ORIGINAL PAPER



# Bioaccumulation of arsenic and fluoride in vegetables from growing media: health risk assessment among different age groups

Tasneem G. Kazi · Kapil D. Brahman · Jameel A. Baig · Hassan I. Afridi

Received: 18 May 2018 / Accepted: 21 October 2018 / Published online: 3 November 2018 © Springer Nature B.V. 2018

Abstract The current study was conducted to evaluate the arsenic (As) and fluoride  $(F^-)$  concentrations in growing media (stored rainwater and soil), of district Tharparkar, Pakistan. The bioaccumulation/transportation of As and F from growing media to different types of vegetables (wild cucumis, Indian squish and cluster bean) was evaluated. Total concentrations of As and  $F^-$  in stored rainwater samples were observed up to 585  $\mu$ g/L and 32.4 mg/L, respectively, exceeding many folds higher than WHO provisional guideline values. The As and  $F^-$  contents in soil samples of nine agricultural sites were found in the range of 121–254 mg/kg and 115–478 mg/kg, respectively. The highest contents of As and  $F^-$  were observed in wild cucumis as compared to Indian squish and cluster bean ( $p < 0.05$ ), grown in the same agricultural field. The bioaccumulation factors of As and  $F^-$  were to be  $> 4.00$ , indicating the high rate of transportation of As and  $F^-$  from growing media to vegetables. A significant positive correlation of As and  $F$ <sup>-</sup> in vegetables with their concentrations in soil and water was observed ( $r > 0.60$  with  $p < 0.05$ ). The risk assessment elucidated that the population of different age group consuming local vegetables and drinking

T. G. Kazi (⊠) · K. D. Brahman · J. A. Baig · H. I. Afridi

National Centre of Excellence in Analytical Chemistry, University of Sindh, Jamshoro, Sindh 76080, Pakistan e-mail: tgkazi096@gmail.com

water contaminated with As and  $F^-$  may have adverse health effects.

Keywords Arsenic · Fluoride · Water · Soil · Vegetable - Bioaccumulation - Estimated daily intake

## Introduction

The high concentrations of arsenic (As) and fluoride  $(F^-)$  in the soil, water and biota can be created health risks to human and animals (Martínez-Acuña et al. [2016\)](#page-10-0). Uptake of different elements by plants depends on their levels in growing media (soil and irrigation water) and the nature of plant species (Kazi et al. [2009\)](#page-10-0). It was reported that As-contaminated water used for agricultural purposes adversely influences the yield of crop, height and growth of the plant (Abedin et al. [2002](#page-9-0)).

Arsenic even at low concentration has adverse impacts on the skin and other physiological disorders in human (Tsuji et al. [2014\)](#page-11-0). Arsenic is a potent carcinogen and also created problems in the normal functioning of cardiovascular and nervous systems (Kurzius-Spencer et al. [2016](#page-10-0)). High levels of As in groundwater ( $> 10 \mu$ g/L) and soils ( $> 5 \mu$ g/kg) have been reported in various parts of the world, including Argentina, Chile, Bangladesh, China, Hungary, Mexico, Taiwan, Vietnam and Africa (Bhattacharya et al. [2006;](#page-9-0) Ferreccio and Sancha [2006;](#page-10-0) Milton et al. [2005;](#page-10-0) Guo et al. [2006](#page-10-0); Börzsönyi et al. [1992](#page-9-0); Carrillo-Rivera et al. [2002a,](#page-9-0) [b](#page-9-0); Yang et al. [2003;](#page-11-0) Berg et al. [2007](#page-9-0)).

Fluoride  $(F^-)$  is an essential element for the population of every age, to make stronger teeth and skeletal tissues (Das et al. [2016](#page-10-0)), whereas excessive consumption of  $F^-$  causes different physiological problems, such as renal and neurological disorder, myopathy, especially dental and skeletal fluorosis (Ayoob and Gupta [2006](#page-9-0)). The prevalence of fluorosis is common in different parts of the world, such as in Mexico (Carrillo-Rivera et al. [2002a](#page-9-0), [b\)](#page-9-0), China (Guo and Wang [2005](#page-10-0)) and India (Das et al. [2016\)](#page-10-0) and Africa (Fantong et al. [2010,](#page-10-0) [2013](#page-10-0)). The elevated concentrations of  $F^-$  in groundwater are found especially in those regions where geologically enriched fluorine-bearing minerals are present (Naseem et al. [2010](#page-11-0); Fantong et al. [2010;](#page-10-0) Brahman et al. [2013a](#page-9-0)). The sources of fluoride in natural waters are fluoridebearing minerals such as fluorite, fluorapatite, cryolite and apophyllite (Rafique et al. [2009\)](#page-11-0)). Geochemically, fluoride has the same charge and nearly the same radius as hydroxide ions, thereby facilitating the replacement of each other, e.g., in the ferromagnesium silicates and clay minerals (Dey et al. [2012\)](#page-10-0). The different weather conditions erode the rocks, result in discharging of fluoride from minerals, which are the main causes of high  $F^-$  levels in groundwater (Shah and Danishwar [2003;](#page-11-0) González-Horta et al. [2015\)](#page-10-0).

A number of investigations indicated that  $F^-$  can be frequently accumulated in plants (Ruan et al. [2004](#page-11-0); Gao et al. [2014\)](#page-10-0). Ruan et al. [\(2004](#page-11-0)) studied that the uptake of  $F^-$  by different plants especially in tea was considerably higher at low pH of soil (pH 5.5). It was further reported that to enhance the pH of soil up to the neutral ( $\geq 6.55$ ), generally by liming, consequently reduces the  $F^-$  accumulation in tea plant. (Ruan et al. [2004;](#page-11-0) Gao et al. [2014\)](#page-10-0). The high uptake of  $F^-$  by different plants indicates a noticeable injury of leave and fruits, whereas the yields of crops were also altered (Ando et al. [1998\)](#page-9-0). Uptake of  $F^-$  via roots of different vegetations is mostly depended on its concentration in the agricultural system (Yadav et al. [2012\)](#page-11-0). The accumulation of  $F^-$  in human body might be owing to its elevated concentrations in both drinking water and food crops, cultivated with contaminated irrigation water (Poureslami et al. [2008;](#page-11-0) Khan et al. [2015](#page-10-0); Yadav et al. [2017](#page-11-0)).

The concentration of dissolved arsenic (As) and fluoride  $(F^-)$  in natural water depends on the geological and geochemical composition of natural sources (Bhattacharya et al. [2006;](#page-9-0) Bundschuh et al. [2004;](#page-9-0) Gómez et al. [2009](#page-10-0)). Arsenic distribution is also affected by anthropogenic activities, such as mining coal-fired combustion, use of agricultural herbicides, pesticides and medicinal products (Orloff et al. [2009](#page-11-0)), but the major source of As, in general, is chemical weathering of rocks (Bhattacharya et al. [2007](#page-9-0)).

