05	0.85 ± 0.03	5.61 ± 0.20
W.T <sub>2</sub>	25° 7'56.99"N	32°47'1.42"E	1.40 ± 0.07	0.90 ± 0.04	5.20 ± 0.19
W.C <sub>1</sub>	25° 7'58.67"N	32°46'46.05"E	2.77 ± 0.12	1.40 ± 0.06	6.06 ± 0.22
W.C <sub>2</sub>	25° 7'56.09"N	32°46'43.24"E	2.11 ± 0.09	1.53 ± 0.07	4.92 ± 0.18
W.C <sub>3</sub>	25° 7'52.99"N	32°46'38.36"E	1.46 ± 0.07	1.84 ± 0.08	10.28 ± 0.37
W.C <sub>4</sub>	25° 7'41.22"N	32°46'25.59"E	0.98 ± 0.05	0.81 ± 0.04	6.01 ± 0.22
W.C <sub>5</sub>	25° 7'47.56"N	32°47'23.60"E	3.04 ± 0.16	1.03 ± 0.06	10.47 ± 0.40
W.C <sub>6</sub>	25° 7'24.45"N	32°47'57.89"E	2.54 ± 0.11	1.20 ± 0.05	8.84 ± 0.32
W.C <sub>7</sub>	25° 6'22.25"N	32°49'3.40"E	1.06 ± 0.05	0.87 ± 0.04	3.72 ± 0.13
W.G <sub>1</sub>	25° 7'48.67"N	32°46'34.69"E	3.80 ± 0.18	1.30 ± 0.07	5.07 ± 0.19
W.G <sub>2</sub>	25° 7'44.12"N	32°46'29.44"E	1.99 ± 0.10	1.31 ± 0.06	12.40 ± 0.45
W.G <sub>3</sub>	25° 7'33.74"N	32°48'43.29"E	2.59 ± 0.11	1.44 ± 0.06	8.49 ± 0.31
W.N <sub>1</sub>	25° 7'31.13"N	32°46'17.90"E	2.56 ± 0.11	1.46 ± 0.06	9.16 ± 0.33
W.N <sub>2</sub>	25° 6'58.46"N	32°48'4.38"E	1.63 ± 0.08	1.29 ± 0.06	8.01 ± 0.29
W.N <sub>3</sub>	25° 6'20.28"N	32°48'59.67"E	1.09 ± 0.05	1.30 ± 0.06	8.21 ± 0.30

