

# Samarra Journal of Pure and Applied Science



www.sjpas.com

p ISSN: 2663-7405 e ISSN: 2789-6838

# Determination the Concentration (<sup>238</sup>U) in Human Urine in Ishtar Village in Baghdad, Iraq

# Hala M. Hamza\*, Hayder S. Hussain

Department of Physics, College of Science, University of Baghdad, Iraq



This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License

https://doi.org/10.54153/sjpas.2024.v6i4.924

#### **Article Information**

Received: 02/05/2024 Revised: 07/06/2024 Accepted: 10/06/2024 Published:30/12/2024

#### **Keywords:**

Ishtar village, healthy people, uranium, CR-39, and urine.

#### **Corresponding Author**

E-mail: hala7mza@gmail.com Mobile:

#### Abstract

In 15 urine samples, the amount of uranium was determined from residents of the village of Ishtar (both males and females) (aged 20-57 years) and compared with 15 urine samples from individuals living in another area of Baghdad, far from Al- Tuwaitha nuclear site (aged 20-60 years). The study was conducted in the months of October and December of 2023 using the CR-39 solid-state nuclear track detector. The results show that the concentrations of uranium in the village of Ishtar ranged from  $0.175 \mu g/L$  to  $0.836 \mu g/L$  with an average of  $0.523 \pm 0.05 \mu g/L$ , and from  $0.112 \mu g/L$  to  $0.930 \mu g/L$  with an average of  $0.285 \pm 0.05 \mu g/L$  in the control area, with statistically significant differences between the results for both areas. We conclude that the level of uranium concentration in the village of Ishtar is higher than in the control area. Regarding gender, males were found to be more contaminated with uranium than females, and uranium concentrations increased with age.

#### Introduction:

Since natural uranium is present in the Earth's crust at a concentration of about 3mg/kg soil, the presence of radioactive elements in the environment is natural [1]. There are three primary isotopes of uranium: <sup>238</sup>U with a half-life of (4.5x10<sup>9</sup> yr) and a relative abundance of about 99.27% of natural uranium, <sup>235</sup>U with a half-life of (7.07x10<sup>8</sup>yr) and a relative abundance of 0.72% of natural uranium, and <sup>234</sup>U with a half-life of (245000yr) and a relative abundance of about 0.0055% of natural uranium[2]. Uranium oxides, silicates, carbonates, and hydroxides form when uranium reacts with other elements [3]. Due to the variability of internal uranium toxicity depending on several factors, such as its chemical form, dose rate, and the location of its deposition, it is considered a long-term hazard[4].

The kidneys are the organs most affected by uranium, as it leads to death and damage to kidney cells, impairing their ability to filter and purify the blood depending on the concentration of uranium. Inhaled uranium particles deposit in the upper respiratory tract and most of these particles are either swallowed or expelled through the nose. The particles

that are absorbed move to the kidneys and other organs of the body. Insoluble uranium oxides can remain in the lungs for many years and slowly enter the bloodstream if inhaled in large quantities[5]. Through interactions with protein and carbonate, blood transport tissue distribution and uranyl ion excretion are accomplished efficiently in the bloodstream [6]. After uranium enters the bloodstream, it deposits on the surfaces of bones along with calcium and can remain there for many years [7].

Biological monitoring is a crucial tool, as it provides valuable data on environmental exposure and helps determine the impact of environmental pollutants on populations and to what extent. It also aids in assessing health risks because biological monitoring summarizes exposure from various sources and methods, providing information about an individual's total exposure at a given moment [8].

Solid-state nuclear track detectors are characterized by their high sensitivity to radiation and their insolubility in chemical solutions. Due to their properties and advantages, these detectors have been used in various applications, including measuring uranium concentrations in blood, bones, urine, and tissues [9, 10].