The serious adverse health effects due to contaminated water and food crops with As and  $F^-$  were reported in Argentina (Bustingorri and Lavado [2014](#page-9-0)), Inner Mongolia (Smedley and Kinniburgh [2002](#page-11-0)), Southern China (Finkelman et al. [2002\)](#page-10-0) and Pakistan (Farooqi et al. [2007;](#page-10-0) Brahman et al. [2013a](#page-9-0)). Different areas of Pakistan are facing As-related severe public health crises like neighboring country (Patel et al. [2005;](#page-11-0) Yadav et al. [2012](#page-11-0)). In various parts of Pakistan, the surface and groundwater are highly contaminated with As and are not suitable for consumption (Shrestha [2002;](#page-11-0) Farooqi et al. [2007](#page-10-0); Brahman et al. [2013a](#page-9-0), [b\)](#page-9-0). It was reported that drinking water of Thar Desert, Pakistan, has very high levels of As and  $F^-$  (Rafique et al. [2008;](#page-11-0) Naseem et al. [2010;](#page-11-0) Brahman et al. [2013a](#page-9-0)). The Pakistan Council of Research in Water Resources and UNICEF pointed out that groundwater of different parts of Punjab province, Pakistan, is contaminated with As up to 200  $\mu$ g/L (Tahir [2000](#page-11-0); Nickson et al. [2005;](#page-11-0) Farooqi et al. [2007\)](#page-10-0), whereas in Sindh province 16–36%, population have been adversely effected by the consumption of As and  $F^-$  contaminated water (Baig et al. [2009](#page-9-0); Brahman et al. [2013a](#page-9-0)). Therefore, it is necessary to evaluate the As and  $F^-$  in water used for drinking and irrigation purpose in contaminated endemic areas (Lu et al. [2000;](#page-10-0) Brahman et al. [2014\)](#page-9-0).

The main route of exposure for both elements was considered as ingestion of food commodities (Bustin-gorri and Lavado [2014](#page-9-0)). Concentrations of As and  $F^$ especially in drinking water were selected to estimate the possible health risk including average daily dose and hazard quotient (Jha et al. [2013](#page-10-0)). The adverse impacts of high intake of  $F^-$ , especially in children suffered from the weakened immune system and decline the intellectual quotient (Lu et al. [2000](#page-10-0)). Whereas, the chronic exposure to As can create the different intensity of arsenicosis (WHO [2008](#page-11-0)).

The objective of present study was to evaluate the As and  $F^-$  concentrations in surface water (stored rain water), soil (total and extractable) and vegetables grown on agricultural lands of sub-district





Nagarparkar (Tharparkar, Pakistan). The translocation capability of As and  $F^-$  from the growing media to the edible part of vegetables termed as bioaccumulation factor (BAF) was calculated. Moreover, the correlation of As and  $F^-$  in vegetables (locally grown) with their concentration in soil and water was also calculated. In addition, estimated daily intake (EDI) and hazardous index values of As and  $F^-$  in the population of three age groups  $(7-15, 16-25, 16-25)$  years).

## Materials and methods

#### Study area

The Thar Desert is located in the Tharparkar district, southeastern part of Sindh, Pakistan, which is administratively divided into four sub-districts (Fig. 1). Nagarparkar sub-district is situated in the southeast extremity of the Thar Desert and lie in between latitude  $24^{\circ}21.734' - 24^{\circ}36.952'$ N and longitude 70°39.490'-70°45.192'E (Brahman et al. [2013b](#page-9-0)). The Tharparkar region especially selected area (Nagarparkar) is rich in mineral resources like granite, coal, kaolin and other salts which might increase the release of elements and enhance the salinity of groundwater, or stored rainwater (Rafique et al. [2008;](#page-11-0) Naseem et al. [2010;](#page-11-0) Brahman et al. [2013b](#page-9-0)). During the storage of rainwater in ponds for a long period, there is a chance of leaching of mineral constituents in soil. The population of the study area consumes groundwater and stored rainwater for drinking and agriculture purposes (Brahman et al. [2014;](#page-9-0) Rafique et al. [2008](#page-11-0)). The Kharif crops are the main agricultural products of Thar region, which grow before monsoon season (June and July). The vegetables include Indian squash (Praecitrullus fistulosus), wild cucumis (*Cucumis pubescens*) and cluster beans (Cyamopsis tetragonoloba).

#### Sampling and pretreatment

### Water sampling and analysis

The surface water (stored rain water) was collected from nine locations ( $n = 10$  of each) of Tharparkar (N-1 to N-9, as shown in Fig. 1). The pH and conductance of surface water were measured at sampling sites. The water samples were placed in an insulated ice cooler and transported on the same day to laboratory. The collected surface water was filtered using membrane filter  $(0.45 \mu m)$  and made two subsamples of each.  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$  (0.2% v/v) was added to one subsample and was kept for the determination of total As concentrations, whereas other portion was used for  $F^-$  determination. All water samples were reserved in previously cleaned bottles with  $10\%$  HNO<sub>3</sub> and then rinsed thoroughly with ultrapure water.

For the determination of total As in surface water, the samples were diluted 25–50 times with deionized water and analyzed by atomic absorption spectrometer (Perkin Elmer, Norwalk, CT, USA) with a background correction coupled with hydride generation system (HGAAS) and detail was given in our earlier works (Brahman et al. [2013a](#page-9-0), [2014\)](#page-9-0). The concentration of  $F^$ was determined in surface water samples by an ion selective electrode using ion meter (Metrohm, Herisau, Switzerland). The TISAB buffer was added in the ratio of 1:1 to the standard and sample solutions to achieve sufficient ion energy and optimal pH to the proper functioning of the electrode. TISAB buffer contains  $1 \text{ mol/L}$  NaCl,  $0.001 \text{ mol/L}$  NaNO<sub>3</sub>,  $0.25$  mol/L CH<sub>3</sub>COOH,  $0.75$  mol/L CH<sub>3</sub>COONa, and ionic strength 1.75 mol/L. The concentration of  $F^-$  based on the measurement of the voltage is obtained from the standard curve (Brahman et al. [2013a](#page-9-0), [b](#page-9-0)).

#### Total As in soil and vegetables

Vegetable and adjoining agricultural soil (0–25 cm) were simultaneously collected from nine agricultural sites ( $n = 10$  of each site). The collected soil samples were transferred to the laboratory on same days and air-dried at room temperature for 8 days in a fume cupboard. The soil was removed from the vegetable and thoroughly washed with distilled water, then again washed three times with ultrapure water. The separated edible parts of vegetable were air-dried for 48–72 h at 60 $\degree$ C in an electric oven, to avoid effects on volatile characteristics of organo-arsenical compounds. The dried vegetables and soil samples were ground in an agate mortar to homogenize and sieve from nylon sieve with mesh size  $\lt$  100  $\mu$ m. Then, all samples were kept in labeled polypropylene containers at ambient temperature till further analysis.

To determine the pH of the soil, added deionized water to the soil at a ratio of 1:2.5, and shaking at 24 rpm in an electric shaker for 12 h then filtered and determined the pH using 781-pH meter, Metrohm (Jamali et al. [2008;](#page-10-0) Baig et al. [2009](#page-9-0)). Total As contents in soil and vegetables samples were measured after decomposition of organic matrices in a microwave oven (Baig et al. [2011\)](#page-9-0).

