RADIOLOGICAL AND CHEMICAL RISK ASSESSMENT OF URANIUM-238 IN WELL, BOREHOLE AND RIVER WATERS IN SELECTED RURAL OIL PRODUCING COMMUNITIES IN DELTA STATE, NIGERIA

Agbalagba E. O.

Department of Physics, Federal University of Petroleum Resources, Effurun, Nigeria

Abstract

The assessment of radiological and chemical risk associated with uranium in hand dug wells, boreholes and river waters samples within oil and gas producing communities in Delta state have been carried out using gamma-ray spectroscopy operated on a Canberra 3"x3" NaI(TI) detector while the BIR absorbed dose rate from the environment was measured using Geiger Muller (exploranuim GR-135 model) detector. Measured average absorbed dose rate is 1.0mSvyr⁻¹ for the three sources of water examined which is within the permissible limit. Average uranium activity concentrations in the water samples is 7.2 ± 0.8 , 5.5 ± 0.7 and 5.5 ± 0.7 Bql⁻¹ for wells, boreholes and river water samples respectively while the mass concentration average values are $324.3\pm33.9,221.5\pm25.4$ and $620.4\pm56.1\mu gl^{-1}$ respectively. These average activity and mass concentrations of the three sources of water sampled was found to be relatively higher compared with control values and the recommended safe limits by various international organizations. The estimated cancer mortality and morbidity risk values are in agreement with other reported values within the country and are well below acceptable standard. The chemical toxicity risk of uranium in the three water sources (well, borehole and river) samples estimated using lifetime average daily dose (LADD) were found to be 8.9, 5.9 and 17.0 μ gkg⁻¹.day⁻¹ which are above the reference level of $0.6 \mu g kg^{-1} dav^{-1}$. The study revealed that human risk due to uranium content in water supplies that will result from ingestion in the study area may be attributed to chemical toxicity of uranium as heavy metals, rather than radiological risk. Possible reduction techniques of uranium concentration in water samples were recommended.

Keywords: Risk Assessment, Uranium, water, Oil Fields.

1.0 Introduction

In most of the oil and gas producing rural communities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria, availability of clean and safe drinking water has been a critical and uphill task to achieve and could be seen as a luxury. This could be attributed to the insensitivity of the government and high poverty rate of about 54.6% in the oil rich region of Nigeria [1,2,3] and also, due to constant decline of portable water in the rural areas since the 1990s [4].However, at the end of 2000 United Nations Millennium Summit, member states of which Nigeria is one adopted a set of eight (8) goals and related targets and indicators aimed at helping end to human poverty [5]. Among these millennium Development Goals is a call to halve by the year 2015 the proportion of persons without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation. Towards the end of March 2005, the UN launched the "International Decade for Action: Water for Life 2005- 2015" [6,7]. Success in reaching these targets will help achieve the other goals.

Uranium in water is one of the major contaminant that is treating the attainment of the MDG goals of sustainable access to safe drinking water. Uranium salt is the most soluble of the long- lived radionuclides and forms ions with oxidation state of +4 (UO₂ and U⁺⁴) and +6 (UO₃ and UO₂²⁺) [**8**,**9**]. Uranium will bond with oxygen to form the uranyl ion, or uranium oxide, which is soluble in ground water under aerobic conditions. It has been established that high concentration of uranium greater than $15\mu gl^{-1}$ in drinking water may present harmful biological effects in humans [**10**]. It toxic effects have been studied extensively in kidney [**11**,**12**,**13**] and other organs of the body [**14**,**15**]. The chemical toxicity effects on the human kidney by chronic ingestion of uranium through drinking water in the range of 0.004 to $9.0\mu gl^{-1}$ per body weight per day may produce interference with kidney functions [**16**]. Kurttio*et al.*[**17**] in a study on human, found nephrotoxic effects of uranium in

Corresponding Author: Agbalagba E.O., Email: agbalagba.ezekiel@fupre.edu.ng, Tel: +2348037434510

Journal of the Nigerian Association of Mathematical Physics Volume 47, (July, 2018 Issue), 245 – 252

drinking water even for low concentrations without a clear threshold. Most result from uranium studies in drinking water suggest that it's safe concentration may within the range of proposed guideline values of $2-30\mu gl^{-1}$ [10,12]. Moreso, because uranium is more of alpha- emitting radionuclide, there is a growing concern about the potential DNA damage, if the emitted alpha particles reach the cell nuclei of the body through water ingestion. Attempts by cells to repair this damage, if it occurs may result repair errors, producing gene mutations or chromosomal aberrations. These effects, when sufficiently severe may be manifested as cancer and possibly as developmental malfunctions in children and developing foetus[9].