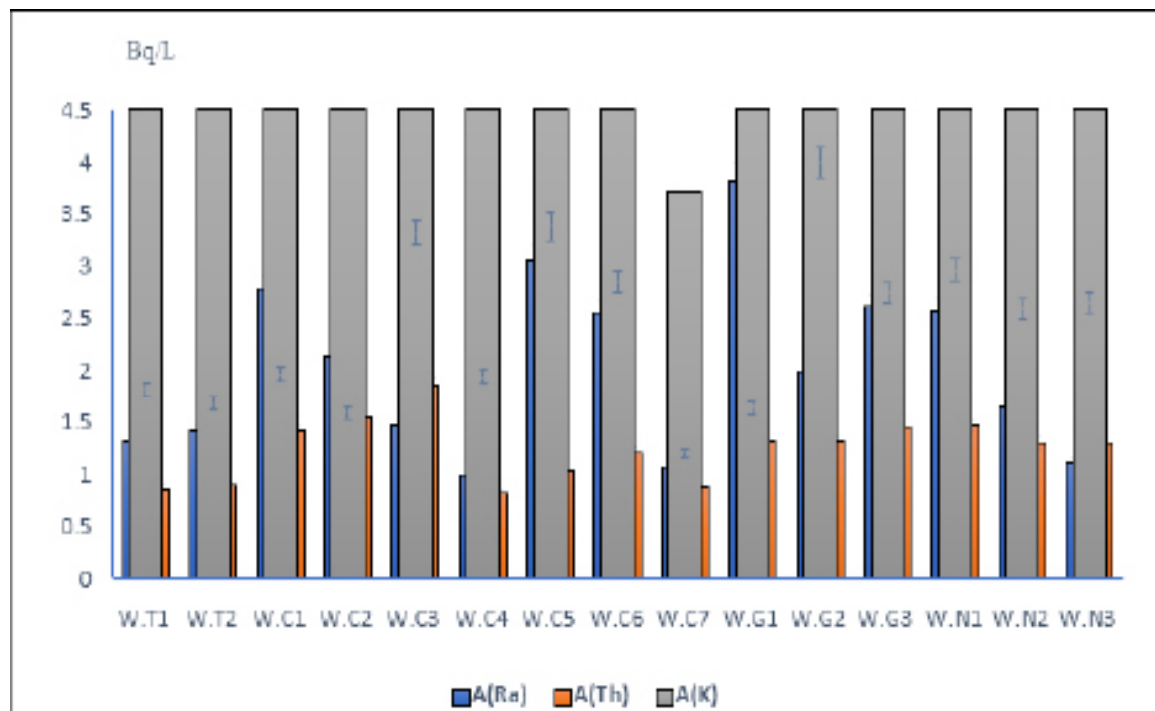


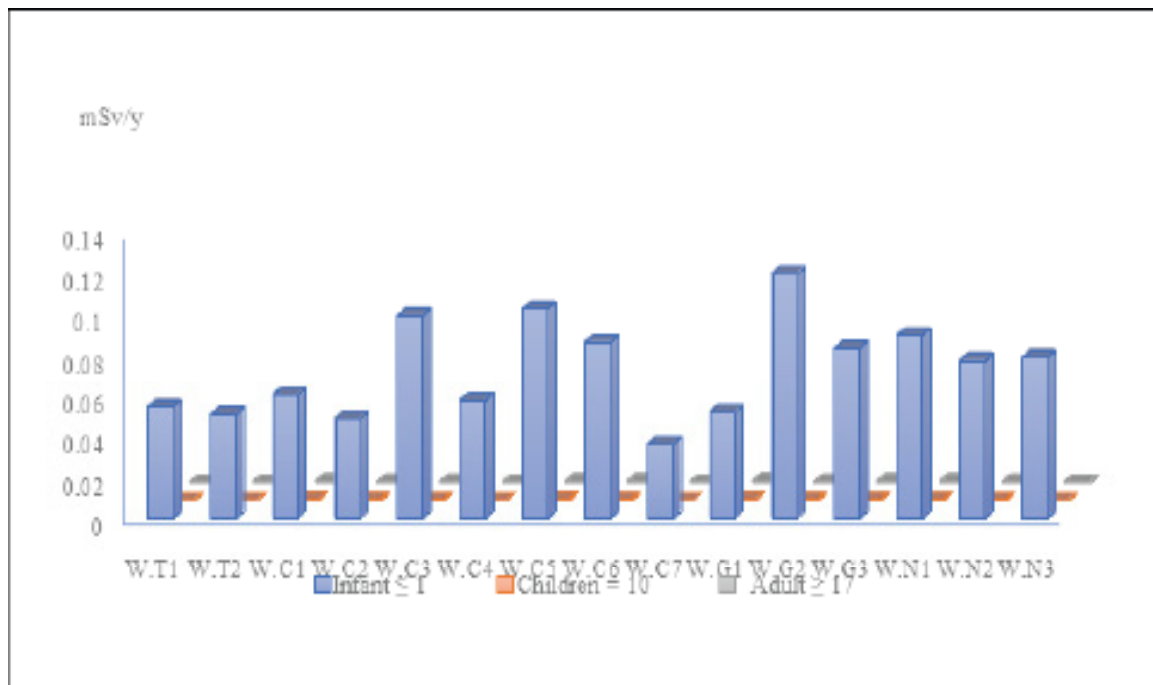
Fig. 1. The activity concentration of <sup>226</sup>Ra, <sup>232</sup>Th and <sup>40</sup>K (Bq/L) for different water sources (W.T= Tap water, W.C= Canal water, W.G= Ground water and W.N= Nile water) samples.

TABLE 3. The activity concentration of <sup>226</sup>Ra, <sup>232</sup>Th and <sup>40</sup>K (Bq/L) for water samples (Bq/L) in present study in comparison with other countries.