Weighed 0.1 g of each soil and 0.2 g of dried vegetables (duplicate of each) in PTFE flasks, separately. Then,  $3 \text{ mL of an acid mixture (HCl/HNO<sub>3</sub>)}$  $(3:1)$  and  $H_2O_2/HNO_3$  (1:2) was added in soil and vegetable samples, respectively. The flasks were placed in a PTFE container separately (for both samples) then heated following a one-stage digestion programme (80% of total power 900 W), 5 min for soil and 3 min for vegetables. After cooling, the extra acid has been evaporated to obtain a semidried mass. The contents of flasks were dissolved in 0.1 mol/L of  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$  (10 mL), and filtered, further added ultrapure water and made volume up to 25 mL in volumetric flasks. The blank were prepared (devoid of standards and samples) following the same procedure of the samples and analyzed by HGAAS and detail is mentioned in our previous work (Brahman et al. [2013a](#page-9-0); Baig et al. [2009](#page-9-0)).

#### Total fluoride contents in soil and vegetable samples

Weighed 1.0 g of composite soil and vegetable samples of each site  $(n = 3$  of each) in covered ceramic crucibles, after that treated with 5 mL of 5 mol/L of NaOH solutions, and heated on a electric hot plate (150 °C). The slurries were heated to semidried mass; then, again one pellet of NaOH was added. After that, the samples were placed in an electric furnace (560 °C) for 2 h, afterward kept at room temperature to cool the contents of crucibles, then added ultrapure water and subjected to heating on a temperaturecontrolled electric hot plate (100 $\degree$ C) to dissolve the fusion cake. The pH of sample solutions was adjusted at 5.5, with a buffer solution prior to determination of  $F^-$  using an ion selective electrode.

## Water-soluble As and  $F^-$  contents in soil

Triplicate of each composite soil samples (2.0 g) was weighed into the conical flasks and added 20 mL of deionized water. The contents of flasks were shaken for one hour at 120 rpm, then allowed to stand for 3 h, then filtered through a Whatman 42 filter paper. Then, As and  $F^-$  were determined as given above (Baig et al. [2011;](#page-9-0) Brahman et al. [2014\)](#page-9-0).

#### Nutritional survey

A nutritional survey was conducted among five households resided in nine sites/villages (N1–N9), based on the type of food and drinking water. The food habits, consuming different vegetables such as Indian squash (IS), wild cucumis (WC) and cluster beans (CB) by three different age groups, adolescents  $(7-15 \text{ years})$ , adults of two age groups  $(16-25 \text{ years})$ and (25–50 years) with body weights 25, 50 and 60 kg, respectively, were assessed. The assessment was based on a survey, whereas biomedical research is not involved to administer medicine, injection or chemicals to human subjects, to evaluate the adverse health effects. All parameters including intake of different vegetables and drinking water by selected population in study areas were calculated as average values. However, the obtained facts may vary due to different socioeconomic conditions of the study population.

## Estimation of daily intake

The risk assessment for human health was quantitatively estimated by evaluating the As and  $F^-$  exposure doses, owing to utilization of drinking water and vegetables (locally grown). The estimated daily intake (EDI) of both elements was determined as reported elsewhere (Jha et al. [2011\)](#page-10-0).

The EDI was calculated as:

$$
EDI = [(C \times IR \times EF \times ED \times AF \times CF)]/(BW \times AT)
$$

where EDI is the estimated daily intake (mg/kg/day), 'C' the concentration of  $\text{As/F}^-$  in vegetables (mg/kg) and drinking water (mg/L or  $\mu$ g/L), 'IR' the ingestion or intake rate for vegetables (g/day) and drinking water (L/day), exposure frequency (EF) denoted as d  $year<sup>-1</sup>$ , the exposure duration in year (ED), the absorption factor (AF) is unit less, conversion factor denoted as CF (in the case of vegetable  $10^{-6}$  mg/kg), body weight (BW) in kg and average time in days (AT). The absorption factor was selected as 75%, and the average body weights of study population were divided into age groups (7–15 years), (16–25 years) and (26–50 years) corresponding to 25, 50 and 60 kg, respectively. The quantity of drinking water was consumed, and body weight was assessed, based on survey data. The drinking water container/glass commonly had the same size (250 mL) and style. It was assumed that consuming locally grown vegetable in addition to drinking stored rainwater would enhance the EDI of both elements  $(As/F^-)$ , which can create adverse effects on health. The cumulative EDI was also estimated in the study area as:

 $EDI_{Cumulative} = EDI_{vegetable} + EDI_{drinking water}$ 

The health risk is assessed owing to exposure dose of both As and  $F^-$  in study population of different age groups as hazard index (HI), that is characterized as the ratio of cumulative EDI to the reference dose  $(R_fD)$ , corresponds to entire As/F<sup>-</sup> exposure risk:

## $HI = EDI_{Cumulative}/R_fD$

RfD is the reference dosage (reference value for oral toxicity).  $R_fD$  values for  $F^-$  and As are 0.06 and 3.04E-04 mg/kg/day, respectively.

#### Quality control

The calibration curve of working standards solutions of As prepared from certified stock standard (1000 mg/L), from the quantification limit up to 100 lg/L by successive dilution. The calibration curves based on peak area measurements of standards and calculated by equation ( $n = 5$ ), using HGAAS as given below:

$$
Y = (0.188 \pm 0:0084)[As] + (4.6 \times 10^{-3} \pm 0.0001)
$$

where Y is integrated absorbance and [As] is the As concentration in lg/L. The limit of detection (LOD) stated as  $3 \times s/m$ , where 's' being the standard deviation related to 10 injections of a blank solution and 'm' the slope of the calibration curve. The quantification limit (LOQ) defined as  $10 \times s/m$ . The LOD and LOQ were found at  $0.126$  and  $0.421$  µg/L of As, respectively. The calibration graph for  $F^-$  was obtained by ion selective electrode in the dynamic range of 1.0–10.0 mg/L; obtained slope value 'm' was 60.3. The LOD and LOQ of  $F^-$  were calculated as 0.006 and 0.020 mg/L, respectively.

## Result and discussion

Fluoride and arsenic in surface water

The resulted data of stored rainwater termed as surface water of nine sampling sites, during July to September in 2011–2013. The pH of collected surface water samples was observed in the range of 7.53–8.65, which is within the WHO recommended values  $(6.5–8.5)$  for drinking water. As and  $F^-$  concentrations in surface water samples were found from 345 to 585 µg/L and 18.8 to 32.4 mg/L, respectively (Table [1](#page-5-0)). These concentrations were 34–58 and

<span id="page-5-0"></span>12.5–22.6 fold higher than the WHO recommended limits for As and  $F^-$  for drinking water, respectively. The mean values of As and  $F^-$  in studied surface water samples were higher than reported in the literature for other areas (Mukherjee et al. [2005\)](#page-10-0). The intake of Ascontaminated drinking water in high range for a few years is vulnerable to multiple health hazards (Yoshida et al. [2004\)](#page-11-0). The positive correlation  $(r = 0.640 - 0.671)$  was observed among total As with F-in water samples collected from nine sites of selected study areas, which supports the hypothesis of a common source which is consisted with other studies (Buchhamer et al. [2012;](#page-9-0) Gómez et al. [2009\)](#page-10-0).