The rural communities of the study area depend on hand dug wells, boreholes and river waters as major sources of drinking water. Natural uranium is classified as both a radiological and a chemo- toxicological agent and it is the only radioactive substance for which chemical toxicity is the limiting factor in risk assessment [11]. Utilization of water from these sources of water supplies has raised concerns of potential radiological and toxicological risks to human consumers. There have been various claims and counterclaims of cancer, leukemia, eye cataracts and other health related radiation induce sicknesses attributing to oil and gas exploration and exploitation activities by the host communities in the study area [18,19]. But there are little or no data on the radiological and chemical health effects of uranium in drinking water and domestic water supplies in the area. This study is therefore considered relevant in order to provide data on the concentration of uranium in the water sources and the associated radiological and chemical risk it may pose to the populace of OML30.

2.0 Material and Methods

2.1 Study Area

The study area is located in Oil Mining Lease 30 (OML 30) onshore of Niger Delta [20]. It transit five local government areas (Isoko North and South, Ughelli North and South and Ethiope East L.G) in Delta State and comprise often oil fields. It lies within latitude $5^{0}18$ " N and $5^{\circ}86$ " N and longitude $5^{0}33$ "E and $6^{0}40$ E", South-west of Niger Delta region of Nigeria [2]. Oil production from these oil fields average 65,000bbls/d at 70% Bs\$W and approximately 3.8million cubic meters annually [20]. This put the area as one of the highest in oil and gas production area onshore of Niger Delta with about 172 oil wells, 10 flow stations and 14 flare stack sites. The area has population of about 0.95million people. The area is criss-cross with network of pipelines carrying oil or gas to the flow stations from the various oil and gas wells [2,18], See figure 1. Oil exploration activities started in the area in mid-1959 and it has since been a continuous operation with increase in the number of exploration activities. Gas flaring and oil spillage due to pipe leakage, as a result of rupture and corrosion has been the major environmental pollution problem in this area in the last two and half decades. Over 120 cases of oil spillage have been reported in the study area in the last three year [19,21].

2.2 Sample Collection and Preparation

In order to assess the reliability of samples collected, the background ionization radiation (BIR)/ equivalent dose rates of the environment where water samples are collected were measured in-situ using Geiger Muller (exploranuim GR-135 model) detector and a Geographical Positioning System (GPS) for coordinate measurement. Thirty water samples were collected from community public water supply (tapes and wells water) in the major oil fields host communities and three from a control site (community). At each sampling point 1.5-liters plastic container was used for the collection of the sample from source with about 1% air space of the container left for thermal expansion. Sample containers which has been previously washed and rinsed with dilute acid (0.1M HCl) to minimize contamination from the original content of sample container. Well water samples were collected manually at the early hours of the day from community wells of varying depths (5-10m). While tap water were collected at laminar flow rate after first turn on at full capacity for 2 minutes to purge the plumbing system of any water which might contaminates sample, to reduce radon loss [22]. Sample collection procedure for river/stream water is as reported by Avwiri and Agbalagba, [23]. After the collection, immediate addition of 10ml of 65% HNO₃ at collection point was made to avoid changes in the state of the ions that are present in the samples. The samples were subsequently taken to the laboratory for preparation prior to gamma spectroscopy. All water samples were evapourated (avoid boiling) in a furnace temperature at 60° C to reduce their volume from approximately 1.5-litres to 1.0 litre and poured into 1.0 litre cylindrical plastic container of the detector geometry. The samples were properly sealed and stored for about 30 days to reach radioactive equilibrium.

2.3 Sample analysis

The method employed for the analysis of the radioactivity in the water samples was the gamma- ray spectroscopy and the standard procedure of this method has been described elsewhere **[24,25]**. The detector used for the radioactivity measurements is a lead shielded 7.6 x 7.6cm (3x3 inches) NaI(TI) detector crystal coupled toORTEC 456 amplifier. The detector was connected to a computer program MAESTRO window that matched gamma energies to a library of possible isotopes. The cylindrical plastic containers holding the samples were put to sit on the high geometry 7.6cm x 7.6cm NaI(TI) detector. High level shielding against the environmental backgroundradiation was achieved by counting in the Canberra 100mm thick lead castle. Since the accuracy of the quantitative measurements is depended on the calibration of the spectrometry system and adequate energy, detector background measurement and efficiency calibration of the system was

