Residues of some organic pollutants, their bioaccumulation, and risk assessments profile in Lake Temsah, Ismailia, Egypt.

Almatari MS, Yousry M Ahmed, Laila Reda, Naglaa Loutfy and Tawfic Ahmed M*

Department of plant protection, Faculty of Agriculture, Suez Canal University, Ismailia, Egypt

Abstract

Residues of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (pahs), polychlorinated biphenyls (pcbs) and organochlorine pesticides (ocps) were monitored in Lake Temsah ecosystem including fish and bivalve species, water and sediment. The concentration of these organic pollutants were in the order of pahs>ocps> pcbs. The mean total concentrations of pcbs (Σ 11 pcbs) were in the order of sediment (49.8 ng/g), biota (29.7- 44.7 ng/g), water (16.1 ng/ml. PCB118, a dioxin -like congener is detected in almost all samples, at concentrations not exceeding 4.5-24% of Σ 11 pcbs. Concentration of pcbs in sediment samples (49.8 ng/g) exceeded the Canadian pcbs threshold effect level (TEL) of 21.5 ng/g, but were below pcbs probable effect level (PEL) of 189 ng/g. The ocps concentration reported in biota were below FDA Regulatory Action Levels of 0.3 µg/g in Fish.

For biota, bioaccumulation factors (BAF) of ocps (23.7-560) were much higher than those of pcbs (0.1-12.9) and pahs (0.1-1.2), with heptachlor epoxide showing the highest mean bioaccumulation factor (BAF). Similar trend was reported for the biota-sediment accumulation factor (bsafs) with values of 0.33 to 5.57 for ocps, 0.11 to 4.53 for pcbs, and 0.16 to 4.47 for pahs. The greatest BSAF values were for DDT metabolites.

Keywords: Organochlorine pesticides, PAHS, PCBS, fish, bivalves, water, sediment, bioaccumulation, BAF, BSAF, Egypt.

Accepted on September 21, 2017

Introduction

Pollution has a dire impacts on ecosystems and water bodies are among the most vulnerable. Persistent organic pollutants (POPs) are semi-volatile compounds, persistent in the environment, and toxic to humans and wildlife. Being lipophilic, POPs tend to accumulate in food chains and therefore may pose serious threats to higher trophic levels of aquatic communities and humans [1-7]. Due to these characteristics, exposure to these pollutants can cause potential health damage [6,7]. Organochlorine pesticides (OCPs) and polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) have been reported by Stockholm convention 2001 and The UNECE Protocol on POPs as a worldwide concern. PAHs are not included in the Stockholm Convention, but are listed in the UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe) Protocol on POPs and US EPA has reported sixteen PAHs as priority pollutants.

The persistence of many of the organochlorine pesticides in the environment has prompted continued studies aimed at evaluating their environmental impacts, including impact on wildlife and humans and their regulation worledwide. Although Egypt has been banneduse of organochlorine pesticides since the 1980s, they are still detected in various foods in the country [8]. Organochlorine pesticides are lipophilic and stable compounds. Their photo-oxidation, low vapour pressure, beside their low chemical and biological degradation rates have contributed to their accumulation in biological tissues and the subsequent magnification in organisms through food chains [9].

PCBs are priority pollutants, with wide impacts on man and his environment, including immunotoxicity, endocrine disruption

and tumor [10]. Despite the fact that the production and sale of PCBs has been prohibited in most countries for many decades, they still pose potential threats to the health of humans and aquatic life. PCBs persist in nature due to the same high physical and chemical stabilities that made them attractive for industrial use [11].

PAHs are classified as environmentally hazardous pollutants due to their known hydrophobic, mutagenic, and carcinogenic characteristics [12,13], in addition to their endocrine disrupting activity [14-16]. In fish, PAHs have been found to exert their toxicity following biotransformation through toxic metabolites, which can be bound covalently to cellular macromolecules such as proteins, DNA and RNA, causing cell damage, mutagenesis, teratogenesis and carcinogenesis [17].

PAHs include two main groups: the Low Molecular Weight (LMW, 2-3 rings) PAHs and the High Molecular Weight (HMW, 4-6 rings) PAHs. While they can occur through natural processes, such as oil leaks or digenesis, the highest concentrations are mainly originated from human activities, and the primary sources are combustion products. The International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) has previously classified 14 out of 50 PAHs as potentially hazardous to mankind. PAHs anthropogenic sources include combustion of organic matter (pyrolytic PAHs) besides being present in oils (petrogenic PAHs). Pyrolytic PAHs are released into the atmosphere, followed by their deposition on water and soil. Petrogenic PAHs may be discharged directly into water as a result of oil spills or naval and offshore oil drilling activities [18]. The ratios of certain specific PAH isomers have been applied to infer the sources of PAHs [19].

Aquatic organisms are among major targets of POPs because of their vulnerability to lipophilic contaminants that tend to accumulate in their tissues, sometimes reaching alarming concentrations [20]. Aquatic organisms are also time integrating, since they can indicate the presence of contaminants that are no longer in the water, or those whose presence or use is intermittent [21]. Their ability to accumulate contaminants in their tissues to elevated levels reaching concentrations much higher than that of ambient water, makes these biota useful for assessment purposes.

Bioaccumulation is the ability of a pollutant to accumulate in living tissues at levels higher than those in the surrounding environment. It is a process in which a chemical pollutant enters the body and is not excreted but rather accumulates in the organism's adipose tissues. Bioaccumulation is the net result of competing processes of absorption, ingestion, digestion, and excretion [22]. Bioaccumulation of chemicals in biota is also a chief factor for adverse effects, and ecosystem degradation [23].

The distribution behavior of the contaminants between water and biota can be expressed as bioaccumulation factor (BAF) [24]. BAF reflects uptake of a substance by aquatic organisms exposed to the substance through all routes (i.e., ambient water and food), as would occur in nature. Sediment contaminants can be released into the overlying water, resulting in potential adverse health effects to aquatic organisms [25-27]. Biota Sediment Accumulation Factor (BSAF) incorporates all of the conditions and parameters influencing the bioaccumulation of the chemicals at the measurement site.

Lake Temsah is the main brackish wetland ecosystem in governorate of Ismailia. The lake is the major source of fishes and bivalves consumed by the local population in the surrounding areas. The lake also embraces a number of other activities mainly related to fishing and shipping industries. The lake is the end point where some municipal, agricultural and industrial wastewaters are discharged (ECDG 2002). In addition, the corrosion of ships' hull coatings and the antifouling paints on ships awaiting berth would also contribute to lake contamination [28].

Monitoring is a repetitive observation for defined purposes of one or more chemical or biological elements over time and space, using comparable and standardized methods. A regular, systematic use of living organisms to evaluate changes in environmental or water quality, as in chemical monitoring and bioaccumulation monitoring, is called biological biomonitoring [29]. Aquatic organisms, including fish and bivalves are sound tool to reflect the quality of their environment.

Several monitoring studies have been carried out on the Temsah Lake to examine the pollution profile [30-35]. However, none of these studies dealt with bioaccumulation of POPs in the lake. Therefore the present study aimed to shed some light on the levels and profiles of OCPs, PCBs and PAHs in the Temsah lake ecosystem compartments (sediment, water and biota). The study has also meant to identify sources of contaminants based on their profile and to determine the bioaccumulation patterns of some of them.

Materials and Methods

Study area

Lake Temsah is a small water body (~15 km²), lies on the Suez Canal at mid-way between Port Said and Suez. It lies between 30° 23' and 30° 36' N latitude and 30° 16' and 32° 21' E longitude. The lake has nearly a triangular shape with elongated sides extending roughly East-West. The lake receives high salinity water from the Suez Canal, mainly from the south, beside some drain and freshwater from surrounding areas.

Sampling

Water, sediment and biota samples were collected from four sites in the lake Temsah during November 2014.Selection of organisms was based on the different niches in which they normally thrive within the lake ecosystem.

Two bivalve species, pullet carpet shell (Venerupis pullastra) and textile venus clam (Paphia textile) and two fish species tilapia and mullet (Tilapia zilli and Mugil cephalus) were collected by fishermen stationed at different parts of the lake. Fishes had an average weight of 120 to 200 g respectively.

Sediment samples were collected from the top 10-cm layer of the lake's bottom. Samples were air-dried for 14 days, then shell and plant fragments were removed by passing the dried sample through a 2-mm sieve. The sieved sample was powdered and stored in the deep freeze until analysis. The total organic carbon (TOC) was determined by Walkley and Black method described by Jackson (1967).

Water samples were collected into brown glass bottles pre - washed with detergent, rinsed with water and pure acetone (99.9%) and then dried before samples collection. Samples were taken from 0.1 m below the water surface and transported directly to the lab. All samples were sent to central agricultural pesticides laboratory in Cairo and biota samples stored in deep-freezer at 4°C until the analysis.

Samples preparation

The edible parts of fish and bivalves were homogenized in food processor. Incremental samples were mixed and homogenized together to obtain an aggregate sample. Fat content was determined according to the method of Association of Official Analytical Chemists (AQAC) (1995). Organic matter determined by using Walkley and Black methods described by Jackson (1967).