Country	Water type	Activity concentration Bq/L			Ref.
		Ra-226	Th-232	K-40	
Current study	ground water	1.99-3.8	1.3-1.44	5.07-12.4	present study
	Nile water	1.09-2.56	1.29-1.46	8.01-8.16	present study
	canal water	0.98-3.04	0.81-1.84	3.72-10.5	present study
	tap water	1.30-1.4	0.85-0.9	5.2-5.61	present study
Egypt	natural water	1.6-11.1	0.21-0.79	9.7-23	El-Arabi, et al., 2006 [22]
Spain	natural water	0.02-4			Soto, et al., 1988 [23]
Finland	ground water	0.01-49			Salonen, 1994 [24]
Italy	drinking water	0.0002-1.2			Sgorbati and Forte.1997 [25]
China	ground water	Max 0.93			Weihai, Z., et al., 2001 [26]
Jordan	hot springs	3.8-6.8	1.42-2.37	23.2-34.8	Saqan, et al., 2001 [27]
Sweden	ground water	0.016-4.9			Isam., et al., 2002 [28]
Qena , Egypt	ground water	Mean 0.08	Mean 0.04		Ahmed, 2004 [29]
Egypt (Safaga-Quseir)	ground water	Mean 0.1	Mean 0.05		
U.S.A	mineral water	Max. 20			Kitto, et al., 2005 [30]
brazil	ground water	0.01 - 3.79			Godoy, et al., 2006 [31]

**TABLE 4.** The total annual effective dose, Cancerrisk to Adult, LifetimeFatality, Heredity effects to adult, hereditary effectsfor different water (W.T= Tap water, W.C= Canal water, W.G= Ground water and W.N= Nile water) samples.

Sample ID	Total annual effective dose (mSv/y)			Fatality Cancerrisk to Adult per year $\times 10^{-6}$	Lifetime Fatality cancerrisk	Severe Heredity effects to adult per year $\times 10^{-6}$	Estimated lifetime hereditary effects
	Infant $\leq 1$	Children = 10	Adult $\geq 17$				
W.T <sub>1</sub>	0.055	0.0005	0.0004	23.88	0.002	0.868	0.000061
W.T <sub>2</sub>	0.051	0.0005	0.0005	25.36	0.002	0.922	0.000065
W.C <sub>1</sub>	0.061	0.0010	0.0008	45.62	0.003	1.659	0.000116
W.C <sub>2</sub>	0.049	0.0008	0.0007	39.13	0.003	1.423	0.000100
W.C <sub>3</sub>	0.100	0.0007	0.0007	35.97	0.003	1.308	0.000092
W.C <sub>4</sub>	0.058	0.0004	0.0004	20.01	0.001	0.728	0.000051
W.C <sub>5</sub>	0.103	0.0010	0.0008	46.35	0.003	1.685	0.000118
W.C <sub>6</sub>	0.087	0.0009	0.0008	41.84	0.003	1.522	0.000107
W.C <sub>7</sub>	0.037	0.0004	0.0004	20.82	0.001	0.757	0.000053
W.G <sub>1</sub>	0.052	0.0013	0.0010	56.00	0.004	2.036	0.000143
W.G <sub>2</sub>	0.120	0.0008	0.0007	37.62	0.003	1.368	0.000096
W.G <sub>3</sub>	0.084	0.0010	0.0008	44.56	0.003	1.620	0.000113
W.N <sub>1</sub>	0.090	0.0009	0.0008	44.54	0.003	1.620	0.000113
W.N <sub>2</sub>	0.078	0.0007	0.0006	32.22	0.002	1.172	0.000082
W.N <sub>3</sub>	0.079	0.0005	0.0005	26.36	0.002	0.958	0.000067



**Fig. 2.** The total annual effective dose (mSv/y) for different water sources (W.T= Tap water, W.C= Canal water, W.G= Ground water and W.N= Nile water) samples.

## Conclusion

The distribution of natural radionuclides of <sup>226</sup>Ra, <sup>232</sup>Th, and <sup>40</sup>K were measured by gamma-ray spectrometry with NaI (TI) detectors for water sources samples in phosphate polluted area in Al-Mahamid, Upper Egypt. The results from this study indicate that the activity concentrations of <sup>226</sup>Ra, <sup>232</sup>Th, and <sup>40</sup>K in the studied water sources samples are found to be normal. The results of this study showed that the total annual effective dose obtained for infant, children and adults are below the limit set by WHO.