made possible using Cs-137 standard source from IAEA, Vienna, The detailed calibration procedures of the detector has been reported [25,26]. It has a resolution Full Width at Half Maximum (FWHM) of 9% at energy of 0.662 MeV (137 Cs) which is considered adequate to distinguish the gamma ray energies of interest in this study. The photons emitted by them would only be sufficiently discriminated if their emission probability and their energy are high enough and the surrounding background continuum was low enough. The activity concentration of 214 Bi (determined from its 1.760 MeV γ - ray peak) was therefore used to estimate for 226 Ra (238 U) in the samples. The samples were placed symmetrically on top of the detector and measured for a period of 10 hours. The net area under the corresponding peaks in the energy spectrum was computed by subtracting counts due to Compton scattering of higher peaks and other background sources from the total area of the peaks. From the net area, the activity concentrations in the samples were obtained using[9,24]:

$$C (Bql^{-1}) = kC_n$$

Where $k = \frac{1}{\epsilon P \gamma V s}$, C is the activity concentration of the radionuclide in the sample given in Bql⁻¹, C_n is the count rate under the corresponding peak, ϵ is the detector efficiency at the specific $\gamma - ray$ energy, P γ is the absolute transition probability of the specific $\gamma - ray$ energy, and Vs is the volume of the sample. Using equation1, the activity concentrations of uranium in each of the water samples were determined.

A) Conversion Factor

The data for the activity concentrations of the uranium were converted to the uranium mass concentration ($\mu g.l^{-1}$) using the following conversion factors:

$$1Bql^{-1} = 0.037pCil^{-1}; 1\mu gl^{-1} = pCil^{-1}/0.67$$
(2)

B) Radiological risk assessment

The lifetime cancer risks R, associated with intake of a given radionuclide were estimated from the product of the applicable risk coefficient r and the per capita activity intake I expressed in equation (3).

$$R = rxI$$

(3)

(1)

According to WHO and UNDP [2,10], the average life expectancy at birth in Nigeria and in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria is 45.5 years and, an annual consumption of water for an individual is about 730litres. This brings the lifetime intake of water to 33,215litres. The cancer risk coefficients of uranium of 1.13×10^{-9} Bq⁻¹ and 1.73×10^{-9} Bq⁻¹ for **mortality** and **morbidity** respectively were obtained from literature [27,28]. Using equation 3 and these coefficients the cancer mortality and morbidity risks of uranium over lifetime consumption of water were calculated.

C) Chemical toxicity risk assessment

The chemical toxicity risk was evaluated using the lifetime average daily dose of uranium through drinking water intake, and compared it with the reference dose(RFD) of 0.6 μ g.kg⁻¹day⁻¹[**29**] used as a standard criteria for uranium in several foreign organizations and thereby produce a hazard quotient(Equation 4).

(4)

Hazard quotient =
$$\frac{LADD}{RFD}$$

And

Ingestion LADD of drinking water= $\frac{EPC \times IR \times EF \times ED}{AT \times BW}$ (5)

Where LADD, lifetime average daily dose (μ g.kg⁻¹.day⁻¹); EPC is the exposure point concentration (μ g.l⁻¹); IR is the water ingestion rate (l.day⁻¹); EF is the exposure frequency (days.year1); ED is the total exposure duration(years); AT is the average time (days) and BW is the body weight (kg). Using therefore, IR = 2 litre.day⁻¹; EF = 350 days, ED = 45.5 years, AT = 16,607.5 (obtained from 45.5 × 365) and BW = 70 kg (for a standard man) the chemical toxicity risk of uranium over a life time consumption was estimated.



Fig 1: A map showing network of pipes of oil fields in onshore of the Niger Delta.

3.0 Results and Discussion

3.1 Results

Table 1: Gamma Dose Rate (mSvy⁻¹) in Air and Specific activity of ²³⁸U (Bql⁻¹) in well, Borehole and River water samples from oil fields environment