Samples extraction and clean up

Water samples: Solid-phase extraction method was used to separate PAHs and organochlorine pesticides of water samples. The 360 mg C18 Sep-Pak cartridges were prepared with 10 ml methanol followed by 10 ml demonized water without allowing the cartridge to dry out. Then100 ml of water sample was added to the cartridge, allowing to pass through at a rate of 6 ml/min. The cartridges were then sucked dry for 5 minutes to remove all liquid, then the sample eluted with 5 ml ethyl acetate. The extract was evaporated with N2, adding 2 ml hexane and then transfer it to deep freezer until analysis.

Sediment samples: 10 g sediment, 10 ml of acetonitrile, 1 g of sodium chloride and 4 g of anhydrous magnesium sulfate $(MgSO_4)$ was added to centrifuge tube (50 ml), the tube were closed and the tube vigorously shaken for 1 min using a vortex mixer, and centrifuged for 5 min at 4500 rpm and 4°C. An aliquot of 1 mL supernatant was transferred to new clean 15-mL centrifuge tube and cleaned up by dispersive solid-phase extraction with 25 mg PSA and 150 mg MgSO₄. The sample was again vortexed for 1 min and then centrifugation was carried out as mentioned above. Then, 1 mL of the supernatant were taken, filtered through a 0.22-µm PTFE filter (Millipore, Billerica, MA) and transferred into a glass vial for GC analysis.

Biota samples: 10 g homogenized fish, or bivalve, 10 ml of acetonitrile, 1 g of sodium chloride and 4 g of anhydrous magnesium sulfate was added to centrifuge tube (50 ml), the tube were closed and the tube vigorously shaken for 1 min using a vortex mixer, and centrifuged for 5 min at 4500 rpm and 4°C. An aliquot of 1 mL supernatant was transferred to new clean 15-mL centrifuge tube and cleaned up by dispersive solid-phase extraction with 25 mg PSA, 25 mg C18 and 150 mg MgSO₄. The sample was again vortexed for 1 min and then centrifugation was carried out as mentioned above. Then, 1 mL of the supernatant were taken, filtered through a 0.22-µm PTFE filter (Millipore, Billerica, MA) and transferred into a glass vial for GC analysis.

Determination of OCPs and PCBs

The extracts of OCPs and PCBs were concentrated and injected into Gas chromatography (GC) (Aglient 6890) equipped with a 63Ni ECD, a split/splitless injection inlet, capillary column capability, and a 7683A autosampler. Chemistation software was used for instrument control. GC analysis was conducted on a HP-5MS (Aglient, Folsom, CA) capillary column of 30 m, 0.25 mm id., 0.25 µm film thickness. The oven temperature was programmed between an initial temperature 160 (2 min hold) to 240°C at a rate of 5°C min⁻¹ and was maintained at 240°C for 20 min. Injector and detector temperature were maintained at 260 and 320°C, respectively. Nitrogen was used as a carrier at flow rate of 3 ml min⁻¹. All OCPs and PCBs congener's reference standards were obtained from Dr. Ehrenstorfer, Augsburg in Germany. Method sensitivity and recovery were determined by using samples spiked with the tested compounds and congeners. Before analysis, relevant standards were run to check column performance, peak height, resolution, and limits of detection. Peaks were identified by comparison of sample retention time value with those of the corresponding of pure standard compounds. With each set of samples to be analyzed, a solvent blank, a standard mixture and a procedural blank were run in sequence to check for contamination, peak identification and quantification. The average recovery percentages of OCPs and PCBs for fortified samples at different levels were determined and calculated for all tested compounds in each aquatic system compartment. The average recovery percentages of OCPs and PCBs for fortified samples at different levels were determined and calculated for all tested compounds in each aquatic system compartment. Mean Recovery of organochlorine pollutants were 86.85 ± 5.4 , 83.50 ± 5.12 and 84.71 ± 5.68 in water, sediment and fish sample, respectively. PCBs recovery percentage were 93, 88 and 91% for water, sediment and biota samples respectively.

Determination of PAHs

A gas liquid chromatograph (Hewlett-Packard Model 5890N series II) with split/splitless injection system, capillary column capability, and flam ionization detector was used for analysis of PAHs. GC analysis for PAHs was conducted on a HP-608 (Agilent, Folsom, CA) fused silica capillary column of 30 m length, 0.53 mm id., 0.5 µm film thickness. The oven temperature was programmed between an initial temperature 70 (2 min hold) to 260°C at a rate of 6°C min-1 and was maintained at 260°C for 15 min. Injector and detector temperature were maintained at 280 and 300°C, respectively. Nitrogen was used as a carrier at flow rate of 4 ml/min. Chemstation software was used for instrument control and data analysis. Peak was identified by comparison of sample retention time value with those of the corresponding of pure standard compounds. The peak identities in samples with high PAH levels were further confirmed by GC/ MS analysis.

Quality control

Preparation of blank solution: The same volume of solvents and anhydrous sodium sulfate used in extraction of OCPs and PCBs from water, sediment and fish samples were subjected to the same procedures as the examined samples to detect any possible traces of the studies pesticides or PCBs and its value was subtracted between the results.

Recoveries were carried out by the addition of PAHs standards mixture at different levels. All data were corrected according to the recovery percentage values. Compounds were identified by matching retention time against those of authentic standard.

For confirmation: Selected samples were analyzed by full scan GC-MS to confirm the GC-ECD results. The column used was HP-5MS (Aglient, Folsom, CA) capillary column of 30 m, 0.25 mm id., 0.25 μ m film thickness. The carrier gas was helium at a flow rate of 0.5 ml min⁻¹. Inlet temperature was 225°C with injection volume of 2 μ l (splitless injector). The column temperature was set at 70°C for 1min and then programmed at 10°C min⁻¹ to reach 200°C. GC-MS interface was 280°C. Chemistation software was used for instrument control and data analysis.

Accuracy and sensitivity: Method sensitivity and recovery were determined by using samples spiked with the tested compounds and congeners. Before analysis, relevant standards were run to check column performance, peak height, resolution, and limits of detection. Peak was identified by comparison of sample retention time value with those of the corresponding of pure standard compounds. With each set of samples to be analyzed, a solvent blank, a standard mixture and a procedural blank were run in sequence to check for contamination, peak identification and quantification. The average recovery percentages of OCPs and PCBs for fortified samples at different levels were determined and calculated for all tested compounds in each aquatic system compartment.

Bioaccumulation assessment

Bioaccumulation is measured with the bioaccumulation factor (BAF) which is defined as the ratio of the concentration of a chemical accumulated inside an organism to its concentration in the ambient environment at a steady state (U.S. Environmental

Protection Agency, 2010). Biota-Sediment Accumulation Factor (BSAF) is a parameter describing bioaccumulation of sediment-associated organic compounds into tissues of ecological receptors. In essence, it is a fugacity ratio for the chemical of interest between the organism and sediment. Because the contaminants concentration in water and /or sediment were mostly below the detection limit, it was only possible to calculate BAF and BSAF only for contaminants that mentioned in Tables 1 and 2. The BSAF are calculated by dividing the lipid-normalized tissue concentration by the organic carbon-normalized sediment concentration [36,37]. BAF was calculated according to the equation of Mackay and Fraser [38] as follows:

 $BAF = Cb(\mu g/kg)/Cw(\mu g/L)$

BSAF = (Cb / R) / (Cs / oc)

Table 1. Bioaccumulation factor (BAF) of reported contaminants, Lake Temsah.

Compound	Tilapia zilli	Mugil cephalus	Paphia textile	Venerupis pullastra
		PCBs		
PCB44	2.2	3.1	0.4	0.7
PCB101	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.4
PCB152	12.9	4.5	4.3	0.9
PCB180	0.3	0.4	none	0.4
PCB192	0.5	0.7	none	0.5
		PAHs		
Pyrene	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.5
Benzo(b) fluoranthene	none	0.1	0.1	1.2
	Orga	anochlorine pe	sticides	
α- HCH	74.4	none	none	none
Heptchlor epoxide	none	560	226.7	none
p,p-DDE	32.7	50.8	102.1	72.4
p,p-DDD	none	none	65.6	none
p,p-DDT	40	none	none	none
Heptachlor	none	none	123.3	none

Table 2. Biota-sediment accumulation factor (BSAF) of reported contaminants, Lake Temsah.

	Tilapia zilli	Mugil cephalus	Paphia textile	Venerupis pullastra					
		PCBs							
PCB52	0.68	0.52	1	2.32					
PCB44	4.53	3.26	2.21	2.21					
PCB101	0.11	0.06	0.47	0.66					
PCB118	0.26	0.14	1.09	0.23					
PCB105	0.5	none	none	0.86					
PCB138	0.13	none	1.96	none					
PCB180	0.31	0.19	none	0.61					
PCB192	0.62	0.42	none	0.81					
		PAHs							
Naphthalene	0.16	none	0.35	none					
Flourene	none	none	2.79	none					
Pyrene	0.83	0.71	3.88	4.47					
Organochlorine pesticides									
γ-HCH 0.33 none none 0.90									
Heptchlor epoxide	none	0.75	1.8	none					
Dieldrin	0.60	none	1.01	0.19					
p,p-DDE	0.59	0.46	5.57	1.97					
p,p-DDD	none	none	5.2	none					

where Cw is the water chemical concentration, Cb is the organism chemical concentration (ng/g wet weight), R is the lipid content of the organism (g lipid/g wet weight), Cs is the surficial sediment chemical concentration (ng/g dry weight) and oc is the organic carbon content of the sediments (g organic carbon/g sediment dry w) respectively.