The village of Ishtar is located near the Al-Tuwaitha site, previously referred to by the Iraqi Atomic Energy Commission south of Baghdad. In 2003, the Middle East Media Research Institute (MEMRI) reported the presence of tons of radioactive waste stored in barrels alongside uranium and by-products from processing operations. These barrels were used by common people to keep water, which caused radioactive materials to spread and caused additional uranium contamination in the nearby villages [11]. Therefore, the study's objective is to assess the amount of uranium in urine samples collected from the residents of the village of Ishtar to take the necessary preventive measures to maintain a clean, pollution-free environment.

#### **Materials and Methods:**

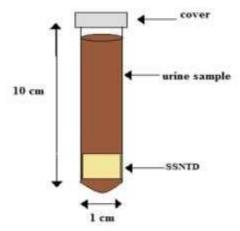
15 random urine samples were collected from donors (aged 20–57) years residing in Ishtar village near AL- Tuwaitha nuclear site, and they were compared with 15 urine samples from individuals living in Baghdad away from AL- Tuwaitha nuclear site, ranging in age (20–60) years. To prevent polymerization of urine, urine samples were immediately acidified by adding 1 ml of concentrated hydrochloric acid (HCl). They were then kept in a refrigerated box until arrival at the bio-laboratory [12]. Urine samples were collected from October to December 2023 after gathering information, including age, gender, health status, and other relevant data. Table (1) illustrates the characteristics of the study population based on gender and age.

**Table 1:** Distribution of sample study according to gender and age

Factor		Ishtar village	Control
		(No=15)	area
			(No= 15)
	Male	8	8
Gender		(53.67%)	(53.00%)
	Female	7	7
		(46.66%)	(46.66%)
		400	

	20-30	4	4
		(26.66%)	(26.66%)
Age	31-40	4	4
group		(26.66%)	(26.66%)
	41-50	5	5
		(33.33%)	(33.33%)
	51-60	2	2
		(13.33%)	(13.33%)

Prepared pieces of CR-39 detector with an approximate area of  $1\times1~\text{cm}^2$  (thickness 500 micrometers) and placed each piece of CR-39 in a urine sample in a tightly sealed plastic container that is 12 cm long and 1 cm in diameter(Figure 1). After that, the samples were kept for 90 days at -20°C in a freezer.



**Fig.1** urine sample in a well-sealed plastic container with a CR-39 detector.

After 90 days of radiation exposure, a solution of sodium hydroxide (NaOH)(6.25N) was used to etch the detectors. All detector pieces were placed in a 5 ml tube containing the etching solution and heated using a water bath (LABSCO) - Germany) for 7 hours at 70°C. After the etching period, the detector pieces were removed, washed with distilled water, and dried at room temperature. The track density was determined using an optical microscope (NOVEL, China) with a magnification power of 400X using Eq2[13]:

$$\rho = \frac{N}{(A \times T)} \quad .... \tag{2}$$

ρ: track density (tracks /cm². h).

N: average number of tracks.

A: area of the field view (cm<sup>2</sup>)

T: irradiance Time (h).

The fitting equation that results from the calibration curve depicted in Figure 2 can be used to determine the uranium concentration (Uc) in the urine sample [14]:

$$Uc = (\rho + 12.5) / 18.6$$
 ......(3)

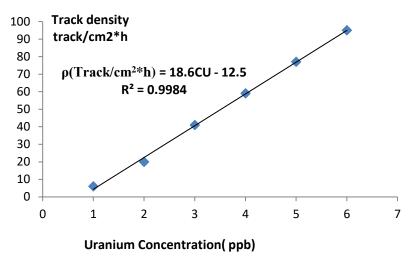


Fig. 2 Curve of calibration for standard uranium (ppb)[14].

#### **Result And Discussion:**

Table 2 shows uranium concentrations in urine samples collected from 15 individuals residing in the village of Ishtar. Uranium concentrations in Ishtar ranged from  $0.175\mu g/L(O_3/M/age20)$  to  $0.836\mu g/L$  ( $O_{13}/M/age57$ ), with an average of  $0.523\pm0.05\mu g/L$ , surpassing the WHO's permissible limit of  $0.3\mu g/L[15]$ .