S/N	A REA CODE	SAMPLED OIL FIELD HOST COMMUNI-TIES	WATER SAMPLE ACTIVITY CONCENTRATION (Bql ⁻¹)						
			Geographical	Well Water		Borehole Water		River Water	
			coordinate	EQ. DOSE mSvy ⁻¹	²³⁸ U/ Bql ⁻¹	EQ. DOSE mSvy ⁻¹	²³⁸ U/ Bql ⁻¹	EQ. DOSE mSvy ⁻¹	²³⁸ U/ Bql ⁻¹
1	UZE	Uzere	N05'20 E006'14	1.0	2.4±0.4	1.1	3.0±0.2	0.9	10.2±0.7
2	OLO	Olomoro	N05'26 E006'11	0.7	3.5±0.4	0.5	0.7±0.1	1.0	4.3±0.4
3	OWH	Oweh	N05'29 E006'06	1.6	12.4±1.6	1.4	7.4±1.3	1.4	4.6±0.2
4	EVN	Evwreni	N05'24 E006'03	0.8	2.7±0.1	1.1	4.9±0.3	1.3	12.0±1.3
5	EGA	Gana	N05'38 E006'03	1.2	6.4±0.8	1.3	14.1±1.7	1.3	36.4±2.9
6	KER	Erhoike	N05' 38 E006' 04	1.3	15.2±1.3	0.7	4.3±0.7	1.2	8.1±0.9
7	AEM	Emeragha	N05' 32 E005' 01	1.3	11.9±0.9	1.3	6.2±0.4	0.8	13.5±1.2
8	UER	Eruemukohwarie n	N05'31 E005'56	1.1	9.2±1.0	1.0	4.4±0.5	0.7	26.4±2.1
9	U EK	Ekakpamre	N05'31 E005'54	0.5	8.4±0.8	0.8	4.8±0.5	0.8	28.4±2.6
10	OUT	Otujeremi	N05' 25 E005' 52	0.8	8.3±1.1	1.0	5.1±0.6	0.9	10.1±1.6
AVERAGE				1.0	7.2±0.8	1.0	5.5±0.7	1.0	5.5±0.7
Control				0.6	2.7±0.2	0.6	1.3±0.2	0.7	3.6±0.4

2.7

J. of NAMP

4.8

Table2: Computed mass concentration, Cancer mortality and morbidity risk values and Life Average daily dose Well Water Sample **Borehole Water Sample Risk Assessment River Water Sample** Max. Max. Min. Max. Min. Min. Ave. Ave. Ave. 173.5±16.1 613.2±52.4 108.9 ± 4.0 324.3±33.9 568.8±68.6 28.2±4.0 221.5±25.4 1460.3±117.0 Mass Concentration(µgl⁻¹) 620.4±56.1 Cancer Mortality Risk x10-5 57.1 9.0 30.2 52.9 2.6 20.6 136.6 16.1 57.8 Cancer Morbidity Risk x10⁻⁵ Lifetime Average daily 87.3 13.8 46.2 81.0 4.0 31.5 209.2 24.7 88.5 Dose(LADD) (µgkg-1.day-1) 8.9 0.8 5.9 40.0 17.0

15.6

3.2 Discussion

16.8

The result of the absorbed equivalent dose rate and the activity concentration of Uranium in each of the water samples are presented in Table1. The background equivalent dose rate in the hand dug well environment ranged from 0.5 to 1.6mSvyr with an average value of 1.0mSvyr^{-1} . Within the communities' borehole areas, dose rate ranged from 0.5 to 1.4 mSvyr^{-1} with an average value of 1.0 mSvyr⁻¹, while within the communities' stream/ river background dose rate varied from 0.7 to1.4 mSvyr⁻¹ and an average of 1.0mSvyr⁻¹. These values obtained agree satisfactorily with reported values within similar environment in this region [18,30,31]. Though these values are slightly above values obtained in the control sample area and values reported in other parts of the country [32,33], but average values are within the 1.0mSvyr⁻¹recommended by ICRP,[34].

In well water samples, the activity concentration of 238 U ranged from 2.4±0.4 to 15.2±1.3Bql⁻¹ with an average value of 7.2 ± 0.8 Bgl⁻¹. In borehole waters, ²³⁸U activity concentration ranged from 0.7 ± 0.1 to 14.1 ± 1.7 Bgl⁻¹ with an average value of 5.5 ± 0.7 Bql⁻¹. While Uranium activity concentration in river water varied between 4.3 ± 0.4 and 36.4 ± 2.9 Bql⁻¹ with an average value of 15.4 ± 1.4 Bql⁻¹. Uranium activity concentration in the control sample is 2.7 ± 0.2 Bql⁻¹, 1.3 ± 0.2 and 3.6 ± 0.4 for hand dug well, borehole and river water respectively. The error in these reported values are combined uncertainties in the counting error, efficiency determination etc. These values obtained are slightly above the reported values for boreholes and well water in Ogun state, Nigeria [9]. These values obtained are above the values reported by Nour K.A.[35] in ground and surface drinking(well and tap) water in Upper Egypt. It is also above those reported by Vesterbacka, Pia[36] in Finland drinking water. This value is also higher than the similar average value of 0.5Bql⁻¹ reported in Sweden, Ukraine and Spain [37,38,39,40]. But this result is within the reported values in South-West Nigeria [22] and North-West of Nigeria [41]. More so, this result agrees satisfactorily with the values reported in Biseni flood plain lake, a similar oil exploitation environment in the Niger Delta by Agbalagba and Onoja, [42]. This result agreed slightly with the values of 10.2 ± 1.7 Bql⁻¹ for ²²⁶Ra, reported in drinking water in Belgrade by Rajkovicet al. [43]. A comparison of the activity concentration of the three water sources with the control samples, revealed that all the water sources radionuclide activity concentration are higher than the values of the control, which implies that water sources from these oil fields may have been polluted with the activity of the oil exploitation companies.