It was reported in the literature that the concentration of  $F^-$  higher than allowable limit in drinking water (1.5 mg/L) can create the risk of dental fluorosis in persons of all age groups, whereas the skeletal fluorosis in elders is also occurred (Ruan et al. [2004](#page-11-0)). Fluorosis creates damage to the structure and functions of the non-skeletal systems, such as liver and kidney (Farooqi et al. [2007](#page-10-0); Xiong et al. [2007](#page-11-0)). The serious adverse impact of As and F on health of living beings, especially in Southern China (Finkelman et al. [2002;](#page-10-0) Zheng et al. [1996\)](#page-11-0) and Inner Mongolia (Wang et al. [1999](#page-11-0); Smedley and Kinniburgh [2002](#page-11-0)), might be due to coal mining and combustion.

#### Total and extractable arsenic and fluoride in soil

The pH values of soil samples were obtained from 7.65 to 8.83. The mean values of arsenic and fluoride concentrations in soil samples (composite) of nine different areas were detected from 121 to 254 mg/kg and 115 to 478 mg/kg, respectively (Table [2](#page-6-0)). The tolerable/permissible limit for As in soils of different countries was 0.10–40.0 mg/kg. A risk assessment predicted that up to 4.0 mg/kg of As contents in the soil could not create hazardous effects to living beings. Thus, US EPA set a recommended value of 2–5 mg/kg for As in soil (Smedley and Kinniburgh [2002\)](#page-11-0). The soil samples irrigated with surface water at different agricultural lands of Nagarparkar significantly  $(p = 0.001)$  exceeded the recommended values of As in soil (Table [2](#page-6-0)).

The bioavailable or water-soluble contents of As in soil provided information regarding the possible threat to all living beings. The available contents of (water soluble/extractable) As and  $F^-$  in soil were correspondingly observed in the range of 3.78–8.23 and 3.86–17.2 mg/kg, respectively. The total and water extractable As in soil is calculated on the dried weight basis as indicated in Table [2.](#page-6-0) Most of the  $F^-$  in soil is fixed or in combined form, as a result, it is not generally assimilated by plants. The capability of plant to absorb As and  $F^-$  from the soil also depends on the plant species in addition to their accessible forms, e.g., water extractable (WHO [2008\)](#page-11-0). It investigated about the extraction methods for evaluating the available fraction of elements in growing media to translocate in plants (Smedley and Kinniburgh [2002](#page-11-0)). The determination of bioavailable/water extractable elements in soil is used to evaluate the deficiency or toxicity of elements to crops and their consumers (Tsuji et al. [2014\)](#page-11-0).

### Total As and  $F^-$  in vegetables

The As and  $F^-$  concentrations in selected vegetables (IS, WC and CB) are determined and presented in Table [3](#page-6-0). The concentration of As and  $F^-$  in IS, WC and CB was found in the range of (4.54–11.6, 10.1–12.9 and 6.33–11.6) and (85.3–113.2, 158–186 and 61.4–68.6) mg/kg, respectively. The minimum concentration of As and  $F^-$  in selected vegetables was observed at sites N-1, while both elements are highly accumulated in those vegetables grown at N-9 and N-7. The contents of As and  $F^-$  were elevated in WC as compared to those values observed for IS and CB, although they were grown in the same agricultural sites (Table [3](#page-6-0)). The values of As were found to be higher in selected vegetables than in literature-re-ported values (Martínez-Acuña et al. [2016](#page-10-0)), whereas lower than those vegetables (20.9–21.2 mg/kg) grown

Table 1 pH, total arsenic and fluoride in surface water samples of Nagarparkar, Sindh, Pakistan

Sample I.D. pH		As $(\mu g/L)$	$F^{-}(mg/L)$	
$N-1$	$7.53 \pm 0.24$	$345 \pm 10.2$	$18.8 \pm 1.12$	
$N-2$	$8.43 \pm 0.35$	$504 \pm 16.4$	$26.8 \pm 1.45$	
$N-3$	$8.18 \pm 0.42$	$398 \pm 9.8$	$23.6 \pm 1.34$	
$N-4$	$8.24 \pm 0.45$	$421 \pm 12.4$	$25.4 \pm 1.82$	
$N-5$	$7.87 \pm 0.38$	$362 \pm 6.68$	$19.8 \pm 1.42$	
$N-6$	$8.72 \pm 0.43$	$552 \pm 16.4$	$30.5 \pm 1.42$	
$N-7$	$8.38 \pm 0.37$	$412 \pm 13.2$	$22.6 \pm 1.75$	
$N-8$	$7.84 \pm 0.37$	$392 \pm 13.4$	$20.1 \pm 1.85$	
$N-9$	$8.65 \pm 0.44$	$585 \pm 11.6$	$32.4 \pm 1.27$	

<span id="page-6-0"></span>Table 2 pH, As, water extractable As, total  $F^-$  and water extractable  $F^-$  in soil of Nagarparkar, Sindh, Pakistan (mg/kg)



in arsenic affected areas of Murshidabad district, West Bengal (Roychowdhury et al. [2003\)](#page-11-0). The resulted data indicated that the accumulation of As and  $F^-$  in plants depends on the their levels in soil and irrigated water, consisting with those findings reported elsewhere (Bae et al. [2002;](#page-9-0) Duxbury et al. [2003;](#page-10-0) Khandare and Rao  $2006$ ; Okibe et al.  $2010$ ; Baig et al.  $2011$ ; Martinez-Acuña et al. [2016](#page-10-0)). The contents of As in vegetables grown on agricultural soil were significantly correlated with its total and water extractable amount in the soil and irrigated water  $(r = 0.700 - 0.996)$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ). The F<sup>-</sup> concentrations in IS, WC and CB have positively correlated with total  $F^-$  in water  $(r = 0.613 - 0.884; p < 0.05)$ , whereas its water extractable contents in agricultural soil were not significantly correlated  $(r = 0.256 - 0.372; p > 0.05)$ with those values of  $F^-$  obtained for IS, WC and CB.

**Table 3** As and  $F^-$  in local vegetables grown in different agriculture plots (mean  $\pm$  standard deviation) and bioaccumulation factor (BAF)