The elevated uranium concentration in Ishtar is due to its proximity to AL- Tuwaitha nuclear site, which housed numerous laboratories and storage facilities containing a lot of equipment and hundreds of containers of radioactive materials that were looted in April 2003. And containers of radioactive materials were poured into farms, rivers, and even household drains.

Some empty containers were used as water vessels, and the individuals involved were unaware of the consequences of their actions[16].

The scientist Ryan Tully, who specializes in radiation, visited Tuwaitha and its surroundings as part of the Greenpeace team and conducted field radiation measurements. She announced that people in areas close to Tuwaitha receive radiation within half an hour, equivalent to the maximum limit a person receives in a year, exposing them to significant risks of cancer and other diseases. Scientist Tully found radioactive contamination in one of the houses there that exceeded the permissible limit by more than 10,000 times[16].

Figure 3 shows a positive correlation between uranium concentration values and age groups in Ishtar village, as it increases with age. These results are consistent with another study in the same field, which found that higher uranium concentrations are associated with old age [17].

The average concentrations of uranium by gender in the village of Ishtar are shown in Figure 4, where uranium concentrations were higher in males than in females. However, the T-test confirmed that there was no statistically significant difference between males and females (P>0.01).

Table 3 shows uranium concentrations in the urine of 15 individuals residing away from the Tuwaitha nuclear site. The table indicates that uranium concentrations ranged from  $0.112\mu g/L(L_1F/age20)$  to  $0.930\mu g/L$  ( $L_8/F/age60$ ), with an average of  $0.285\pm0.05\mu g/L$ . It is observed that the levels of uranium detected in these people's urine are more than those documented in the literature [18,19]. The military operations in Iraq, which included the use of ammunition containing depleted uranium, maybe the reason behind this increase in uranium concentration. The health effects resulting from exposure to depleted uranium are similar to those resulting from exposure to natural uranium. This is because the toxicity of natural uranium, which is more radioactive than depleted uranium, is primarily due to chemical toxicity rather than radiation toxicity [20].

Based on the findings shown in Tables 2 and 3, it is clear that uranium concentrations in urine samples from the village of Ishtar are higher than those in the control area, with statistically significant differences between the two areas (P<0.01), as shown in Figure 5. The rise in uranium concentration in Ishtar village has prompted us to speculate that uranium toxicity could be the reason. Most of the time, uranium is found in compounds that can be metabolized by the body to create other compounds. Tetravalent uranium oxidizes to hexavalent uranium in blood and other body fluids, leading to the production of uranyl ions. Mostly, uranium complexes proteins in plasma, bicarbonates, and citrates[21]. Similarly, correlation was found between uranium concentrations and age in the control area (Figure 6).

Local research conducted in Iraq utilizing a kinetic phosphorimetry analyzer discovered that the average uranium level in the urine of healthy females was  $1.03 \pm 0.020 \,\mu g/L$  [22]. For healthy individuals, using the same technique, it was 0.946 ±0.009 μg/L [23]. in Baghdad city as  $(0.464-6.212) \mu g/L [24]$ ,  $3.212\pm0.593 \mu g/L [25]$  also  $1.361 \mu g/L$  for male and  $0.9533 \mu g/L$ for female, 3.196 µg/L for radiation field worker [26]. The reported values for healthy persons in Al-Muthana governorate were 0.91 μg/L to 1.82 μg/L. [27]. Urine uranium content in people who have not been exposed is known for many global demographic groupings. Between and hundreds sub ng/L ng/L are the usual ranges[3]. Studies conducted in other countries have shown that the amount of uranium in the urine of Indian smokers ranges between 0.9×-310 and 6.9×-310µg/L, while the urine of non-smokers contains amounts ranging between 0.14×-310 and 1.0×-310[28]. Using the calcium phosphate neutron activation method, another study conducted in India resulted in a uranium content of 0.0128 µg/L in urine [18]. In Kazakhstan, it was observed to be between 0.05 and 0.08 µg/L. [29]. In the United States, 96.6% of healthy individuals (those who had not been exposed) had measurable levels of uranium in their urine, averaging 0.0345 µg/L [30]. It was reported to be 0.0045 μg/L in Japan [31]. Urine samples from Yugoslavia had uranium concentrations of 0.01 µg/L [32]. A person from the Czech Republic had a geometric mean uranium concentration in their urine of 0.091 mBq (0.0074 µg/L) [33]. Regarding the concentration of uranium in biological samples, different techniques lead to different results, and the daily excretion of uranium in urine varies according to regional differences[34].