The data for the activity concentrations of the uranium were converted to the uranium mass concentration (μ gl⁻¹) using equation (2), the mass concentration values are presented in table 2. As could be seen, the mass concentration values ranged from 108.9±4.0 to 613.2±52.4 μ gl⁻¹ with average value of 324.3±33.9 μ gl⁻¹ for hand dug well water. For borehole water the value ranged from 28.2±4.0 to 568.8±68.6 μ gl⁻¹ with an average value of 221.5±25.4 μ gl⁻¹ while the mass concentration ranged from 173.5 \pm 16.1 to 1460.3 \pm 117.0 µgl⁻¹ with an average of 620.4 \pm 56.1µgl⁻¹ in river water samples. Various health and environmental protection agencies have set different safety limit for uranium in drinking water for man. These values obtained are higher than the 3.05±0.9pCi/l in Safaga- Quseir (Egypt) ground water [35], the 0.34pCi/l mean value obtained in Fujian Province ground water in China [44], the 0.27-1.35pCi/l in Lodz Poland underground water [45] and the 1.12pCi/l in Austria domestic bottle water [46], but the obtained values are within the range of values reported by Somlaiet al. [47] in bottled mineral water in Hungary, Labidi, et al. in Springs water in Tunisia [48]. The World Health Organization (WHO) [4], United State Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA)[49] and Health Canada [50] have recommended 15µg⁻¹, 30µg⁻¹ and 20µg¹⁻¹ respectively for safe limit of uranium in public water supplies. These levels were set to represent the concentration that would not result in any significant risk to health over a lifetime's drinking of water. Comparing uranium mass concentrations obtained in the various sources of water supplies in the study area with the (USEPA)[49], it could be seen that only borehole water sample from Olomoro oil field had a value about USEPA safe limit while others exceeded the limits. These high values may be attributed to the fact that the oil and gas activities in the area have increase the uranium concentration with the surface water sources most impacted. This result is in agreement with the obtained dose rate in the study area to which uranium and thorium decay series are major contributors [9].

The radiological risk assessment associated with the consumption of these three sources of water supplies were evaluated using equation 3, the result obtain is presented in Table 2. The cancer mortality risk ranged from 9.0 $\times 10^{-6}$ to 57.1 $\times 10^{-6}$ with average value of 30.2x10⁻⁶ in hand dug wells water samples. In borehole water samples the cancer mortality risk ranged from 2.6×10^{-6} to 52.9×10^{-6} and an average value of 20.6×10^{-6} while in river water samples, it ranges from 16.1×10^{-6} to 136×10^{-6}