Elements	Sample I.D.	$IS^*$	BAF $(\%)$	$WC**$	BAF $(\%)$	$CB***$	BAF $(\%)$
As	$N-1$	$4.54 \pm 0.40$	4.12	$10.1 \pm 0.32$	9.18	$6.33 \pm 0.26$	5.76
	$N-2$	$8.04 \pm 0.54$	4.40	$11.2 \pm 0.45$	6.13	$8.06 \pm 0.54$	4.40
	$N-3$	$8.91 \pm 0.62$	4.50	$11.4 \pm 0.41$	5.76	$8.97 \pm 0.67$	4.53
	$N-4$	$10.4 \pm 0.57$	5.22	$11.9 \pm 0.47$	5.94	$9.44 \pm 0.42$	4.72
	$N-5$	$6.17 \pm 0.49$	4.03	$10.8 \pm 0.38$	7.08	$7.45 \pm 0.56$	4.87
	$N-6$	$10.6 \pm 0.49$	5.31	$12.0 \pm 0.52$	6.00	$9.84 \pm 0.44$	4.92
	$N-7$	$10.8 \pm 0.38$	5.25	$12.2 \pm 0.57$	5.95	$10.0 \pm 0.48$	4.89
	$N-8$	$7.93 \pm 0.25$	4.66	$11.1 \pm 0.47$	6.56	$7.67 \pm 0.35$	4.51
	$N-9$	$11.6 \pm 0.45$	4.36	$12.9 \pm 0.51$	4.84	$11.6 \pm 0.41$	4.37
$\mathbf{F}$ $N-1$ $N-2$ $N-3$ $N-4$ $N-5$ $N-6$ $N-7$ $N-8$ $N-9$		$85.3 \pm 3.47$	68.2	$158 \pm 6.48$	126.5	$61.4 \pm 2.21$	49.1
		$104 \pm 4.75$	37.6	$178 \pm 7.65$	64.0	$67.0 \pm 3.16$	24.1
		$98.4 \pm 4.42$	44.3	$177 \pm 8.52$	79.7	$64.2 \pm 2.08$	28.9
		$96.6 \pm 3.68$	56.2	$176 \pm 8.81$	102.4	$63.0 \pm 3.99$	36.6
		$95.9 \pm 5.93$	63.1	$173 \pm 6.93$	114.0	$62.0 \pm 2.84$	40.8
		$103 \pm 6.29$	41.1	$177 \pm 7.22$	70.7	$66.7 \pm 4.19$	26.6
		$113 \pm 6.87$	20.0	$186 \pm 6.98$	32.9	$68.5 \pm 3.37$	12.1
		$92.7 \pm 4.11$	68.6	$161 \pm 5.83$	119.6	$61.7 \pm 3.62$	45.7
		$106 \pm 6.16$	21.1	$180 \pm 5.66$	35.9	$67.7 \pm 4.25$	13.5

\*Indian squish, \*\*wild cucumis, \*\*\*cluster bean

# Bioaccumulation and correlation of As and F among vegetables and growing media

The bioaccumulation factor (BAF) of As ranged from 4.03 to 5.13, 4.84 to 9.18 and 4.37 to 5.76 for IS, WC and CB, respectively. The WC sample of N-1 showed high BAF (9.18), and the minimum value (4.03) was predicted in IS sample of site N-5 (Table [3\)](#page-6-0). The estimated BAF of As is higher than 4.00 in all samples of IS, WC and CB. The resulted data also indicated significant higher BAF values of  $F^-$  in WC samples of all sites as shown in Table [3.](#page-6-0) The minimum value of BAF of  $F^-$  was observed in a CB sample of N-7 (12.1). However, the BAF values of  $F^-$  were significantly higher in all vegetables ( $p < 0.05$ ). It was observed that the BAF gradually declined with the increase in As and  $F^-$  concentrations in the media, which may imply the restriction in soil–root transfer at higher concentrations of them, these findings consisted with reported data in the literature (Tsuji et al. [2014](#page-11-0); Yadav et al. [2012](#page-11-0); Baig and Kazi [2012](#page-9-0)). On the other hand, it was observed that BAF values for specific crops are not all the time regular, whereas it affected the different parameters of soil such as pH, organic matter, clay content, total and bioavailable contents of elements as well as botanical factors, type of plant, species and growth rate (Tsuji et al. [2014\)](#page-11-0). The possibility of the presence of organic or tightly bound As and  $F^-$  in food materials remains to be verified (Bustingorri and Lavado [2014](#page-9-0)).

Estimated daily intake of vegetables and drinking water

The survey among the study groups of three age groups (7–15 years), (16–25 years) and (26–50 years), for the nutritional status was carried out. The mean intake of all three vegetables (IS, WC and CB) for the age group of 7–15 was 9.70, 4.74 and 3.28 g/day, respectively, while in the age groups 16–25 and 26–50 years, it was calculated as 19.4, 9.48 and 6.57 g/day, respectively. The mean intake of drinking water in age group 7–15 years was 1.5 L/day and for the elder groups (16–25 and 26–50 years) are  $> 2.5$  L/day, which may be due to the hot weather in understudied area. There was a large difference in the diet pattern to use different vegetables and drinking water among the selected population.

The major cause of arsenicosis and fluorosis is believed so far to be the ingestion of As and F enriched water resources, whereas food item grown in contaminated growing media enhanced the intake of both elements (Das et al. [2004\)](#page-10-0). Therefore, the estimated daily intake (EDI) of As and  $F^-$  through vegetables and drinking water was calculated to assess the exposure of both elements in different age groups. The mean concentration of As and  $F^-$  in vegetables and drinking water was used to calculate EDI. All parameters used for the calculation of individual and cumulative EDI of vegetables and drinking water in three age groups are given in Table [4.](#page-8-0)

The individual EDI of IS, WC, CB and drinking water indicated that the age group (7–15 years) had high level of EDI as compared to other age groups. The individual EDI of vegetables according to age group decreased in the approximate order as: 7–15 years  $< 16$ –25 years  $< 26$ –50 years. The cumulative EDI values of As were 0.045, 0.0405 and 0.0337 while for  $F^-$  1.706, 1.457 and 1.215 mg/kg/day for the age group 7–15, 16–25 and 26–50 years, respectively. The cumulative EDI values of As and  $F^-$  in age group 7–15 years were found to be higher as compared to the other age groups ( $p \le 0.05$ ); this might be due to low body weights compared to higher age groups (Table [4](#page-8-0)).

## Toxic risk assessment

The risk assessment was evaluated as hazard index (HI), for three age groups resided in different places as shown in Table [4.](#page-8-0) It was found that HI of As and  $F^-$  in the case of age group (7–15 years) was 148 and 28.4, respectively. Since these findings, the rural population in the study area consuming studied vegetables, IS, WC, and CB in addition to drinking water were at the risk of severe toxicity of As and  $F^-$ , because HI values found to be  $>1$  (Sofuoglu and Kavcar [2008](#page-11-0); Nguyen et al. [2009](#page-11-0)). The first cases of arsenicosis and fluorosis were already reported in 2002 at the study area (Tharparkar) (Brahman et al. [2013a;](#page-9-0) Rafique et al. [2008\)](#page-11-0).