Table2: Uranium concentration in urine samples in Ishtar village

Symbol	Age	Gender	Uranium	
	(years)		concentration	in
			(μg/L)	
01	34	Male	0.455	
$O_2$	38	Female	0.480	
03	20	Female	0.175	
$O_4$	47	Male	0.714	
O <sub>5</sub>	48	Male	0.769	
$O_6$	29	Male	0.295	
07	35	Female	0.471	
$O_8$	46	Female	0.680	
09	27	Male	0.283	
$O_{10}$	43	Female	0.537	
011	55	Female	0.819	
0 <sub>12</sub>	25	Female	0.214	
$O_{13}$	57	Male	0.836	
$0_{14}$	44	Male	0.634	
015	36	Male	0.476	
Min	0.175			
Max	0.836			
Ave	0.523 ±0	.05		

**Table 3:** Uranium concentration in urine samples in control area.

Symbol	Age Uranium		
	(years)	Gender	concentration
			in μg/L
$L_1$	20	Female	0.112
$L_2$	31	Male	0.196
L <sub>3</sub>	41	Male	0.232
$L_4$	51	Female	0.317
$L_5$	30	Male	0.190
$L_6$	43	Male	0.262
$L_7$	50	Female	0.299
$L_8$	60	Female	0.568
L <sub>9</sub>	25	Male	0.131
$L_{10}$	32	Female	0.197
$L_{11}$	44	Male	0.278
$L_{12}$	52	Female	0.568
$L_{13}$	27	Female	0.158
$L_{14}$	34	Male	0.204
$L_{15}$	40	Male	0.212
Min	0.090		
Max	0.930		
Ave	0.285 ±0.05		

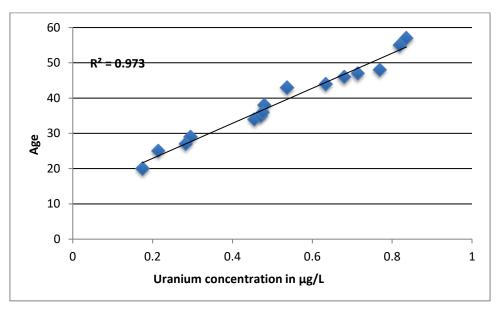


Fig. 3 Relationship between age and uranium content in Ishtar village.