with average value of 57.8×10^{-6} . The cancer morbidity risk in hand dug well water samples ranged from 13.8×10^{-6} to 87.3×10^{-6} ⁶with an average value of 46.2x10⁻⁶. Borehole water samples value ranged from 4.0x10⁻⁶ to 81.0x10⁻⁶ with an average value of 31.5×10^{-6} , while in the river water samples, the cancer morbidity risk ranged from 24.7×10^{-6} to 209.2×10^{-6} with average value of 88.5×10^{-6} . These values obtained for both mortality and morbidity risk level agreed totally with the values report by Amakom and Jibiril in South-western Nigeria[9]. The cancer risk level obtained which average $\sim 10^{-4}$ is lower compared to the acceptable level of 10^{-3} for the radiological cancer risk [9,29]. The chemical toxicity risk of uranium in the three water sources sample were evaluated using equations 4 & 5. Table 2 also present the estimated lifetime average daily dose (LADD) results. The LADD value obtained for hand dug well water samples ranged from 2.7 to 16.8µgkg⁻¹.day⁻¹ with average value of 8.9µgkg⁻¹.day⁻¹, for borehole water samples the value ranged from 4.0 to 15.6µgkg⁻¹.day⁻¹ and average value of 5.9µgkg⁻¹. ¹.day⁻¹ while the value ranged from 4.8 to 40.0µgkg⁻¹.day⁻¹ with average value of 17.0µgkg⁻¹.day⁻¹ for river water. The LADD values were observed to be higher in river water samples than the boreholes and hand dug well water samples which are in contrast to the result obtained by Amakom and Jibiril[9]. It is expected that the borehole values be higher due to the depth of the water source (underground water) and the geochemistry of ground water. Thus the high value obtained for river water samples in relation to the hand dug well and borehole water samples can be attributed to the frequent oil spill into these water bodies which may have enhance the uranium concentration hence the chemical toxicity of the water samples. A comparison of the lifetime average daily dose (LADD) obtained in this study and the reference dose (RFD) of 0.6µgkg⁻¹.day⁻¹which the acceptable level, the chemical toxicity risk due to uranium in the water samples were all above the reference dose. This shows that there may be health risks associated with uranium in the water samples which will mainly due to chemical toxicity. The overall result shows that the radioactivity concentration in the three examined sources of water supplies to the populace of the studied area in the following order of magnitude; Borehole < Well < River water. This shows that there are terrestrial anthropogenic activities that may have enhances the levels of radioactivity in surface water, which can be attributed to the impact of activities of the oil and gas exploration and exploitation companies on the water samples. An ion exchange pretreatment and reverse osmosis treatment technique is recommended for all sources of water studied to reduce and removal of heavy metals/ radionuclides from water sources

4.0 Conclusion

The activity concentration of uranium in hand dug wells, boreholes and river waters samples within oil and gas field communities in Delta state have been carried out using gamma-ray spectroscopy while the environmental BIR was measured using dosimeter. The activity concentrations were related to the mass concentrations of uranium in the samples. The BIR was found to be within permissible limit, the average mass concentration of the three sources sampled was found to be relatively higher compared with the recommended safe limits by various international organizations. Cancer mortality and morbidity risk values are in agreement with other reported values within country and are well below acceptable standard. The chemical toxicity risk of uranium in the three water sources sample estimated using lifetime average daily dose (LADD) were found to be above the reference level of $0.6\mu g k g^{-1} d a y^{-1}$ which the acceptable level. It could therefore be concluded that human risk due to uranium content in water supplies that will result from ingestion in the study area may be attributed to chemical toxicity of uranium as heavy metals rather than radiological risk. This study represent an area useful radiometric data that could be of great importance in diagnosis, prognosis and radio- epidemiological assessment of uranium- induced sickness and diseases to the local population of the study area.

References

- [1] Nigerian Living Survey Standard (NLSS), 2005. Report of the Nigerian living survey standard, Abuja National Planning Commission 2.
- [2] United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), 2006. Niger Delta Human Development report: Environmental and Social Challenges in the Niger Delta. UN House, Abuja, Nigeria.
- [3] National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), 2008. Annual abstract of statistics, Abuja.
- [4] World Health Organization (WHO), 2003. Guidelines for drinking water quality. Health criteria and other supporting information, Geneva, 2ndedn., 2: 367-370. Switzerland.
- [5] Sachs, J.D., McArthur, J.W., 2005. The Millennium Project: a plan for meeting the millennium development goals. Lancet, 365: 347-353.
- [6] United nation (UN) Millennium Project (2005). Task force on water and sanitation. Health, dignity, and development: what will it take? New York: Stockholm International Water Institute and United Nations Millennium Project.
- [7] Bartram, J., Lewis, K., Lenton, R. and Wright, A., 2005. Focusing on improved water and sanitation for health. Lancet 365: 810-812.
- [8] Banks, D., Royset, O., Strand, T. and Skarphagen, H., 1995. Radioelement (U, Th, Rn) concentrations in Norwegian bedrock ground water. Environ. Geol.25: 165- 180.