## References

1. El Afifi, E. M., Hilal, M. A., Khalifa, S. M., Aly, H. F., 2005. Evaluation of U, Th, K and emanated radon in some NORM and TENORM samples. *Radiation Measurements* 41, 627-633.
2. Van Kauwenbergh, S. J., 1997. Cadmium and Other Minor Elements in World Resources of Phosphate Rock. *International Fertiliser Society - Proceeding* 400.
3. IAEA, 2015. International Atomic Energy Agency. World Distribution of Uranium Deposits (UDEPO).
4. Saueia, C. H., Mazzilli, B. P., Favaro, D. I. T., . Natural Radioactivity in Phosphate Rock, Phosphogypsum, and Phosphate Fertilizers in Brazil. *Journal of Radioanalytical and Nuclear Chemistry* 264, 445-448, 2005.
5. Kraus, W., Kendall, G. M., 1999. Examples of enhanced exposure to natural radiation. *Symposium on Achievements, Challenges: Advancing Radiation Protection into the 21<sup>st</sup> Century, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil*.
6. J. de Oliveira, B. Pacimazzilli, P. da Costa, P. Akiko Tanigava, Natural radioactivity in Brazilian bottled mineral waters and consequent doses. *Journal of Radioanalytical and Nuclear Chemistry*, Vol. 249, No. 1 (2001) 173–176, 2001.
7. C. P. Ononugbo, B., U., Nwaka, Natural Radioactivity and Radiological Risk Estimation of Drinking Water from Okposi and Uburu Salt Lake Area, Ebonyi State, Nigeria. *Physical Science International Journal* 15 (3): 1-15, 2017.
8. International Commission of Radiological Protection (ICRP). 2006 Recommendations of the (ICRP) 103 Publication. Pergamon Press; 2007.
9. Isinkaye MO, Emelue HU. Natural radioactivity measurements and evaluation of radiological hazards in sediment of Oguta Lake, South East Nigeria. *Journal of Radiation Research and Applied Sciences*. 8 (3):459–469 2015.
10. Ndontechueng MM, Suno A, Nguem EJ, Beyala JF, Kryezie D. Preliminary study of natural radioactivity and radiological risk assessment in some mineral bottled water produced in Cameroon. *International Journal of Science and Technology*. 3(3):271276 2013.
11. World Health Organization. Guidelines for drinking water quality. Third edition, Incorporating the first and second Addenda, Recommendations; WHO Geneva. 2008;1:1–200.
12. Mohamed Montaser, 2016. A case study of the El-Sebaeya Projects, Nile Valley, Egypt, UNFC-2009 to phosphate rock - uranium resources, Seventh session Geneva, 26–29 April 2016 Item 16 of the provisional agenda.
13. Elmaadawy, Kh. G., Ezz El Din, M., Khalid, A. M., Abouzeid, A. Z., Mineral Industry in Egypt. Part II Non- Metallic Commodities – Phosphate Rocks, *Journal of Mining World Express (MWE)* 4) 2015.
14. Abd El-Gabar M., El-Arabi, Ibrahim H., Khalifa, Application of multivariate statistical analyses in the interpretation of geochemical behavior of uranium in phosphatic rocks in the Red Sea, Nile Valley and Western Desert, *Egypt Journal of Environmental Radioactivity* 61, 169–190, 2002.
15. Khalid Khan, Akhter P, Orfi S. D, Malik G. M, Tufail M., Natural radioactivity levels in river, stream and drinking water of the northwestern areas of Pakistan. *Journal of Radioanalytical and Nuclear Chemistry*, 256, 289–292, 2003.
16. A. Abbady, M. H., Saied, A. H., EL-Kamel and A., EL-Arabi, Natural radioactivity of granite rocks in wadyqena., *Radiation. Physics. Chemistry*, 44, 95-98, 1994.
17. Hamby, D. M., Tynybekov, A. K.; “Uranium, thorium and potassium in soils along the shore of lake Issyk-Kyol in the Kyrgyz Republic”, *Environmental Monitoring and Assessment*, 73, 101–108 (2002).
18. Tzortzis, M., H. Tsertos, S. Christofides, G. hristodoulides; “Gamma radiation measurements and dose rates in commercially used natural tiling rocks (granites)”, *Journal of Environmental Egypt. J. Phys.* Vol. 48 (2020)