Results and Discussion

Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons residues

Residual levels of 14 congeners of PAHs in biota, water and sediment samples from Lake Temsah are presented in Table 3. Generally, many of the PAHs congeners were below their limits of detection for all samples. Detected levels of PAHs had the descending order of sediment >Mugil cephalus (mallet)>Paphia textile>Tilapia zilli (tilapia)> water samples>Venerupis pullastra. Based on the lipid content biota samples are arranged in the order of Mugil cephalus (0.06), Tilapia zilli (0.03), Venerupis pullastra (0.02), and Paphia textile (0.01). Discrepancies in the lipid content and PAHs residue level is an indication that bioaccumulation is not only governed by lipid content but other factors might be also involved.

The mean total PAHs concentrations (14 congeners) in fish and bivalves samples ranged from 53.3 to 125.1 and from 42.6 to 90.8 ng /g respectively. In the current study lipid levels were not associated with PAHs concentration in bivalve's samples. Water samples showed contamination level of 45.8 ng/ml with Benzo (b)fluoranthene and pyrene as the only two detectable congeners. In case of the sediment samples, naphthalene, benzo(b)fluoranthene and pyrene were the only detectable congeners with mean total concentration of 259.4 ng/g . PAHs in aquatic systems tend to accumulate in sediments, resulting in long-term effects on benthic organisms [39]. After being accumulated in sediments, it is difficult for PAHs to decompose via photochemical degradation or microbial oxidation [40]. As a result, sediments serve as a major reservoir for PAHs contamination [41,42]. Humans can be directly or indirectly exposed to PAHs in sediments, and so studies of PAHs distributions in sediments are urgently needed [43,44].

Residues of PAHs detected in tilapia fish (53.3 ng/g) were less than those detected in mullet fish (125.1 ng/g). Such variation in the magnitude of PAHs accumulation could be explained in view of fat content and the ecological niche of each, with special reference to feeding habits, and position in the lake ecosystem. Mullet fish feed primarily on detritus residing on the sediment, and also on plankton and use gizzard - like stomach to aid with digestion [45,46]. With much of the persistent pollutants end up on the lake bottom, feeding on bottom detritus, sand and mud particles, would allow considerable amount of pollutants to move to fish through ingestion [47]. On the other hand, tilapia fish is a water column feeder that feed on PAHs while moving down the bottom through the water column.

The mean total concentration of PAHs in the bivalve Paphia textile (90.8 ng/g) was two times higher than the other bivalve (Venerupis pullastra) (42.6 ng/g). This is possibly because Venerupis pullastra lives only few centimeters under the water surface while, Paphia textile is an in faunal filter feeding clam commonly found in sandy -muddy bottoms of the intertidal and

		Tilapia	zilli (ng/	g)	Ŵ	ıgil ceph	alus (ng	(g)	ď	aphia tex	tile (ng/g	_	Veneru	ipis pu	illastra ((6/6u	-	Vater(r	(Im/g		.,	Sediment	(6/6u) :	
SUA	min	Max	mean	S.D	min	Max	mean	S.D	min	max.	mean	S.D	min	max	mean	S.D	min	max	nean	S.D	min	max	mean	S.D
Naphthalene	ри	59.7	29.9	26.7	pu	pu	ı	ı	ри	44.5	22.3	19.9	ри	pu	,		pu	pu			150.6	229.8	190.2	102.1
Acenaphthylene	14.4	14.8	14.6	œ	pu	53.8	26.9	24.1	pu	pu		1	pu	pu	,		pu	pu			pu	pu	,	
Acenaphthene	р	pu		•	53.5	104.8	79.2	47	pu	pu		•	pu	pu	,		pu	pu			pu	pu	,	
Flourene	р	pu		•	pu	pu		1	50.2.	69.5	59.9	33.5	ри	pu			pu	pu			56.6	72.1	64.4	34.1
Phenanthrene	pu	ри		•	pu	pu	ı	1	ри	pu	,	ı	3.8	3.8	3.8	2.1	pu	pu			pu	pu		
Anthracene	pu	pu		•	pu	10.3	5.2	4.6	pu	pu		1	pu	pu			pu	pu			pu	pu		
Fluoranthene	2.8	4.8	3.8	2	3.2	3.8	3.5	1.6	ри	pu		1	p	pu			pu	pu			pu	pu		
Pyrene	pu	7.9	4	3.5	pu	13.5	6.8	9	3.9	8.4	6.2	3.14	9.4	19.2	14.3	3.9	19.7	37.3	28.5	5.5	3.2	6.3	4.8	2.3
Chrysene	pu	2	-	0.9	pu	3.2	1.6	4.1	р	1.5	0.75	0.7	1.1	2.1	1.6	0.9	pu	pu	1	1	pu	ри		
Σ LOW	17.2	89.2	53.3	•	56.7	189.4	123.2		54.1	123.9	89.2	•	14.3	25.1	19.7		19.7	37.3	28.5		210.4	308.2	259.4	•
Dibenzo(a,h) anthrathene	pu	pu		•	pu	pu	1	1	ри	ри	,	•	р	ри			pu	ри			pu	р		1
Benzo(b) fluoranthene	pu	pu	ı		pu	3.7	1.9	1.6	pu	3.2	1.6	4.	8.0	33.6	21.3	10.4	14.4	20.1	17.3	8.8	pu	ри		ı
Benzo(k)fluorantnene	р	pu		•	pu	pu			pu	pu		•	ри	pu			pu	pu			pu	pu		
Benzo(a)pyrene	р	pu		•	pu	pu		1	pu	pu		1	pu	pu	,		pu	pu			pu	pu	,	
Benzo(ghi)perylene	ри	pu		•	pu	pu			pu	pu		1	pu	3.1	1.6	1 .4	pu	pu			pu	pu	,	
Σ High	•		•	•	•	3.7	1.9	•	•	3.2	1.6	1.4	6.8	36.7	22.8	•	14.4	20.1	17.3	•			•	ı
ΣPAHs	17.2	89.2	53.3	•	56.7	193.1	125.1		54.1	132.1	90.8		23.2	61.8	42.6	•	34.1	57.4	45.8	•	210.4	308.2	259.4	
E LOW/ E High				•	ı	ı	64.8		ı	1	55.8	ı			0.87		1	1	1.65		,	1		
Fluoranthene/ Pyrene	1	ı	0.95	•	•		0.51	1	•			ı	,	•	,			1			,		,	I
				Tahle	2 Pol	, office	womatic	Jonhud	arbons	(DAHc)	vociduos	ioid ni v	ta wat	puo no	io mipos	t come	lat lat	~ Tome	db					



sub littoral zones of the coastal environment [48], hence having the chance to accumulate much of persistent pollutants residing on the lakebed.

Previous monitoring programs have reported that the pollution level in Lake Temsah is much higher than other wetlands in Egypt of other lagoons around [49,33]. Mostafa, [33] reported that PAHs contamination level in clams had a mean value of 28.4 mg /kg for total PAHs and 24.4 mg /kg for carcinogenic PAHs. Indeno (1,2,3-cd) pyrene, was the most frequently detected congener, followed by benzo(a) pyrene, dibenzo(a,h)anthracene, and benzo(b)fluoranthene. Tundo et al. (2004), reported that PAHs concentrations for sediment samples from Temsah lake are (27.8-544.7 ng/g) with benzo (bkj) fluoranthene had the highest concentrations in almost all sampling stations. Ali et al. [50] reported Σ 16 PAHs, with concentrations ranging between 585.9-8592.8 µg/kg in sediment, 1694-4785.7 µg/kg in fish and 52.46-3393 μ g/l in water samples with predominance of high molecular weight PAHs in all samples. Similarly, Said and EL Agroudy [51] reported a concentration mean of 10.78 μ g/l and $87.69 \,\mu\text{g/g}$ for water and Osteicthyes fish samples respectively, with benzo (a) pyrene as the most dominant congener in water samples with an average concentration of $3.8 \mu g/l$.

The present results are also below the concentrations of 16 PAHs reported for water (192.5 to 2651 ng/l) and sediment (127.1 to 927.7 ng/g) from Tonghui River, Beijing varied by Zhang et al. [52].

The concentration of total PAHs reported in this study for the two fish species are close to the levels determined for the same species (tilabia: 19.7 ng/g and mullet: 154.3 ng/g) collected from the vicinity of the Temsah lake [53]. This would indicate that the concentration level of PAHs in Lake Temsah is almost stable for the last ten years.