- [9] Amakom, C.M. and Jibiri, N.N., 2010. Chemical and radiological risk assessment of uranium in borehole and well waters in the Odeda area, Ogun state, Nigeria. Intl. J. Phys. Sci. 5(7): 1009-1014.
- [10] World Health Organization (WHO), 2008. Meeting the MDG drinking water and sanitation target: the urban and rural challenge of the decade. WHO Library Cataloguing-in-Publication Data.
- [11] Hakonson-Hayes, A.C., P.R. Fresquez, and F.W. Whicker, 2002. Assessing potential risks from exposure to natural uranium in well water. Journ. Environ. Radioactivity 59:29-40.
- [12] Kurttio, P., Auvinen, A., and Selonen, L., 2002. Renal effects of uranium in drinking water. Environmental Health Perspective 1109(4): 337- 342.
- [13] Mirlam, S.K., Carolina, M.T., Maria, C.M. and Juan, C.F., 2009. Uranium in drinking water: effects on Mouse oocyte quality. Health Phys.96: 568-574.
- [14] International Commission on Radiological Protection (ICRP), 1997. ICRP Publication 78; Individual Monitoring for Internal Exposure of workers.
- [15] Lariviere, D., Packer, A.P., Mario, L., Li, C., Chen, J. and Cornett, R.J., 2007. Age dependence of natural uranium and thorium concentrations in bone. Health Phy.92: 119- 126.
- [16] Zamora, M.L., Tracy, B.L., Zielinski, J.M., Meyerhof, D.P. and Moss, M.A., 1998. Chronic ingestion of uranium in drinking water: A study of Kidney Bioeffects in humans. Toxicol. Sci. 43: 31-45.
- [17] Kurttio, P., Auvinen, A., and Selonen, L., Komulainen, H., Leino, A. and Saha, H., 2005. Bone as a possible target of chemical toxicity of natural uranium in drinking water. Environmental Health Perspective 113:68-72.
- [18] Avwiri, G.O., Agbalagba, O.E. and Enyinna, P.I., 2007. Terrestrial radiation around oil and gas facilities in Ughelli region, Nigeria. Asian J. Applied Sci. 7(11):1543-1546.
- [19] Otarigho, M.D., 2007. Impact of oil spillage on the people of Ughelli South Local Government Area, Delta State. J. Environ. Res. & Policies, 2: 44 – 50.
- [20] Shell Petroleum Development Company(SPDC, EIA), 2004. Environmental impact assessment of Afiesere, Eriemu, Repele and Uzere for oil field development. Scoping workshop for EIA process, SPDC West, Warri Delta State, Nigeria. May 2004; pg 2-6.
- [21] Gbadebo, A.M., Taiwo, A.M. and Eghele, U., 2010. Environmental impacts of drilling mud and cutting astes from the igbokoda onshore oil wells, South-western Nigeria. Indian J. Sci and Tech. 3(5):504-510.
- [22] Tchokosse, P., Olomo, J.B. and Osibota, O.A., 1999. Radioactivity in the community water supplies of Ife-central and Ife-East L.G.A.'S Osun State, Nigeria. Nucl. Instr. and Methods in Phys. Res. (A422:780-784).
- [23] Avwiri, G.O. and Agbalagba, E.O., 2007. Survey of gross alpha and gross beta radionuclide activity in Okpare-Creek Deltal State Nigeria. Asian Network for Scientific information J. Appl. SC. 7(22): 3542-3546.
- [24] Awudugba, A.O. and Tchokossa, P., 2008. Assessment of radionuclide concentrations in water supply from boreholes in Ogbomoso land, Western Nigeria: Ind. And Buil. Environ. 17(2): 183-186.
- [25] Jibirl, N.N., Alausa, S.K. and Farai, I.P., 2009. Assessment of external and internal doses due to farming in high background radiation areas in old tin mining localities in Jos- Plateau, Nigeria. Radioprotection, 44: 139-151.
- [26] Jibirl, N.N., Alausa, S.K. and Farai, I.P., 2007. Estimation of annual effective dose due to natural radioactive elements in ingestions of foodstuffs in tin mining area of Jos- Plateau, Nigeria. J. Environ. Rad. 94: 31-40.
- [27] Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), 1999. Cancer risk coefficients for environmental exposure to radionuclides. United State Environmental Protection Agency. Federal Guidance Report No. 13 (EPA, 402 R-99-001).
- [28] United Nations Scientific Committee on the Effects of Atomic Radiation (UNSCEAR), 2000. Sources, effects and risk of ionizing radiation. Report to the General Assembly. ISBN 92-1-142238-8, New York.
- [29] Ye- shin, K., Hoa- sung, P., Jin- yong, K., Byong- wook, C., Ig- hwan, S. and Dong- Chen, S., 2004. Health risk assessment for uranium in Korean ground water. J. Environ. Rad. 77: 77- 85.
- [30] Arogunjo, M.A., Farai, I.P. and Fuwape, I.A., 2004. Impact of oil and gas industry to the natural radioactivity distribution in the delta region of Nigeria. Nig. J. Phys. 16:131-136.
- [31] Laogun, A.A., Ajayi, N.O. and Agaja, S.A., 2006. Variation in well head gamma radiation levels at the Nigeria Petroleum development company oil field, Ologbo Ede State, Nigeria. Nig. J. Phys, 18(1):135-140.
- [32] Avwiri G.O. and Ebeniro. J.O.,1998. External environmental radiation in an Industrial area of Rivers State. Nig. J. Phys.10:105-107.
- [33] Akpabio, L.E., E.S. Etuk and Essian, K., 2005. Environmental radioactive levels in IkotEkpen Nigeria. Nig. J. Space. Res.1: 80 – 87.
- [34] ICRP, 1991. The 1990 Recommendations of the International Commission of Radiological Protection, Volume 21-23. Elsevier Health Sciences, USA.
- [35] Nour, K.A. and G.M.E. Abdel, 2005. Natural radioactivity in farm soil and phosphate fertilizer and its environmental implications in Qena governorate, Upper Egypt. J. Environ. Rad. 84(1): 51-64.