To evaluate the risk of exposure via consumption of As- and  $F^-$ -contaminated drinking water on population based on three age groups creates confronts on their health. The different physiological disorders such as dental fluorosis and hyperkeratosis are based on the reference dose of fluoride and arsenic, although it is <span id="page-8-0"></span>Table 4 Pearson coefficient  $(r)$  and  $p$  value of As and  $F^-$  in growing media (soils and irrigation water) with As and  $F^-$  in vegetables



recognized that As and  $F^-$  also created different physiological effects on the central nervous system. Whereas for the adverse effects of both elements, their reference dose does not exist, especially in the children exposed to mixture of both elements via consuming ground and surface water (Martínez-Acuña et al. [2016](#page-10-0)). Exposure to  $F^-$  was calculated and compared with the adequate intake of minimal safe level exposure dose of 0.05 mg/kg/day, and it was noted that population of every age group may be at high risk of fluorosis. Chronic exposure to high As and  $F^-$  levels in this population represents a concern due to possible adverse health effects attributed to these elements. Recently it was reported that if drinking water has  $F^-$  level  $\lt 0.7$  mg/L, consumed for long time have lower risk for moderate or severe fluorosis, whereas above than 1.5 mg/L created more severe fluorosis (Irigoyen-Camacho et al. [2016\)](#page-10-0). The population of study area consumed As- and  $F^-$ -contaminated drinking water and other food items from early age such as during development (pregnancy) then infancy period to adolescence, and up to childhood, so the adverse effects associated with elevated exposure of As and  $F^-$  are increased (Rager et al. [2014](#page-11-0)). The

population of understudy areas has poor economic and mainly depends upon groundwater and locally grown vegetables. However, they have no adequate information on the nature of As and  $F^-$  in food materials. These circumstances lead to motivate the researchers and scientists to work on health risk associated with utilization of As-contaminated food and drinking water (Patel et al. [2005;](#page-11-0) Juhasz et al. [2006;](#page-10-0) Madeira et al.  $2012$ ). In addition to high levels of As and  $F^-$  in food and water other problems especially illiteracy, poverty, malnutrition, little medical facilities and existence of additional toxicant in food and drinking water, could have synergistic effects on the health of people. Our assumption is also consistent with other studies (Roychowdhury et al. [2003;](#page-11-0) Das et al. [2004](#page-10-0)).

## **Conclusion**

The survey about the contamination of surface water, soil and vegetables with As and  $F^-$  in a district Tharparkar, Pakistan, has been conducted to assess the adverse health effects to local population. The As and  $F^-$  in stored rainwater were significantly higher than

<span id="page-9-0"></span>WHO permissible limit of both elements for drinking water. The As and  $F^-$  levels in soil and vegetables were also found to be high than recommended values. The translocation of As and  $F^-$  was estimated by bioaccumulation factor. The BAF values of As and  $F^-$  were found to be  $> 4.00$ , indicating the high rate of transportation of As and  $F^-$  from growing media to vegetables. The hazardous index values was observed to be  $> 1.0$ , predicting that the rural population of Nagarparkar, Sindh, Pakistan, are exposed to severe chronic toxicity of As and F which adversely effects their health. The exposure doses of As and  $F^-$  obtained by the consumption of selected vegetables and drinking water were found to be elevated in lower age group (7–15 years) as compared to elder groups. It indicated that children may have high risk of arsenicosis and fluorosis. It is recommended to the local public health agencies and organizations of Pakistan to focus on exposure of As and  $F^-$  due to the consumption of the contaminated water and food.

Acknowledgements The authors are grateful for the financial support of the Higher Education commission (HEC), Islamabad, Pakistan (Pin # 2Ps1-182).