- Radioactivity* 70, 223–235 (2003).
19. Noorddin, I., Natural activities of U, Th and K in building materials. *J. Environ. Radioactivity*, 43, 255–258, 1999.
  20. UNSCEAR. Sources and effect of ionizing radiation. Unsear, 2008 Report to the General Assembly with Scientific Annexes, 2008.
  21. International Commission of Radiological Protection (ICRP). Compendium of Dose Coefficients based on ICRP publication 60. ICRP publication 119. Ann. ICRP. 2012;4(Suppl.).
  22. El-Arabi A. M., Ahmed N. K. and Salahel Din K., Natural Radionuclide and Dose estimation in Natural water Resources from ELBA Protective area, *Egypt Radiation Protection Dosimetry*, 121, 284-292, 2006.
  23. Soto J., Quindos L. S., and Dias-Caneja n., <sup>226</sup>Ra and <sup>222</sup>Rn in natural waters in two typical location in Spain. *Radiation Protection Dosimetry Journal*, 24, 109-111, 1988.
  24. Salonen L., 1994. U series radionuclides as a source of increased radioactivity in ground water originating from Finnish bedrock. *Proceedings of the Helsinki Conference*, 22, 71-84.
  25. Sgorbati G., and Forte M., 1997. Determination of <sup>238</sup>U and <sup>226</sup>Ra concentration in drinking water in Lombardia region, Italy Communication to UNSCEAR secretariat.
  26. Weihai Z., Takao I., and Xiaotang Y., Occurrence of Rn-222, Ra-226, Ra-228 and U in Groundwater in Fujian Province, China”, *Journal of Environmental Radioactivity*, 53, 111-120, 2001.
  27. Saqan, Kullab M. K., and Ismail A. M., Radionuclides in hot mineral spring waters in Jordan Radioactivity. *Journal of Environmental Radioactivity*, 52, 99-107, 2001.
  28. IsamSalih M. M., Pettersson. H., B., L., and Lund e., Measurement of natural radioactivity in marble found in Pakistan using a NaI(Tl) gamma-ray spectrometer. *Journal of Environmental Radioactivity*, 51, 255-265, 2002.
  29. Ahmed N. K., Natural radioactivity of ground and drinking water in some areas of upper Egypt. *Turkish Journal of Engineering and Environmental Science*, 28, 345-354, 2004.
  30. Kitto M. E., and Sook Kim M., Naturally occurring radionuclides in Community water supplies of New York stat. *Health Physics*; 88 (3): 253-60 2005..
  31. Godoy J. M., and Godoy M. L., Natural radioactivity in Brazilian ground water. *Journal of Environmental Radioactivity*, 85, 71-83, 2006.
  32. Jibiri NN., Chijioke MN., George OA., Radionuclide contents and physicochemical water quality indicators in stream, well and borehole water sources in high radiation area of Abeokuta, Southwestern Nigeria. *Journal of Water Resources and Protection*. 2:291– 297, 2010.

تعتبر الدراسة الحالية واحدة من العديد من الدراسات التي تم إجرائها على مناطق تعدين خامات الفوسفات في مصر وغيرها من دول العلم وذلك لتقدير المخاطر الإشعاعية الناتجة من تعدين خامات الفوسفات نظراً لاحتوائها على تركيزات عالية من عنصر اليورانيوم المشع. حيث تم جمع عدد من عينات المياه من مصادر مختلفة (مياه جوفية، مياه النيل، مياه الترغ ومياه الحنفية) والتي يتم تناولها في البيئة المحيطة بمنطقة تعدين خام الفوسفات في منطقة المحاميد أدفو أسوان. حيث تم تقدير تركيز النويدات المشعة طبيعياً (الراديووم-22، الثوريوم-232 والبوتاسيوم-04) لهذه العينات وذلك باستخدام مطياف يوديد الصوديوم وتم حساب الجرعة السنوية الناتجة من تناول المياه من المصادر المختلفة والمخاطر الإشعاعية الناتجة لعدد من الفئات العمرية المختلفة (الرضع أقل من عام، الأطفال أقل من عشرة أعوام والشباب) وذلك طبقاً للمعايير العيارية المحددة لمنظمة الصحة العالمية.