The spectrum of PAHs in the lake ecosystem, including water, biota, and sediment, can provide some information about emission source. In the present study, the ratio of high molecular weight, to low molecular weight PAHs (HMW-PAHs to LMW-PAHs) has been used to characterize the origin of PAHs in the lake ecosystem (Table 4). The prevalence of LMW PAHs are typical for PAHs mixtures generated by petrogenic pollution [54].

On the other hand, PAHs emitted from combustion processes (pyrolytic origin) would often contain elevated concentrations of HMW (e.g., phenanthrene, fluoranthene, pyrene) and fewer LMW PAHs [55]. Therefore LMW/HMW>1 suggests a petrogenic origin, whereas LMW/HMW<1 indicates pyrolytic sources [56]. Likewise, ratios between individual PAHs compounds (like Phenanthrene/Anthracene and Flouranthene/ pyrene) are used to identify the processes from which PAHs originate [57]. Baumard et al. [58] suggested that because pyrene is more stable than fluoranthene, hence pyrolytic products are usually characterized by a predominance of fluoranthene over pyrene at a ratio>1.

In the current study many of the PAHs congeners were below limits of detection, therefore it was not possible to analyze the congeners profile for all studied species. In addition, LMW PAHs were predominant in all samples with naphthalene as the main contributor, with a ratio of 70 %, 56%, 24%, of all PAHs for sediment, Tilapia zilli and Paphia textile samples respectively. US ATSDR considers naphthalene as a human carcinogen [59]. Naphthalene is widely used as an intermediate in the production of many surfactants and pesticides [60]. The ratio of LMW/HMW were higher than one in Mugil cephalus and Paphia textile indicating that the sources of these PAHs is petrogenic [61], while the ratio for the other bivalve species (Venerupis pullastra) was below one suggesting a pyrogenic source of pollution.

PAHs of petrogenic sources show characteristically higher proportion of LMW congeners, while pyrogenic PAHs have characteristically higher proportion of HWM PAHs (LMW / HMW<1) [61]. The available fluoranthene/pyrene ratio for fish species (Tilapia zilli and Mugil cephalus) was below one suggesting petrogenic source of PAHs pollution.

The low molecular weight PAHs (LMW PAHs) are acutely toxic to many aquatic organisms, whereas the high molecular weight PAHs (HMW PAHs) are strongly carcinogenic and mutagenic [62]. In the present study benzo (g,h,i) perylene was detected in only one sample of bivalve (Venerupis pullastra), while residues of benzo(b)fluoranthene were detected in the biota and water samples. Benzo (a) pyrene, commonly used as an indicator for PAHs in ambient air and food, has not been detected in any samples of water, biota or sediment. Meanwhile, benzo (b) fluoranthene and pyrene were the only congeners detected in all samples at detectable concentration.

In the present study, PAHs associated risk in sediments was assessed by applying the "US Sediment Quality Guidelines" (SQGs) [11,63]. SQGs provide two effects-based sediment guideline values: effects range-low (ERL) and effects rangemedian (ERM), which quantitatively assess the adverse biological effects in sediments [64]. Accordingly, PAHs will not be harmful to the environment and its biota when their concentrations are lower than ERL; while PAHs concentrations higher than ERM, will show negative impacts frequently. PAHs with concentrations between ERL and ERM are considered to be harmful occasionally [63,64]. Concentrations of Σ PAHs in sediments of Lake Temsah was less than the ERL value of 4749 ng/g dw. But mean concentration of naphthalene and flourene were 190.2 and 64.4 ng/g dw respectively, exceeding the ERL value of 160 and 19 ng/g dw. These results indicated that the probability of ecological risk associated with these PAHs was below 10% and the adverse biological toxicity effect would occur occasionally.

Polychlorinated biphenyls residues levels

Concentration of eleven PCBs congeners are presented in Table 5. The levels of different chlorinated congeners varied significantly, ranging from ND to 34.6 ng/g in tilapia (Tilapia zilli), ND to 12.8 ng/g in mullet (Mugil cephalus), ND to 14.6 ng/g in Paphia textile, ND to 25 ng/g in Venerupis pullastra, ND to 11.5 ng/ml in water and ND to 22.3 ng/g in sediment samples. The mean concentrations of total PCBs (Σ 11 PCBs) reported in this study were in the order of: sediment (49.8 ng/g)>Tilapia zilli (44.7ng/g)>>Venerupis pullastra (33.1 ng/g)>Paphia textile (29.2 ng/g)>Mugil cephalus (27.8 ng/g)>water (16.1

		Tilapia	ızilli (ngı	(g)	MU	gil ceph	gn) sule	(B)	Pa	phia text	tile (ng/ç	(1	Vene	rupis pu	llastra (n	g/g)		Water (n	(Iml)			Sedimen	t (ng/g)	
	min	max.	mean	S.D	min	тах	mean	S.D	min	max.	mean	S.D	min	max	mean	S.D	min	max	mean	S.D	min	max	mean	S.D
α- HCH	12	22.1	17.1	10	pu	pu			pu	pu		,	pu	pu			0.14	0.32	0.23	0.1	pu	pu		
β- нсн	pu	pu	•	,	pu	5.3	2.7	2.4	pu	3.6	1.8	1.6	pu	11.2	5.6	5	pu	pu	,	,	pu	pu	,	
ү-нсн	3.5	22	12.8	9.6	pu	pu	,	ı	pu	pu		•	2.8	44	23.4	18.9	pu	pu	,	•	11.5	66.3	38.9	23.6
Heptachlor	pu	pu	•		pu	pu			pu	14.7	7.4	6.6	pu	pu			0.04	0.07	0.06	0.03	pu	pu		
Heptchlor epoxide	ри	pu			11.2	22.3	16.8	10	2.3	11.2	6.8	4.9	pu	pu	,	ı	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.01	р	22.3	22.3	7.9
aldrin	р	pu	•	•	pu	pu		1	pu	pu		•	pu	pu			0.02	0.04	0.03	0.02	pu	11.3	11.3	4
Endrin	р	pu		•	pu	pu		ı	pu	pu			pu	pu			pu	0.23	0.12	0.08	pu	pu		
Dieldrin	5	55.3	30.16	24.6	pu	pu	,	ı	pu	33.8	16.9	15.1	pu	12.3	6.2	5.5	pu	pu	,	•	11.7	88.3	50	30.6
γ- chlordane	ри	pu			pu	pu			pu	pu		•	pu	pu			pu	pu		,	pu	pu		
p,p-DDE	2.3	22.5	12.4	9.9	5.5	33	19.3	12.8	pu	77.5	38.8	34.7	11	44	27.5	19.1	0.05	0.71	0.38	0.3	18.9	22.8	20.85	9.7
p,p-DDD	pu	pu	•	,	pu	pu	,	ı	pu	23.5	11.8	10.5	pu	pu	,		0.14	0.21	0.18	0.08	pu	13.5	13.5	4.8
p,p-DDT	ри	3.2	1.6	•	pu	pu	,	ı	pu	pu	ı	1	pu	pu	,		0.01	0.07	0.04	1	pu	pu	,	
methoxychlor	pu	pu	1	ı	pu	pu	,	ī	pu	pu	,	,	pu	pu	,		0.12	0.35	0.24	,	pu	pu	,	
Z OCPs	22.8	125.1	74.1	•	16.7	60.6	38.8		2.3	164.3	83.5	•	13.8	111.5	62.7		0.54	2.03	1.31	•	42.1	224.5	156.8	•
					T.11.		1.1			1000	- T					1	r -1- 7	1						

•	•
	2
	ä
	2
	5
F	2
1	
	3
	3
	3
	.
	Š
•	2
	Д,
	2
	a
	S
	11
	õ
	ž
	Ê.
	ā.
	ŝ
	2
	8
	ς.
	6
1	5
	2
	~
	'n,
•	₹.
•	2
•	9
	2
•	2
	S
	ē.
•	2
•	2
	<u> </u>
	2
2	~
5	7
(<u> </u>
ς	2
`	
	Ē
	S
	ies (
	ides (
	cides (
	inclues (
	ssticides (
	pesticides (
	s pesticides (
	ne pesticides (
	ine pesticides (
	orine pesticides (
	<i>iorine pesticides (</i>
	chlorine pesticides (
	ochlorine pesticides (
	nochlorine pesticides (
	anochlorine pesticides (
	ganochlorine pesticides (
	Jrganochlorine pesticides (
	Urganochlorine pesticides (
	4. Urganochlorine pesticides (
	et. Urganochlorine pesticides (
	le 4. Urganochlorine pesticides (
	uble 4. Urganochlorine pesticides (
	able 4. Urganochlorine pesticides (