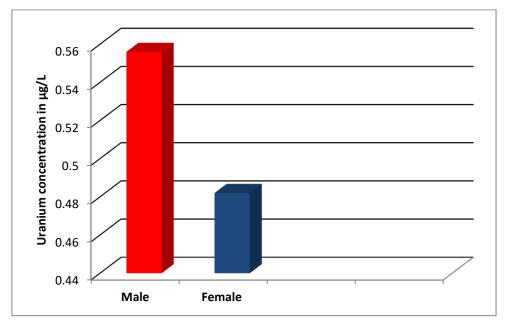
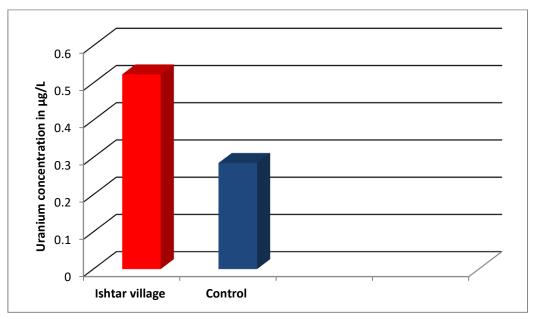
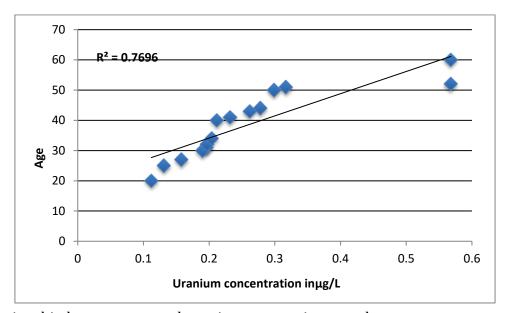


Fig. 4 Uranium concentration in urine relation to gender in Ishtar village.



**Fig. 5** Comparison between Ishtar village and control in Uranium concentration in urine.



**Fig. 6** Relationship between age and uranium content in control area.

#### **Conclusion:**

In this study, uranium concentration was measured in urine samples collected from 15 individuals residing in the village of Ishtar near the Tuwaitha nuclear site and compared with 15 individuals residing in another area in Baghdad far from Tuwaitha. The results showed that urine samples from the village of Ishtar contained higher amounts of uranium compared to the control group.

The increase in uranium concentration in urine samples from the village of Ishtar can be attributed to several possible reasons, including water pollution, food type, inhaling polluted air, and living near nuclear test sites, which expose individuals to internal and external radiation. The Tuwaitha Nuclear Research Center in Baghdad can be considered a highly radioactive pollution site with a higher average dose than other areas, as it was heavily bombed during the wars in 1991 and 2003. More environmental and epidemiological studies are desperately needed to identify possible causes.