- [36] VesterbackaPia, 2007. Natural radioactivity in drinking water in Finland. Boreal Environ. Res. 12:11-16.
- [37] Fernandez, J.F., Lozano, J.C and Gomez, J.M.G., 1992. Natural radionuclides in ground water in Western Spain. Radiat. Protect. Dosim.45:227-229.
- [38] Ortega X., Isabel V. and Isabel S., 1996. Natural radioactivity in drinking water in Catalonia (Spain). Environ. Intl.22(1):S347-S354.
- [39] Zelensky A.V., Buzinny M.G., and Los I.P. 1993. Measurement of ²²⁶Ra, ²²²Rn and uranium in Ukrainian ground water usingultra low level liquid scintillation counting in Noakes J.E., Schonhofer E and Polach H.A. (eds). Liquid scintillation spectrometry 1992. RADIOCARBON. Braun-Brumfeield. Inc., Michingan. 405-411.
- [40] Isam-Salih, M.M., Pettersson, H.B. and Lund, E., 2002. Uranium and thorium series radionuclides in drinking water from drilled bedrock wells: correlation to geology and bedrock radioactivity and dose estimation. Radiat. Protect Dosim., 102(3), 249-258.
- [41] Juliet, N. 2006. Gross alpha and beta radioactivity in Kaduna River. M.Sc. Thesis. Submitted to the epartment of Physics, Abu Zaria.
- [42] Agbalagba E.O. and Onoja R.A., 2011. Evaluation of natural radioactivity in soil, sediment and water samples of Niger delta (Biseni) flood plain lakes, Nigeria. J. Environ. Rad. 102: 667-671.
- [43] Rajkovic M.B., Caslav M.L., Nebojsa R.R., Mirjana D.S., Dragan V.T., Gordana K.P., Nikola M.R. and Sasa J., 2008. Identification of metals (Heavy and Radioactive) in drinking water by an indirect analysis method based on scale tests. Sensor8:2188-2207.
- [44] Weihai, Z., Takao, I. and Xiaotang, Y., 2001. Occurrence of Rn-222, Ra-226, Ra-228 and U in ground water in Fujian Province, China. J. Environ. Rad. 53: 111-120.
- [45] Jankowski, J., Chruscielewski, W., Kaminski, Z. and Zak, A., 2000. Natural radioactivity of underground water supplies in the regionLodz in Poland, IRPA 10. Scientific topics-1 natural radiation exposure.
- [46] Kralik, C., Friedrich, M. and Voijir, F., 2003. Natural radionuclides in bottled water in Astria, J. Environ. Rad. 65: 233-241.
- [47] Somlai, J., Horvath, G., Kanyar, B., Kovacs, T., Bo- drogi, E. and Kavasi, N., 2002. Concentration of Ra-226 Hungarian bottled mineral water. J. Environ. Rad. 62: 235- 240.
- [48] Labidi, S., Dochraoui, M., Mahjoubi, H., Lematre, N., Ben Salah, R. and Mtimet, S., 2002. Natural radioactive nuclides in some Tunisian Thermo- mineral springs. J. Environ. Rad. 62: 87-96.
- [49] United State Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA), 2003. Current drinking water standards. Ground water and drinking water protection agency, Pp. 1-12.
- [50] Health Canada, 1999. Summary of guidelines for Canadian drinking water quality: Prepared by federal provincialterritorial committee on environmental and occupational health.