	~										-		
	S.D	•	6.8	1.3	•	2.6	•	5.7	2.6	7.9	2.2	0.9	'
nt (ng/g)	mean	•	11.7	1.9		5.7	•	9.6	5.2	11.2	3.2	1.3	49.8
Sedime	max	pu	19.5	3.7	pu	9	pu	16.3	6.9	22.3	6.3	2.6	83.6
	min	pu	3.9	pu	pu	5.4	pu	2.8	3.4	pu	pu	pu	15.5
	S.D		1	2.1	1	4.1	-	1	1		1.9	-	
ater J/ml)	mean			4		5.8	1. 4.				3.4	1.5	16.1
Š Ú	max	ри	ри	5.7	р	11.5	2.8	ри	р	ри	5.3	2.9	28.2
	min	pu	р	2.3	ри	pu	ри	pu	ри	pu	۲. 4	pu	3.7
(B/B	S.D		7	2.5	1.7	2.2	~	1.3	2.6		1.1	0.6	
ıllastra (n	mean		18.1	2.8	2	2.5	1.2	1.5	e		1.3	0.7	33.1
erupis pu	max	pu	25	5.6	3.9	5	2.3	2.9	5.9	pu	2.5	1.3	54.4
Ven	min	pu	11.2	pu	ри	pu	ри	pu	ри	pu	р	pu	11.2
•	S.D		3.6	1.3	3.7	0.8	5.3	3.1	1	6.5	ı		
tile (ng/g)	mean		5.9	1.4	4.2	0.9	9	3.5		7.3			29.2
aphia tex	max	pu	8.1	2.8	8.3	1.8	11.9	6.9	pu	14.6	pu	pu	54.4
Ë	min	pu	3.6	pu	pu	pu	pu	pu	pu	pu	pu	pu	3.6
(B)	S.D		e	6.1		0.6	5.6	1.5			-	0.9	
ngn) sul	mean		3.4	12.4		0.7	6.3	2.7			1.2	1.1	27.8
il cepha	Мах	pu	6.7	12.8	pu	1.3	12.5	2.8	pu	pu	2.3	2.1	40.5
ВпМ	min	pu	pu	11.9	pu	pu	pu	2.5	pu	pu	pu	pu	14.4
	S.D		5.7	5.5	0.9	0.5	15.4	4.1	2.3	1.3	0.9	0.7	
(lii (ng/g)	mean		8	8.6	1.1	0.6	18	2.5	2.6	1.5	-	0.8	44.7
Tilapia zi	Мах	pu	13.2	13.4	2.1	1.1	34.7	2.7	5.2	2.9	2	1.6	78.9
	min	pu	2.7	3.7	pu	pu	1.2	2.3	pu	pu	pu	pu	9.9
Compounds		PCB28	PCB52	PCB44	PCB70	PCB101	PCB152	PCB118	PCB105	PCB138	PCB180	PCB192	∑ PCBs

ng/ml (PCBs are very lipophilic compounds and in many studies higher lipid content is associated with higher PCBs concentration [65,66]. However, in the current study lipid levels were not associated with PCBs concentration in case of fish samples. The amount of PCBs found in the biota samples are demonstrably not correlated with the sediment PCBs content.

For benthic fauna there are three possible pathways of contaminant exposure: direct contact with sediment, organic and inorganic sediment ingestion, and contact with interstitial or overlying water [67]. According to Quensen et al. [68] and MacDonald et al. [69] differences in congener composition in the aquatic systems may be attributed to a decline in the proportion of less chlorinated PCBs that are more susceptible to losses through volatilization, sedimentation and possibly microbial degradation.

In the present study some variations in congener composition were observed between all studied samples. Generally PCBs 152, 44, 138 and 52 were the congeners that contributed more to total PCBs in the studied species, PCB28 was not detected in any of the samples, along with many other congeners, while PCB180 was detected in almost all samples except Paphia textile. PCB 180 is assumed to be the most persistent congeners due to its high chlorination level [70]. PCB 118 was the only dioxin- like PCB detected congener. The mean concentrations of PCB 118 were in the order of water: (0 ng/ml), Venerupis pullastra (1.5 ng/g), Tilapia zilli (2.5 ng/g), Mugil cephalus (2.7 ng/g) and Paphia textile (3.5 ng/g), while sediment presented a higher value of 9.6 ng/g., with a ratio not exceeding 4.5-24% of Σ 11 PCBs at the different samples.

The presence and distribution of PCBs in edible fish is an important issue, not only for public health, but also from an ecological perspective. Sediment is a significant repository of environmental contaminants. Sediment analysis constitutes a tool of especial importance in aquatic ecosystem quality assessment, since sediments can reflect long-term contamination levels. Moreover, sediment is acting as reservoirs of all diversity of persistent pollutants and thus a source of potential contamination to benthic organisms [71,72]. The mean PCBs concentration (Σ 11PCBs) reported for sediment in this study (49.8ng/g dry w) is much higher than PCBs concentration (Σ 12 PCBs) of 2.6 ng/g dw for sediments of Montego estuary, Portugal [73].

Residues of PCBs in water samples reported in this study (Table 5) (16.1 ng/ml), are much higher than level (Σ PCB 5.2 to 190.8 ng/L) detected for surface water samples from Czech Republic [74], and water samples collected from the Houston Ship Channel in USA (0.49 to 12.49 ng/L for 209 PCB) [20], and PCB levels in surface water from Tonghui River of Beijing, China (31.58 to 344.9 ng/l) [52].

According to the USEPA guideline, the concentration of PCBs should be less than 14 ng/l for water, in order to be considered safe for aquatic and human health. Hence, the surface water of Temsah Lake is considered rather polluted by PCBs (Σ PCBs ranged from 3.7 to 28.2 ng/ml) and would need the introduction of abatement measures to cut down the pollution level and improve its quality.

On the other hand, Σ 11 PCBs detected in the sediment of the lake (49.8 ng/g dry w) was comparable to sum of PCB 28, 52, 101, 118, 138, 153, and 180 that detected in the sediment of Brno reservoir, Czech Republic that ranged from <LOQ to 77.6 μ g /kg dw [75].

In the present study the mean value of \sum PCBs varied between of 27.8-44.7 ng/g wet weight, which is below the limit established for the muscle meat of fish and fishery products (75 ng/g wet weight) for Σ PCB28, PCB52, PCB101, PCB138, PCB153 and PCB180 set by European Commission [76] No. 1259/2011. Hence, there is no danger for human consuming fish and bivalves species from Lake Temsah.

Canadian sediment quality guidelines [77] can be used to assess the degree to which adverse biological effects are likely to occur as a consequence of exposure to PCBs in sediments. The present study revealed that concentrations detected in sediment samples from Temsah Lake (49.8 ng/g) exceeded the PCB threshold effect level (TEL), i.e. 21.5 ng/g, but were below PCB probable effect level (PEL), (189 ng/g.) Therefore, sediment of the Temsah Lake may be considered as a highly stressful environment, since PCB toxic effects may occur on benthic biota of the lake.

Organochlorine pesticides residues level

Thirteen OCP compounds were detected in the aquatic biota, water and sediment samples from Temsah Lake (Table 4). For biota, Σ OCPs residues ranged from 38.8 to 83.5 (ng/g). Water showed the lowest level of organochlorine pesticides residues (Σ OCPs 1.31 ng/ml), while sediment contained the highest, i.e. 156.8ng/g. This may indicate the effective removal of OCPs from water to sediments.

DDE was the dominant OCPs in biota and water samples. DDE also contributes significantly to the total OCPs (tilapia 16.7%, mullet 49.7, Paphia textile 46.5%, Venerupis pullastra 43%, and water 29%). While dieldrin was the dominant OCPs in sediment with a contribution of 31.9% of total OCPs residues. DDT was detected only in tilapia and water at concentration of 1.6 ng/g and 0.04ng/ml respectively. Methoxychlor was detected only in water with mean value of 0.24 ng/ml.

p,p-DDT was detected in water samples with concentration ranged from 0.01 ng/ml to 0.07 ng/ml and in tilapia samples with concentrations ranging from ND to 3.2 ng/g, suggesting recent input of this compound to the lake, Storm water might have carried DDTs from several sources such as agricultural lands or municipal areas which are sprayed for hygiene purposes and vector control.

DDT was widely used in Egypt on a variety of agricultural crops and for the control of disease vectors. Although its usage was banned in Egypt since 1970s, its detection along with its breakdown products, in sediments is expected because of its stability and long persistence estimated to be in the range of 10-20 years [78].

In general, the OCPs concentrations reported in biota samples in this study are far below FDA Regulatory Action Levels (Regulatory Values) of $0.3 \mu g/g$ in Fish for OCPs (Endrin, Dieldrin, Heptachlor, aldrin, heptchlor epoxide, chlordane and HCH) and 5 μ g/g for total DDT in freshwater and marine fish [79].

The ratios of the parent DDT to its metabolites provide useful information on the identification of pollution source in biota, water and sediment. Concentrations reported in this study for all samples showed a common concentration sequence of DDE>DDD>DDT. In the present study, the concentration of DDE and DDD are much higher than that of DDT in all samples. This in turn would indicate a long-term biotransformation process whereby DDT is converted to DDE and DDD. Moreover, this would also indicate that there is no fresh input of DDT into the lake [80].

BAF and BSAF

The bioaccumulation factor is used to describe the process by which an organism absorbs contaminants from its environment and food [81]. Another factor frequently used to evaluate contaminant accumulation is the BSAF. Together, the BAF and BSAF represent bioaccumulation from dissolved and suspended contaminants in the water.