# References

- 1. Zeyad, Z., & AL-Fatlawy, Y. (2018). Determination Of Uranium Concentration In Workers Urine In An Iraqi Flooring Materials' Factories,13(4)29-35. DOI: 10.9790/3008-1304012935
- 2. Pappas, R. S., Ting, B. G., Jarrett, J. M., Paschal, D. C., Caudill, S. P., & Miller, D. T. (2002). Determination of uranium-235, uranium-238 and thorium-232 in urine by magnetic sector inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry. *Journal of Analytical Atomic Spectrometry*, *17*(2), 131-134. <a href="http://dx.doi.org/10.1039/B108414c">http://dx.doi.org/10.1039/B108414c</a>.
- 3. Giannardi, C., & Dominici, D. (2003). Military use of depleted uranium: assessment of prolonged population exposure. *Journal of environmental radioactivity*, 64(2-3), 227-236. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0265-931x(02)00051-6.
- **4.** Abdulwahid, T. A., Alsabari, I. K., Abojassim, A. A., Mraity, H. A. A., & Hassan, A. B. (2020). Assessment of concentrations of alpha emitters in cancer patients blood samples. *Sylwan*, *164*(3), 154-164. <a href="https://www.researchgate.net/publication/341049635">https://www.researchgate.net/publication/341049635</a>
- 5. Al-Hamzawi, A. A., Jaafar, M. S., & Tawfiq, N. F. (2015). Concentration of uranium in human cancerous tissues of Southern Iraqi patients using fission track analysis. *Journal of radioanalytical and nuclear chemistry*, *303*, 1703-1709 . <a href="http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10967-014-3682-0">http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10967-014-3682-0</a>
- **6.** Šömen Joksić, A., & Katz, S. A. (2015). Chelation therapy for treatment of systemic intoxication with uranium: A review. *Journal of Environmental Science and Health, Part A*, *50*(14), 1479-1488. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1080/10934529.2015.1071154">https://doi.org/10.1080/10934529.2015.1071154</a>
- 7. Barber, D. S., Hancock, S. K., McNally, A. M., Hinckley, J., Binder, E., Zimmerman, K., & Jortner, B. S. (2007). Neurological effects of acute uranium exposure with and without stress. *Neurotoxicology*, *28*(6), 1110-1119. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuro.2007.05.014">https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuro.2007.05.014</a>
- 8. Zaboon, A. T., Al Obaidy, A. H. M. J., & Al Sharaa, H. M. (2014). Cobalt-60 and cesium-137 soil contamination in Al Tuwaitha nuclear site, using GIS technique. *Eng. &Tech. Journal*, 32. <a href="http://dx.doi.org/10.30684/etj.32.13A.12">http://dx.doi.org/10.30684/etj.32.13A.12</a>
- 9. Meenakshi, C., & Mohankumar, M. N. (2013). Synergistic effect of radon in blood cells of smokers—an in vitro study. *Mutation Research/Genetic Toxicology and Environmental Mutagenesis*, 757(1), 79-82. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mrgentox.2013.06.018">https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mrgentox.2013.06.018</a>
- 10. 10. Kadhum, S. N., & Abd Alhassen, B. (2017). Natural Radioactivity by Alpha Particles in Human Teeth at NajafCity/Iraq. *Int. J. Chemtech. Res.*, *10*(7), 658-662.
- 11. Al-Ansari, N., Pusch, R., Knutsson, S., & Almuqdadi, K. (2011). Saving Iraqi civilians and their environment from catastrophic implications of depleted uranium used in Gulf wars I and II. Luleå tekniska universitet. <a href="http://dx.doi.org/10.2495/WM140321">http://dx.doi.org/10.2495/WM140321</a>

- 12. Simerville, J. A., Maxted, W. C., & Pahira, J. J. (2005). Urinalysis: a comprehensive review. *American family physician*, 71(6), 1153-1162.
- 13. Al-Nia'emi, S. H. S., & Kasim, Y. Y. (2013). Determination of the Bulk etch rate of the nuclear track detector CR-39 using Le-D method. *Jordan for Physics*, *6*(1).
- 14. Qaddoori, S. M. (2019). Development of Solid State Nuclear Track Detectors Techniques for Uranium Concentration Measurements in UrineSamples for Bladder Cancer Patients. Ph.D. Thesis, Baghdad University, Iraq.
- 15. World Health Organization. (2004). *Guidelines for drinking-water quality*, Third edition World Health Organization, Geneva.
- 16. Fadhil, H. R., Nasri, S. K. A., & Al-Alawy, I. T. (2022). Measurement of Radiation Background and Estimation of the Annual Effective Dose for Workers in the Radiochemistry Laboratories at the Al-Tuwaitha Site. *Iraqi Journal of Science*, 4749-4760. <a href="http://dx.doi.org/10.24996/ijs.2022.63.11.14">http://dx.doi.org/10.24996/ijs.2022.63.11.14</a>
- 17. Al-Hamzawi, A. A., Jaafar, M. S., & Tawfiq, N. F. (2014). Uranium concentration in blood samples of Southern Iraqi leukemia patients using CR-39 track detector. *Journal of radioanalytical and nuclear chemistry*, 299, 1267-1272. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1007/s10967-013-2808-0">https://doi.org/10.1007/s10967-013-2808-0</a>
- 18. Dang, H. S., Pullat, V. R., & Pillai, K. C. (1992). Determining the normal concentration of uranium in urine and application of the data to its biokinetics. *Health physics*, *62*(6), 562-566. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1097/00004032-199206000-00010">https://doi.org/10.1097/00004032-199206000-00010</a>
- 19. Tolmachev, S., Kuwabara, J., & Noguchi, H. (2006). Concentration and daily excretion of uranium in urine of Japanese. *Health physics*, 91(2), 144-153. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1097/01.hp.0000203311.85873.61">https://doi.org/10.1097/01.hp.0000203311.85873.61</a>
- 20. Fischer, H. (2001). Depleted uranium: sources, exposure and health effects. *World Health Organ*, *4*, 324-5.
- 21. Cooper, J. R., Stradling, G. N., Smith, H., & Ham, S. E. (1982). The behaviour of uranium-233 oxide and uranyl-233 nitrate in rats. *International Journal of Radiation Biology and Related Studies in Physics, Chemistry and Medicine*, 41(4), 421-433. https://doi.org/10.1080/09553008214550461
- 22. Shafik, S. S. (2014). Study and measurements of the uranium and amorphous crystals concentrations in urine samples of breast cancer female patients. *Iraqi Journal of Physics*, *12*(25), 113-122. <a href="https://doi.org/10.30723/ijp.v12i25.311">https://doi.org/10.30723/ijp.v12i25.311</a>
- 23. Shafik, S. S., & Qaddoori, S. M. (2018, May). Urinary excretion as a function of uranium concentration in bladder cancer patients using kinetic phosphorimetry analyzer. In *Journal of Physics: Conference Series* (Vol. 1032, No. 1, p. 012026). IOP Publishing. doi:10.1088/1742-6596/1032/1/012026.