## References

- Abedin, M. J., Cresser, M. S., Meharg, A. A., Feldmann, J., & Cotter-Howells, J. (2002). Arsenic accumulation and metabolism in rice (Oryza sativa L.). Environmental Science and Technology, 36(5), 962–968.
- Ando, M., Tadano, M., Asanuma, S., Tamura, K., Matsushima, S., Watanabe, T., et al. (1998). Health effects of indoor fluoride pollution from coal burning in China. *Environ*mental Health Perspectives, 106(5), 239.
- Ayoob, S., & Gupta, A. K. (2006). Fluoride in drinking water: a review on the status and stress effects. Critical Reviews in Environmental Science and Technology, 36(6), 433–487.
- Bae, M., Watanabe, C., Inaoka, T., Sekiyama, M., Sudo, N., Bokul, M. H., et al. (2002). Arsenic in cooked rice in Bangladesh. The Lancet, 360(9348), 1839–1840.
- Baig, J. A., & Kazi, T. G. (2012). Translocation of arsenic contents in vegetables from growing media of contaminated areas. Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety, 75, 27–32.
- Baig, J. A., Kazi, T. G., Arain, M. B., Afridi, H. I., Kandhro, G. A., Sarfraz, R. A., et al. (2009). Evaluation of arsenic and other physico-chemical parameters of surface and ground water of Jamshoro, Pakistan. Journal of Hazardous Materials, 166(2–3), 662–669.
- Baig, J. A., Kazi, T. G., Shah, A. Q., Afridi, H. I., Kandhro, G. A., Khan, S., et al. (2011). Evaluation of arsenic levels in grain crops samples, irrigated by tube well and canal water. Food and Chemical Toxicology, 49(1), 265–270.
- Berg, M., Stengel, C., Trang, P. T. K., Hung Viet, P., Sampson, M. L., Leng, M., et al. (2007). Magnitude of arsenic pollution in the Mekong and Red River Deltas—Cambodia and Vietnam. Science of the Total Environment, 372(2), 413–425. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2006.09.010.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2006.09.010)
- Bhattacharya, P., Claesson, M., Bundschuh, J., Sracek, O., Fagerberg, J., Jacks, G., et al. (2006). Distribution and mobility of arsenic in the Rio Dulce alluvial aquifers in Santiago del Estero Province, Argentina. Science of the Total Environment, 358(1–3), 97–120.
- Bhattacharya, P., Welch, A. H., Stollenwerk, K. G., McLaughlin, M., Bundschuh, J., & Panaullah, G. (2007). Arsenic in the environment: Biology and chemistry. Science of the Total Environment, 379, 109–120.
- Börzsönyi, M., Bereczky, A., Rudnai, P., Csanady, M., & Horvath, A. (1992). Epidemiological studies on human subjects exposed to arsenic in drinking water in Southeast Hungary. Archives of Toxicology, 66(1), 77–78. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1007/bf02307274) [org/10.1007/bf02307274](https://doi.org/10.1007/bf02307274).
- Brahman, K. D., Kazi, T. G., Afridi, H. I., Naseem, S., Arain, S. S., & Ullah, N. (2013a). Evaluation of high levels of fluoride, arsenic species and other physicochemical parameters in underground water of two sub districts of Tharparkar, Pakistan: A multivariate study. Water Research, 47(3), 1005–1020.
- Brahman, K. D., Kazi, T. G., Afridi, H. I., Naseem, S., Arain, S. S., Wadhwa, S. K., et al. (2013b). Simultaneously evaluate the toxic levels of fluoride and arsenic species in underground water of Tharparkar and possible contaminant sources: A multivariate study. Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety, 89, 95–107.
- Brahman, K. D., Kazi, T. G., Afridi, H. I., Rafique, T., Baig, J. A., Arain, S. S., et al. (2014). Evaluation of fresh and stored rainwater quality in fluoride and arsenic endemic area of Thar Desert, Pakistan. Environmental Monitoring and Assessment, 186(12), 8611–8628.
- Buchhamer, E. E., Blanes, P. S., Osicka, R. M., & Giménez, M. C. (2012). Environmental risk assessment of arsenic and fluoride in the Chaco Province, Argentina. Journal of Toxicology and Environmental Health, Part A, 75, 1437–1450.
- Bundschuh, J., et al. (2004). Groundwater arsenic in the Chaco-Pampean plain, Argentina: case study from Robles county, Santiago del Estero province. Applied Geochemistry, 19(2), 231–243.
- Bustingorri, C., & Lavado, R. S. (2014). Soybean as affected by high concentrations of arsenic and fluoride in irrigation water in controlled conditions. Agricultural Water Management, 144, 134–139.
- Carrillo-Rivera, J., Cardona, A., & Edmunds, W. (2002a). Use of abstraction regime and knowledge of hydrogeological conditions to control high-fluoride concentration in abstracted groundwater: San Luis Potosı basin, Mexico. Journal of hydrology, 261(1–4), 24–47.
- Carrillo-Rivera, J. J., Cardona, A., & Edmunds, W. M. (2002b). Use of abstraction regime and knowledge of hydrogeological conditions to control high-fluoride concentration in abstracted groundwater: San Luis Potosí basin, Mexico. Journal of Hydrology, 261(1), 24–47. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-1694(01)00566-2) [1016/S0022-1694\(01\)00566-2.](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-1694(01)00566-2)
- <span id="page-10-0"></span>Das, K., Dey, U., & Mondal, N. K. (2016). Deleneation of groundwater quality in the presence of fluoride in selected villages of Simlapal block, Bankura district, West Bengal, India. Sustainable Water Resources Management, 2(4), 439–451.
- Das, H., Mitra, A. K., Sengupta, P., Hossain, A., Islam, F., & Rabbani, G. (2004). Arsenic concentrations in rice, vegetables, and fish in Bangladesh: A preliminary study. Environment International, 30(3), 383–387.
- Dey, R. K., Swain, S. K., Mishra, S., Sharma, P., Patnaik, T., et al. (2012). Hydrogeochemical processes controlling the high fluoride concentration in groundwater: A case study at the Boden block area, Orissa, India. Environmental Monitoring and Assessment, 184(5), 3279–3291.
- Duxbury, J., Mayer, A., Lauren, J., & Hassan, N. (2003). Food chain aspects of arsenic contamination in Bangladesh: effects on quality and productivity of rice. Journal of Environmental Science and Health, Part A, 38(1), 61–69.
- Fantong, W. Y., Satake, H., Ayonghe, S. N., Suh, E. C., Adelana, S. M. A., Fantong, E. B. S., et al. (2010). Geochemical provenance and spatial distribution of fluoride in groundwater of Mayo Tsanaga River Basin, Far North Region, Cameroon: Implications for incidence of fluorosis and optimal consumption dose. Environmental Geochemistry and Health, 32(2), 147–163. [https://doi.org/10.1007/](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10653-009-9271-4) [s10653-009-9271-4.](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10653-009-9271-4)
- Fantong, W. Y., Takounjou, A. F., Fantong, E. B., Banseka, H. S., Gwanfogbe, C. D., Ayonghe, S. N., et al. (2013). Increased risk of fluorosis and methemoglobinemia diseases from climate change: Evidence from groundwater quality in Mayo Tsanaga River Basin, Cameroon. J. Cam. Acad. Sci, 11(1), 55–60.
- Farooqi, A., Masuda, H., & Firdous, N. (2007). Toxic fluoride and arsenic contaminated groundwater in the Lahore and Kasur districts, Punjab, Pakistan and possible contaminant sources. Environmental Pollution, 145(3), 839–849.
- Ferreccio, C., & Sancha, A. M. (2006). Arsenic exposure and its impact on health in Chile. Journal of Health, Population and Nutrition, 164-175.
- Finkelman, R. B., Orem, W., Castranova, V., Tatu, C. A., Belkin, H. E., Zheng, B., et al. (2002). Health impacts of coal and coal use: Possible solutions. International Journal of Coal Geology, 50(1–4), 425–443.
- Gao, H.-J., Zhao, Q., Zhang, X.-C., Wan, X.-C., & Mao, J.-D. (2014). Localization of fluoride and aluminum in subcellular fractions of tea leaves and roots. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry, 62(10), 2313–2319.
- Gómez, M. L., Blarasin, M. T., & Martínez, D. E. (2009). Arsenic and fluoride in a loess aquifer in the central area of Argentina. Environmental Geology, 57, 143–155.
- González-Horta, C., et al. (2015). A concurrent exposure to arsenic and fluoride from drinking water in Chihuahua, Mexico. International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 12(5), 4587–4601.
- Guo, H., & Wang, Y. (2005). Geochemical characteristics of shallow groundwater in Datong basin, northwestern China. Journal of Geochemical Exploration, 87(3), 109–120.
- Guo, X., Liu, Z., Huang, C., & You, L. (2006). Levels of arsenic in drinking-water and cutaneous lesions in Inner Mongolia. Journal of Health, Population and Nutrition, 24(2), 214–220.
- Irigoyen-Camacho, M., Pérez, A. G., González, A. M., & Alvarez, R. H. (2016). Nutritional status and dental fluorosis among schoolchildren in communities with different drinking water fluoride concentrations in a central region in Mexico. Science of the Total Environment, 541, 512–519.