BAF and BSAF are commonly used as an index of the extent of bioaccumulation at a particular site because they represent the ratio of the chemical concentration in the organism to the concentration in the environmental medium (i.e., tissue residue divided by the sediment or water). In some cases like the present study, BSAF are normalized to site-specific conditions such as lipid content of the organism and the organic matter content of sediment. Organic matter content is particularly relevant in the context of accumulation of hydrophobic organic contaminants since it represents a factor directly influencing the concentration of PCBs in bottom sediments. Tomza et al. [7] reported that sediments rich in organic matter (muddy deposits) accumulated more PCBs than sandy ones. The BSAF were calculated by dividing lipid-normalized chemical concentration in the organism by that in the sediment on an organic carbon basis (mean value was used).

The organic carbon content reported in this study for sediment samples was 0.03 g/g, and the biota fat content were 0.06, 0.03, 0.02 and 0.01 (g/g) for mullet, tilapia, Venerupis pullastra and Paphia textile respectively.

Table 1 shows the bioaccumulation factor (BAF) for the contaminants that have been reported in biota and water. BAF for five PCBs congeners in fish and bivalves are present in Table 1. BAF of PCBs ranged from 0.1 to 12.9. The congener PCB152 had the highest BAF value among all studied biota. PCBs are very lipophilic and in many studies higher lipid content is associated with higher PCB concentration [65,66]. However, in the current study lipid levels were not correlated with pollutants concentration.

On the other hand out of the 14 measured PAHs, only benzo(b) fluoranthene and pyrene congeners were reported in water samples as well as in biota samples. PAHs are one of the major categories of pollutants entering the aquatic environment and finally accumulating in the sediments. The BAF reported for these PAHs congeners was the lowest in this study, ranging from 0.1 to 0.2 for fish and from 0.2 to 1.2 for bivalves. The

bioaccumulation factors of PAHs in different species vary greatly [82,83]. Species that do not metabolize PAH at all or to only a limited extent, such as algae, oligochaetes and mollusks, and the more primitive invertebrates (protozoans, porifers and cnidaria) accumulate high concentrations of PAHs, as would be expected from their high log Kow values. However, organisms that metabolize PAHs such as fish and higher invertebrates, accumulate little or no PAHs (Ololade and Lajide 2010) [85]. PAHs accumulate in animals located at lower levels of the food chain because they are poorly metabolized in these species. For fish and bivalves, BAF of OCPs (23.7-560) were extremely greater than those of PCBs (0.1-12.9) and PAHs (0.1-1.2). Heptchlor epoxide that poses potential human health risks had the highest BAF within this study with a value of (560).

BSAF values of OCPs individual compounds in two fish species were less than 1, ranging from 0.33 to 0.75 while BSAF values for bivalves were higher than 1, ranging between 0.19 - 5.57. Generally BSAF reported for p,p-DDD and p,p-DDE in in bivalve Paphia textile had the highest BSAF in this study (Table 2).

The present BSAF for the sum of five OCPs reported for fish in this study are many times lower than the national-scale value reported for fish in USA (0.7-8.6 for eight different OCPs) [84] and the range reported for feral eel (Anguilla anguilla) (approximately1-70) by Van der Oost et al. [81].

BSAF values reported for PAHs were higher in bivalves than fish samples, with only three congeners (Naphthalene, Flourene and pyrene) accumulated in the studied biota BSAF for fish and bivalves were in the range of 0.16-4.47, with pyrene as the dominant accumulated congener. Eight PCBs congeners were detected in biota and sediment as well. The BSAF values for PCBs congeners ranged from 0.11 to 4.53 in fish samples. PCB105 and PCB138 were not accumulated in mullet fish. The BSAF values in the present study were lower than the fishsediment ratios obtained from the Pearl River Estuary [85].

According to Corl, [86] bioaccumulation is rather a process that merits considerable attention because of its bearing on environmental risk assessment of chemical pollutants. Occurrence of bioaccumulative chemicals is not necessarily a proof of ecological risk, but may indicate that the need to assess the ecological evaluation of these accumulative contaminants [87-90].

Conclusions

As far as the authors are aware, the present study is the first to shed some light on the residue level of some priority pollutants beside their bioaccumulation profile in the Temsah Lake. The concentrations of all studied pollutants in biota samples, i.e. fish and bivalves were consistently lower than that detected in their surrounding sediment.

The results obtained in this study demonstrate that the levels of organic pollutants in fish taken from the Temsah Lake were relatively high, however, they were lower than the pollutants levels published in earlier studies. This in turn would reflect efforts exerted by regulatory bodies to improve the quality of Lake Ecosystem. Nevertheless, continuous efforts should be put on place in order to maintain a manageable level of these

organic pollutants. By comparing the present study results with the US SQGs values, probability of ecological risk associated with these PAHs is not expected; however further attention should be paid for naphthalene and flourene congeners since their concentrations exceeded their corresponding ERLs value.

The levels of PAHs, OCPs and PCBs that reported in the present study for the Temsah lake reflects the remarkable improvements by the government and the Egyptian Environmental Affaires Agency (EEAA) to save the lake ecosystem. Some actions and legal measures toward the reduction of contaminants use have been taken to decrease the contamination load for the lake [49]. Finally the present study provides useful information to the local administration about contaminants level in lake ecosystem [90-110].

Reference

- 1. Ayas Z, Barlas NE, Kolankaya D. Determination of organochlorine pesticide residues in various environments and organisms in Goksu Delta, Turkey. Aquat Toxicol 1997;39:171-81.
- 2. Fisk AT, Hobson KA, Norstrom RJ. Influence of chemical and biological factors on trophic transfer of persistent organic pollutants in the North water Polynya marine food web. Environ Sci Technol 2001;35:732-38.
- Boon JP, Lewis WE, Choy MR, et al. Levels of polybrominated diphenyl ether (PBDE) flame retardants in animals representing different trophic levels of the North Sea food web. Environ Sci Technol 2002;36:4025-32.
- Falandysz J, Wyrzykowska B, Strandberg L, et al. Multivariate analysis of the bioaccumulation of polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) in the marine pelagic food web from the southern part of the Baltic Sea, Poland. J Environ Monit 2002;4:929-41.
- Erdogrul O, Covaci A, Schepens P. Levels and distribution of organohalogenated contaminants in 5 fish species from Sır Dam Lake, Kahramanmaras, Turkey. Organohalogen Compd 2004;66:1678-83.
- 6. Otchere FA. Organochlorines (PCBs and pesticides) in the bivalves Anadara (Senilis) senilis, Crassostrea tulipa and Perna perna from the lagoons of Ghana. Sci Total Environ 2005;348:102-14.
- Tomza A, Witczak A, Ciereszko W. Uptake of polychlorinated biphenyl congeners in freshwater mussel Anodonta complanata from the Lower Odra River. Pol J Environ Stud 2006;15:603.
- Mansour SA, Belal MH, Abou-Arab AAK, et al. Monitoring of pesticides and heavy metals in cucumber fruits produced from different farming systems. Chemosphere 2009;75:601-09.
- 9. Helberg M, Bustnes JO, Erikstad KE, et al. Relationships between Reproductive Performance and Organochlorine Contaminants in Great Black-backed Gulls (Larus marinus). Environmental Pollution 2005;134:475-83.

- Bodiguel X, Loizeau V, LeGuellec AM, et al. Influence of sex, maturity and reproduction on PCB and p,p'DDE concentrations and repartitions in the European hake (Merluccius merluccius, L.) from the Gulf of Lions (N.W. Mediterranean). Sci TotalEnviron 2009;408:304-11.
- 11. Lin YJ, Liu HC, Hseu JY, et al. Study of transportation and distribution of PCBs using an ecologically simulated growth chamber. Chemosphere 2006;64:565-73.
- 12. Hatch AC, Burton GA. Photo-induced toxicity of PAHs to Hyalella Azteca and Chironomus Tentans: effect of mixtures and behaviour. Environmental Pollution 1999;106:157-67.
- 13. IPCS (International Programme On Chemical Safety): Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, selected nonheterocyclic 2010.
- 14. Kanaki. Analytical methods for the determination of PAHs in sediments, PhD proposal personal communication, University of the Aegean, Department of Environmental Studies Mytilene, 2005.
- 15. Zaghden H, Kallel M, Elleuch B, et al. Sources and distribution of aliphatic and polyaromatic hydrocarbons in sediments of Sfax, Tunisia. Mediterranean Sea Marine Chemistry 2007;105:70-89.
- Catsiki V, Hatzianestis L, Rigas F. Distribution of metals & organic contaminants in mussels from Thermaikos Gulf. Global NEST: the Int Journal 2003;5:119-26.
- 17. Tuvikene A. Responses of fish to polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs). Annales Zoologici Fennici 1995;3.
- Latimer JS, Zheng J. The Sources, Transport, and Fate of PAHs in the Marine Environment, PAHs: An Ecotoxicological Perspective. John Wiley and Son 2003;pp:7-33.
- 19. Oros OR, Ross JRM. Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in bivalves from the San Francisco estuary: spatial distributions, temporal trends, and sources. Mar Environ Res 2005;60:446-48.
- 20. Howell NL, Suarez MP, Rifai HS, et al. Concentrations of polychlori nated biphenyls (PCBs) in water, sediment and aquatic biota in the Houston Ship Channel, Texas. Chemosphere 2008;70:593-606.
- 21. El Shenawy NS. Ecotoxicological studies on the effects of the organic pesticides (Atrazine and Lindane) on the marine mussel, Mytillus edulis. Ph.D. thesis, Suez Canal University, Egypt 2000.
- 22. Zwieg RD, Morton JD, Stewart MM. Source Water Quality for Aquaculture: A Guide for Assessment. The World Bank, Washington, D.C 1999.
- 23. Franke C, Studinger G, Berger G, et al. The assessment of bioaccumulation. Chemosphere 1994;29:1501-14.
- 24. Chevereuil M, Blanchard M, Teil MJ, et al. Evaluation of the pollution by organochlorine compound, olychlorobiphenyles and pesticides and metals (Cd, Cr, Cu and Pb) in the water and in the zebra mussel (Dreissena

polymorpha pallas) of the river Seine. Water Air & Soil Pollution 1996;88:371-81.