- 24. Murali, A. V., Parekh, P. P., & Das, M. S. (1970). On the fission track method for the determination of the uranium content of whole rock samples. *Analytica Chimica Acta*, *50*(1), 71-77. doi:10.1016/S0003-2670(00)80928-9.
- 25. Matsumoto, Y., Ogawa, Y., Yoshida, R., Shimamori, A., Kasai, H., & Ohta, H. (2008). The stability of the oxidative stress marker, urinary 8-hydroxy-2'-deoxyguanosine (8-OHdG), when stored at room temperature. *Journal of occupational health*, *50*(4), 366-372. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1539/joh.l7144">https://doi.org/10.1539/joh.l7144</a>
- 26. Nikezic, D., Yip, C. W. Y., Leung, S. Y. Y., Leung, J. K. C., & Yu, K. N. (2006). A further study of the (CR–LR) difference technique for retrospective radon exposure assessment. *Nuclear Instruments and Methods in Physics Research Section A: Accelerators, Spectrometers, Detectors and Associated Equipment*, 568(2), 792-798. <a href="http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.nima.2006.08.084">http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.nima.2006.08.084</a>
- 27. Abed, M. M., Mahdi, K. H., & Al-Hamadany, W. S. (2019, July). Estimation of uranium concentration in blood samples of kidneys failure patients in Al-Muthanna governorate. In *AIP Conference Proceedings* (Vol. 2123, No. 1). AIP Publishing. <a href="http://dx.doi.org/10.1063/1.5116984">http://dx.doi.org/10.1063/1.5116984</a>
- 28. Chakarvarti, S. K., Lal, N., & Nagpaul, K. K. (1980). Content of uranium trace in urine determined from fission track etch technique. *The International Journal of Applied Radiation and Isotopes*, *31*(12), 793-795. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1016/0020-708x(80)90073-3">https://doi.org/10.1016/0020-708x(80)90073-3</a>
- 29. Aumalikova, M., Ibrayeva, D., Kazymbet, P., Bakhtin, M., Kashkinbaev, Y., & Sharipov, M. (2019). Comparative analysis of the uranium content in the urine of personnel of group A and persons not exposed. In *BIO Web of Conferences* (Vol. 14, p. 03021). EDP Sciences. <a href="http://dx.doi.org/10.1051/bioconf/20191403021">http://dx.doi.org/10.1051/bioconf/20191403021</a>
- 30. Uda, T., & Iba, H. (1985). Efficiency estimation for detecting U alpha particles in solid-state nuclear track detectors. *Health physics*, 49(3), 479-489. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1097/00004032-198509000-00009">https://doi.org/10.1097/00004032-198509000-00009</a>.
- 31. Tolmachev, S., Kuwabara, J., & Noguchi, H. (2006). Concentration and daily excretion of uranium in urine of Japanese. *Health physics*, 91(2), 144-153. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1097/01.hp.0000203311.85873.61">https://doi.org/10.1097/01.hp.0000203311.85873.61</a>
- 32. Byrne, A. R., & Benedik, L. (1991). Uranium content of blood, urine and hair of exposed and non-exposed persons determined by radiochemical neutron activation analysis, with emphasis on quality control. *Science of the total environment*, *107*, 143-157. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1016/0048-9697(91)90256-e">https://doi.org/10.1016/0048-9697(91)90256-e</a>
- 33. Malátová, I., Bečková, V., & Kotík, L. (2016). Urinary excretion of uranium in adult inhabitants of the Czech Republic. *Journal of environmental radioactivity*, 152, 92-96. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvrad.2015.11.011">https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvrad.2015.11.011</a>