- Jamali, M., et al. (2008). Use of sewage sludge after liming as fertilizer for maize growth. Pedosphere, 18(2), 203–213.
- Jha, S., Nayak, A., & Sharma, Y. (2011). Site specific toxicological risk from fluoride exposure through ingestion of vegetables and cereal crops in Unnao district, Uttar Pradesh, India. Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety, 74(4), 940–946.
- Jha, S., Singh, R., Damodaran, T., Mishra, V., Sharma, D., & Rai, D. (2013). Fluoride in groundwater: Toxicological exposure and remedies. Journal of Toxicology and Environmental Health, Part B, 16(1), 52–66.
- Juhasz, A. L., Smith, E., Weber, J., Rees, M., Rofe, A., Kuchel, T., et al. (2006). In vivo assessment of arsenic bioavailability in rice and its significance for human health risk assessment. Environmental Health Perspectives, 114(12), 1826.
- Kazi, T. G., Arain, M. B., Baig, J. A., Jamali, M. K., Afridi, H. I., Jalbani, N., et al. (2009). The correlation of arsenic levels in drinking water with the biological samples of skin disorders. Science of the Total Environment, 407(3), 1019–1026.
- Khan, A., Khan, S., Khan, M. A., Qamar, Z., & Waqas, M. (2015). The uptake and bioaccumulation of heavy metals by food plants, their effects on plants nutrients, and associated health risk: A review. Environmental Science and Pollution Research, 22(18), 13772–13799.
- Khandare, A. L., & Rao, G. S. (2006). Uptake of fluoride, aluminum and molybdenum by some vegetables from irrigation water. Journal of Human Ecology, 19(4), 283–288.
- Kurzius-Spencer, M., Harris, R. B., Hartz, V., Roberge, J., Hsu, C.-H., O'rourke, M. K., et al. (2016). Relation of dietary inorganic arsenic to serum matrix metalloproteinase-9 (MMP-9) at different threshold concentrations of tap water arsenic. Journal of Exposure Science & Environmental Epidemiology, 26(5), 445.
- Lu, Y., Sun, Z., Wu, L., Wang, X., Lu, W., & Liu, S. (2000). Effect of high-fluoride water on intelligence in children. Fluoride, 33(2), 74–78.
- Madeira, A., De Varennes, A., Abreu, M., Esteves, C., & Magalhães, M. (2012). Tomato and parsley growth, arsenic uptake and translocation in a contaminated amended soil. Journal of Geochemical Exploration, 123, 114–121.
- Martínez-Acuña, M. I., Mercado-Reyes, M., Alegría-Torres, J. A., & Mejía-Saavedra, J. J. (2016). Preliminary human health risk assessment of arsenic and fluoride in tap water from Zacatecas, México. Environmental Monitoring and Assessment, 188(8), 476.
- Milton, A. H., Smith, W., Rahman, B., Hasan, Z., Kulsum, U., Dear, K., et al. (2005). Chronic arsenic exposure and adverse pregnancy outcomes in Bangladesh. Epidemiol- $\log y$ , 16(1), 82–86.
- Mukherjee, S. C., Saha, K. C., Pati, S., Dutta, R. N., Rahman, M. M., Sengupta, M. K., et al. (2005). Murshidabad—one of the nine groundwater arsenic-affected districts of West Bengal, India. Part II: Dermatological, neurological, and obstetric findings. Clinical Toxicology, 43(7), 835–848.
- <span id="page-11-0"></span>Naseem, S., Rafique, T., Bashir, E., Bhanger, M. I., Laghari, A., & Usmani, T. H. (2010). Lithological influences on occurrence of high-fluoride groundwater in Nagar Parkar area, Thar Desert, Pakistan. Chemosphere, 78(11), 1313–1321.
- Nguyen, V. A., Bang, S., Viet, P. H., & Kim, K.-W. (2009). Contamination of groundwater and risk assessment for arsenic exposure in Ha Nam province, Vietnam. Environment International, 35(3), 466–472.
- Nickson, R., McArthur, J., Shrestha, B., Kyaw-Myint, T., & Lowry, D. (2005). Arsenic and other drinking water quality issues, Muzaffargarh District, Pakistan. Applied Geochemistry, 20(1), 55–68.
- Okibe, F., Ekanem, E., Paul, E., Shallangwa, G., Ekwumemgbo, P., Sallau, M., et al. (2010). Fluoride content of soil and vegetables from irrigation farms on the bank of river Galma, Zaria, Nigeria. Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences, 4(5), 779–784.
- Organization, W. H. (2008). Guidelines for drinking-water quality [electronic resource]: Incorporating, 1st and 2nd addenda, vol. 1, Recommendations.
- Orloff, K., Mistry, K., & Metcalf, S. (2009). Biomonitoring for environmental exposures to arsenic. Journal of Toxicology and Environmental Health B, 12, 509–524.
- Patel, K., Shrivas, K., Brandt, R., Jakubowski, N., Corns, W., & Hoffmann, P. (2005). Arsenic contamination in water, soil, sediment and rice of central India. Environmental Geochemistry and Health, 27(2), 131–145.
- Poureslami, H. R., Khazaeli, P., & Noori, G. R. (2008). Fluoride in food and water consumed in Koohbanan (Kuh-e Banan), Iran. Fluoride, 41(3), 216–219.
- Rafique, T., Naseem, S., Bhanger, M. I., & Usmani, T. H. (2008). Fluoride ion contamination in the groundwater of Mithi sub-district, the Thar Desert, Pakistan. Environmental Geology, 56(2), 317–326.
- Rafique, T., Naseem, S., Usmani, T. H., Bashir, E., Khan, F. A., & Bhanger, M. I. (2009). Geochemical factors controlling the occurrence of high fluoride groundwater in the Nagar Parkar area, Sindh, Pakistan. Journal of Hazardous Materials, 171, 424–430.
- Rager, J. E., Bailey, K. A., Smeester, L., Miller, S. K., Parker, J. S., Laine, J. E., et al. (2014). Prenatal arsenic exposure and the epigenome: altered microRNAs associated with innate and adaptive immune signaling in newborn cord blood. Environmental and Molecular Mutagenesis, 55(3), 196–208.
- Roychowdhury, T., Tokunaga, H., & Ando, M. (2003). Survey of arsenic and other heavy metals in food composites and drinking water and estimation of dietary intake by the villagers from an arsenic-affected area of West Bengal, India. Science of the Total Environment, 308(1–3), 15–35.
- Ruan, J., Ma, L., Shi, Y., & Han, W. (2004). The impact of pH and calcium on the uptake of fluoride by tea plants (Camellia sinensis L.). Annals of Botany, 93(1), 97–105.
- Shah, M. T., & Danishwar, S. (2003). Potential fluoride contamination in the drinking water of Naranji area, northwest frontier province, Pakistan. Environmental Geochemistry and Health, 25(4), 475–481.
- Shrestha, B. (2002). Drinking water quality: Future directions for UNICEF in Pakistan Consultancy Report 2 of 3. Islamabad: Water Quality, SWEET Project, UNICEF Pakistan.
- Smedley, P. L., & Kinniburgh, D. (2002). A review of the source, behaviour and distribution of arsenic in natural waters. Applied Geochemistry, 17(5), 517-568.
- Sofuoglu, S. C., & Kavcar, P. (2008). An exposure and risk assessment for fluoride and trace metals in black tea. Journal of Hazardous Materials, 158(2–3), 392–400.
- Tahir, M. (2000). Report on arsenic in groundwater of Attock and Rawalpindi Districts. Pakistan Council of Research in Water Resources (PCRWR), Ministry of Science & Technology, Government of Pakistan.
- Tsuji, J. S., Perez, V., Garry, M. R., & Alexander, D. D. (2014). Association of low-level arsenic exposure in drinking water with cardiovascular disease: A systematic review and risk assessment. Toxicology, 323, 78–94.
- Wang, X. C., Kawahara, K., & Guo, X. J. (1999). Fluoride contamination of groundwater and its impact on human health in Inner Mongolia area. Aqua, 48, 146–153.
- Xiong, X., Liu, J., He, W., Xia, T., He, P., Chen, X., et al. (2007). Dose–effect relationship between drinking water fluoride levels and damage to liver and kidney functions in children. Environmental Research, 103(1), 112–116.
- Yadav, R. K., Sharma, S., Bansal, M., Singh, A., Panday, V., & Maheshwari, R. (2012). Effects of fluoride accumulation on growth of vegetables and crops in Dausa District, Rajasthan, India. Advances in Bioresearch, 3(4).
- Yadav, P., Singh, B., Garg, V., Mor, S., & Pulhani, V. (2017). Bioaccumulation and health risks of heavy metals associated with consumption of rice grains from croplands in Northern India. Human and Ecological Risk Assessment: An International Journal, 23(1), 14–27.
- Yang, C.-Y., Chang, C.-C., Tsai, S.-S., Chuang, H.-Y., Ho, C.- K., & Wu, T.-N. (2003). Arsenic in drinking water and adverse pregnancy outcome in an arseniasis-endemic area in northeastern Taiwan. Environmental Research, 91(1), 29–34. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0013-9351\(02\)00015-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0013-9351(02)00015-4).
- Yoshida, T., Yamauchi, H., & Sun, F. G. (2004). Chronic health effects in people exposed to arsenic via the drinking water: Dose–response relationships in review. Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology, 198, 243–252.
- Zheng, B., Yu, X., Zhand, J., & Zhou, D. (1996). Environmental geochemistry of coal and arsenic in Southwest Guizhou, P.R. China. 30th International Geological Congress Abstracts 3, 410