- 25. Förstner U, Wittmann GTW. Metal pollution in the aquatic environment. Berlin Heidelberg: Springer 1981.
- 26. Spada M, Jorba O, García-Pando PC, et al. Modeling and evaluation of the global sea-salt aerosol distribution: sensitivity to size-resolved and seasurface. temperature dependent emission schemes. Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics 2013;13:11735-55.
- 27. Freije AM. Heavy metal, trace element and petroleum hydrocarbon pollution in the Arabian Gulf: review. The Journal of the Association of Arab Universities for Basic and Applied Sciences 2015;17:90-100.
- Wang WX, Rainbow PS. Dietary uptake of Cd, Cr, and Zn in the barnacle Balanus trigonus: influence of diet composition. Marine Ecology Progress Series 2000;204:159-68.
- 29. De Zwart D. Monitoring water quality in the future, Volume 3: Biomonitoring. National Institute of Public Health and Environmental Protection (RIVM), Bilthoven, the Netherlands 1995.
- 30. Ahmed MT, Ismail SM. Residues of organochlorine pesticides in fish, crab and sediment from El Temsah Lake, Suez Canal, Egypt and their effect on mitochondrial ATPase of the New Zealand white rabbit. The Journal of the Egyptian Public Health Association 1991;66:557-75.
- 31. Ahmed MT, Loutfy N, Youssef Y, et al. Residues of chlorinated hydrocarbons, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons and polychlorinated biphenyls in some marine organisms in Lake Temsah, Suez Canal, Egypt. Aquatic Ecosystem Health and Management 2001;4:165-73.
- 32. Ahmed MT, Loutfy N, Shoieb M, et al. Residues of aliphatic and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in some fish species of Lake Temsah, Ismailia, Egypt: An Analytical Search for hydrocarbon Sources and exposure bioindicators. Human and ecological risk assessment 2014;20:1659-69.
- Mostafa GA. Monitoring of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in seafoods from Lake Timsah. International Journal of Environmental Health Research 2002;12:83-91.
- 34. Tundo P, Raccanelli S, Read LA, et al. Distribution of polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins, polychlorinated dibenzofurans, dioxin-like polychlorinated biphenyl and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in the sediment of Temsah lake, Suez Canal, Egypt. Chem. and Ecology 2000;4:257-65.
- 35. Ali HR, Nour SH, Ezbewy S, et al. Assessment of polycyclic aromatic Hydrocarbons contamination in water sediment and fish of Temsah Lake, Suez Canal, Egypt. Current World Environ 2006;1:11-22.
- Bierman VJ Jr. Equilibrium partitioning and biomagnification of organic chemicals in benthic animals. Environmental Science and Technology 1990;24:1407-12.

- 37. Jia HL, Sun YQ, Liu XJ, et al. Concentration and bioaccumulation of dechlorane compounds in coastal environment of northern China. Environ Sci Technol 2011;45:2613-18.
- Mackay D, Fraser A. Bioaccumulation of persistent chemicals: mechanisms and models. Environ Pollut 2000;110:375-91.
- 39. Liu F, Liu J, Chen Q, et al. Pollution characteristics and ecological risk of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) in surface sediments of the southern part of the Haihe River system in China. Chin Sci Bull 2013;58:3348-56.
- 40. Liu M, Baugh JP, Hutchinson SM, et al. Historical record and sources of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in core sediments from the Yangtze Estuary. China Environ Pollut 2000;110:357-65.
- Scheibye K, Weisser J, Borggaard OK, et al. Sediment baseline study of levels and sources of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons and heavy metals in Lake Nicaragua. Chemosphere 2014;95:556-65.
- 42. Liu Z, He L, Lu Y, et al. Distribution, source, and ecological risk assessment of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) in surface sediments from the Hun River, northeast China. Environ Monit Assess 2015;187:290.
- 43. Boonyatumanond R, Wattayakorn G, Togo A, et al. Distribution and origins of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) in riverine, estuarine, and marine sediments in Thailand. Mar Pollut Bull 2006;52:942-56.
- 44. Wang Y, Shen CC, Shen ZY, et al. Spatial variation and sources of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) in surface sediments from the Yangtze Estuary, China. Environ Sci Processes Impacts 2015;17:1340-47.
- 45. Cardona L, Gisbert E, Torras X. Cascading effects of the flathead grey mullet Mugil cephalus in freshwater eutrophic microcosmos. Hydrobiologia 2000;429:49-57.
- Fischer W, Bianchi G. Mugil cephalus (Linnaeus, 1758). Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations 2012.
- Kaniz F, Omar WMW, Isa MM. Identification of food and feeding habits of Mullet Fish, Liza Subviridis (Valenciennes, 1836), Valamugil Buchanani (Bleeker, 1853) from Merbok Estuar 2013.
- 48. Poutiers JM. Bivalves: Acephala, Lamellibranchia, Pelecypoda. In: Carpenter K.E., Niem V.H (eds.) the living marine resources of the west central pacific. Vol. 1, seaweeds, corals, bivalves and gastropods. FAO Species identification guide for fishery purpose. rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations1998;pp:123–362.
- 49. ETPS (Environmental testing of pollution status) in Lake Temsah. Abu Attwa Water Reuse Center Research and Training. Ismailia, Egypt 1995.
- 50. Ali HR, EL-gendy NS, El- ezbewy GH, et al. Assessment of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons contamination in water,

sediment and Fish of Temsah Lake, Suez Canal, Egypt. Current World Environment 2006;1:11-22.

- 51. Said TO, EL-Agroudy NA. Assessment of PAHs in water and fish tissues from Great Bitter and El Temsah lakes, Suez Canal, as chemical markers of pollution sources. Chem and Eco. 2006;22:159-73.
- 52. Zhang Z, Huang JYUG, Hong H. Occurrence of PAHs, PCBs and organochlorine pesticides in the Tonghui River of Beijing, China. Environmental Pollution 2004;130:249-61.
- 53. Loutfy N, Fuerhacker M, Tundo P, et al. Monitoring of polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins and dibenzofurans, dioxin-like PCBs and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in food and feed samples from Ismailia city, Egypt. Chemosphere 2007;66:1962-70.
- 54. Sauer TC, Brown JS, Boehm PD, et al. Hydrocarbon characterization of intertidal and subtidal sediment of Saudi Arabia from the Gulf war oil spill. MSRC Technical Reports Series, Marine Spill Response Corp, Washington, DC,1993;3.
- 55. Yunker MB, Macdonald RW, Vingarzan R, et al. PAHs in the Fraser River Basin: a critical appraisal of PAH ratios as indicators of PAH source and composition. Org Geochem 2002;33:489-515.
- 56. Nyarko E, Botwe BO, Klubi E. Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon (PAHs) levels in two commercially important fish species from the coastal waters of Ghana and their carcinogenic Health Risks. West African Journal of Applied Ecology 2011.
- 57. Wang Z, Fingas M, Page DS. Oil spill identification. J Chromatogr 1999;843:369-11.
- 58. Baumard P, Budzinski H, Garrigues P, et al. Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in recent sediments and mussels (Mytilus edulis) from the western Baltic Sea: occurrence, bioavailability and temporal variations. Mar Environ Res 1999;47:17-47.
- 59. US ATSDR (Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry): Toxicological Profile for Naphthalene, 1-Methylnaphthalene, and 2-Methylnaphthalene. Atlanta, GA: US Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service 2005.
- 60. CEH (Chemical Economics Handbook) SRI International: Menlo Park, CA, USA 2000;27.
- 61. Rocher V, Azimi S, Moilleron R, et al. Hydrocarbons and heavy metals in the different sewer deposits in the "Le Marais" Catchment (Paris, France): Stocks, Distributions and Origins. Sci of the Total Environ 2004;323:107-22.
- 62. Laane RW, Pim D, Bik MH. Assessment of organic compounds in the Rhine estuary. Hand book of environmental chemistry:Water pollution 2006;5.
- 63. MacDonald DD, Ingersoll CG, Berger TA. Development and evaluation of consensus-based sediment quality guidelines

for freshwater ecosystems. Archives of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology 2000;39:20-31.