34. Starościak, E., & Rosiak, L. (2015). Determination of uranium reference levels in the urine of Warsaw residents (Poland). *Journal of Radioanalytical and Nuclear Chemistry*, *304*, 75-79. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1007%2Fs10967-014-3787-5">https://doi.org/10.1007%2Fs10967-014-3787-5</a>



# Samarra Journal of Pure and Applied Science



www.sjpas.com

p ISSN: 2663-7405 e ISSN: 2789-6838

# تحديد تراكيز (238U) في الادرار البشري في بغداد، العراق

حلا محمد حمزه\*، حيدر سليم حسين قسم الفيزياء، كلية العلوم، جامعة بغداد، العراق

# معلومات البحث:

تأريخ الاستلام: 2023/5/03 تاريخ التعديل: 2023/6/07 تأريخ القبــول: 2023/06/10 تاريخ الـنشر: 2024/12/30

# الكلمات المفتاحية:

قرية عشتار ، الاشخاص الاصحاء ، اليور انيوم ، 39-CR ، الادر ار

# معلومات المؤلف

الايميل: hala7mza@gmail.com الموبايل:

#### الخلاصة

تم قياس تركيز اليورانيوم في15 عينة ادرار من سكان قرية عشتار (ذكور وإناث) (تتراوح أعمارهم بين 57-20 سنة) ومقارنتها بـ 15 عينة من أفراد يعيشون في منطقة أخرى من بغداد بعيدة عن موقع التويثة النووي (تتراوح اعمارهم بين 60-20 سنة). أجريت هذه الدراسة في شهري أكتوبر وديسمبر 2023 باستخدام كاشف المسار 39-0.7. أظهرت النتائج أن تراكيز اليورانيوم تراوحت من 0.175 ميكروغرام/لتر إلى 0.836 ميكروغرام/لتر بمتوسط 0.523 $\pm$ 0.00 ميكروغرام/لتر إلى 0.930 ميكروغرام/لتر ألى 0.930 ميكروغرام/لتر ألى 0.930 ميكروغرام/لتر ألى منطقة التحكم، مع ميكروغرام/لتر بمتوسط 285.0 $\pm$ 0.00 ميكروغرام/لتر في منطقة التحكم، مع وجود فروق ذات دلالة إحصائية بين النتائج لكلا المنطقتين. نستنتج أن مستوى تركيز اليورانيوم في قرية عشتار أعلى من تركيزه في منطقة السيطرة، متجاوزاً الحد المسموح به من قبل منظمة الصحة العالمية وهو  $\mu$ 1.00 وفيما يتعلق بالجنس، فقد وجد أن الذكور أكثر تلوثاً باليورانيوم من الإناث، وتزداد تركيزات اليورانيوم مع تقدم العمر.