- 64. Long ER, MacDonald DD. Recommended uses of empirically derived, sediment quality guidelines for marine and estuarine ecosystems," Human and Ecological Risk Assessment 1998;5:1019-39.
- 65. Coelhan M, Strohmeier J, Barlas H. Organochlorine levels in edible fish from the Marmara Sea, Turkey. Environ Int 2006;32:775-80.
- 66. Trocino A, Majolini D, Xiccato G. PCBs contamination in farmed European sea bass from different Italian rearing systems. Chemosphere 2009;76:250-54.
- 67. Kezovich JP, Harrison FL, Wiiheim RG. The bioavailability of sediment-sorbed organic chemicals: a review. Water, Air, and Soil Potlution 1987;32:233-2.
- 68. Quensen J, Tiedje JM, Boyd SA. Reductive dechlorination of polychlorinated biphenyls by anaerobic microorganisms from sediments, Science 1988;242:752.
- 69. MacDonald, Smith SL, Calder FD. Incidence of adverse biological effects within ranges of chemical concentrations in marine and estuarine sediments. Environ Manage 1995;19:81-97.
- 70. De Vos, Verschueren SD, Schrijver R De. Digestibility, retention and incorporation of low-level dietary PCB content in laying hens. Chemosphere 2005;58:1552-62.
- Zhan-qiang FANG. Organochlorines in sediments and mussels collected from coastal sites along the Pearl River Delta, South China. Journal of Environmental Sciences 20044;16:321-27.
- 72. He MC, Sun Y, Li XR, et al. Distribution patterns of nitrobenzenes and polychlorinated biphenyls in water, suspended particulate matter and sediment from mid- and down-stream of the Yellow River (China). Chemosphere 2006;65:365-74.
- 73. Baptista J, Pedro P, Tavares S, et al. PCB bioaccumulation in three mullet species a comparison study. Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety 2013;94:147-52.
- Lána R, Vávrová M, Čáslavský J, et al. PCBs in samples from the environment of the Southern Moravia Region, Czech epublic. Bull. Environ. Contam. Toxicol 2008;81:574-7.
- 75. Franců E, Schwarzbauer J, Lána R, et al. Historical changes in levels of organic pollutants in sediment cores from brno reservoir, Czech Republic. Water Air Soil Pollut 2010;209:81-91.
- 76. EU Commission regulation no 1259/2011 of 2 December 2011 amending Regulation (EC) No 1881/2006 as regards maximum levels for dioxins, dioxin-like PCBs and nondioxin like PCBs in foodstuffs.
- 77. Susan L, klosterhaus P, ferguson L, et al. polycyclic aromatic

hydrocarbon bioaccumulation by meiobenthic copepods inhabiting a superfund site: techniques for micromass body burden and total lipid analysis. environmental toxicology and chemistry 2002;21:2331-7

- 78. Woodwell G, Craig P, Johnson H. DDT in the biosphere: Where does it go? Sci. 1971;174:1101-07.
- 79. Sarwqcb. Problem atatement for the total maximum daily load for toxic substances in newport bay and san diego Creek, final." santa ana regional water quality control board, riverside, CA, December 2000.
- Hitch RK, Day HR. Unusual persistence of DDT in some western USA soils. Bull Environ Contam Toxicol 1992;48:259.
- van der Oost R, eyer J, Nico PF, et al. Fish bioaccumulation and biomarkers in environmental risk assessment: a revie. Environmental Toxicology and Pharmacology 2003;3:57-149.
- WHO. Environmental Health Criteria No 86 Mercury
 Environmental Aspects. World Health Organisation, Geneva 1989.
- 83. Ololade IA, Lajide L. Exposure level and bioaccumulation of polycyclic aromatic 2010.
- 84. Wong CS, Capel PD, Nowell LH. National-scale, fieldbased evaluation of the biota-sediment accumulation factor model. Environ Sci Technol 2001;35:1709-15.
- 85. Xiang CH, Luo XJ, Chen SJ, et al. Polybrominated diphenyl ethers in biota and sediments of the Pearl River Estuary, South China. Environ Toxicol Chem 2007;26:616-23.
- 86. Corl E. Bioaccumulation in the ecological risk assessment (ERA) process. Issue Papers Bioaccumulation in the ERA Process. Organization: Atlantic Division, Naval Facilities Engineering Command 2001^{*}
- TNRCC (Texas Natural Resource Conservation Commission). Guidance for Conducting Ecological Risk Assessments at Remediation Sites in Texas 2000.
- El-Sharkawy A. Second generation multi-resolution techniques for edge detection and feature extraction from 8 Bands high resolution satellite Imagery. PhD Thesis, Univ Calgary 2012.
- Anastassiades M, Lehotay SJ, Štajnbaher D, et al. Fast and easy multi residue method employing acetonitrile extraction/ partitioning and "dispersive solid phase extraction" for the determination of pesticide residues in produce. J AOAC 2003;86.
- 90. AOAC (Association of Official Analytical Chemists): Animal feed. Official Methods of Analysis; Arlington 16 the edition 1995.
- 91. Cardoso PG, Grilo TF, Pereira E, et al. Mercury bioaccumulation and decontamination kinetics in the edible cockle Cerastoderma edule. Chemosphere 2013;90:1854-9.

- 92. Coelho JP, Rosa M, Pereira E, et al. Pattern and annual rates of Scrobicularia plana mercury bioaccumulation in a human induced mercury gradient (Ria de Aveiro, Portugal). Estuar Coast Shelf Sci 2006;69:629-35.
- 93. EC: commission of the european communities, commission staff working document, Community Implementation Plan for the Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants Brussels 2007.
- 94. Forster G, Wright DA. Unsubstituted polynuclear aromatic hydrocarbons in sediments, clams, and clam worms from Chesapeake Bay. Mar Pollut Bull 1988;19:459-65.
- 95. Franke C, Studinger G, Berger G, et al. The assessment of bioaccumulation. Chemosphere 1994;29:1501-14.
- 96. Jackson ML. Soil Chemical Analysis Prentice Hall of India Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi 1967;p:205.
- 97. Kwok CK, Liang Y, Leung SY, et al. Biota-sediment accumulation factor (BSAF), bioaccumulation fac-tor (BAF), and contaminant levels in prey fish to indicate the extent of PAHs and OCPs contamination in eggs of water birds. Environ Sci Pollut Res 2013;20:8425-34.
- Leung SY, Kwok CK, Nie XP, et al. Risk assessment ofresidual DDTs in freshwater and marine fish cultivated around the Pearl River Delta, China. Arch Environ Contam Toxicol 2010;58:415-30.
- 99. Lobo J, Costa PM, Caeiro S, et al. Evaluation of the potential of the common cockle (Cerastoderma edule L.) for the ecological risk assessment of estuarine sediments: bioaccumulation and biomarkers. Ecotoxicology 2010;19:1496-512.
- 100. NRC (National Research Council) Wetlands: characteristics and boundaries. Washington, DC: National Academy Press 1995.
- 101. Hydrocarbons (PAHs) in edible marine organisms. J Environ Indicators 5:69-88.
- 102. Parrilla P, Vidal JLM. simple and rapid screening procedure for pesticides in water using SPE and HPLC/ DAD detection, Anal. Chem 1994;350:633-8.
- 103. Poutiers JM. Bivalves: Acephala, Lamellibranchia, Pelecypoda. In: Carpenter K.E., Niem V.H (eds.) the living marine resources of the west central pacific. seaweeds, corals, bivalves and gastropods. FAO Species identification guide for fishery purpose. rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations 1998;1:123-362.
- 104. Said TO, Hamed MA. Distribution of chlorinated pesticides in surface water and fish of Temsah and bitter lakes, suez canal. Egyptian journal of aquatic research 2005;31:1110-354.
- 105. US Environmental protection agency; bioaccumulation testing and interpretation for the purpose of sediment quality assessment: US environmental protection agency 2010.

- 106. Varanasi U, Reichert WL, Stein JE, et al. Bioavailability and biotransformation of aromatic hydrocarbons in benthic organisms exposed from an urban estuary. Environmental Science and Technology 1985;19:836-41.
- 107. Wade PR. Calculating limits to the allowable humancaused mortality of cetaceans and pinnipeds. Marine Mammal Science 1998;14:1-37.
- 108. Van der Aar EM, Buikema D, Commandeur JNM, et al. Enzyme kinetics and substrate selectivities of rat

glutathione S-transferase isoenzymes towards a series of new 2-substituted 1-chloro-4-nitrobenzenes. Xenobiotica 1996;26:143-55.

- 109. Zhou HY, Cheung RYH, Cha KM, et al. Metal concentrations insediments and tilapia collected from inland waters of Hong Kong. Water Res 1998;32:3331-40.
- 110. Zhou HY, Wong MH. Mercury accumulation in freshwater fish with empha-sis on the dietary influence. Water Res 2000;34:4234-42.

*Correspondence to:

Tawfic Ahmed M Department of plant protection Suez Canal University Egypt Tel: 01000149668 E-mail: motawfic@tedata.net.eg