

Dietary arsenic exposure with low level of arsenic in drinking water and biomarker: A study in West Bengal

DEBENDRA NATH GUHA MAZUMDER¹, DEBASREE DEB^{1,6}, ANIRBAN BISWAS^{1,7},
CHANDAN SAHA², ASHOKE NANDY², ARABINDA DAS³, ALOKE GHOSE¹,
KALLOL BHATTACHARYA⁴ and KUNAL KANTI MAZUMDAR^{1,5}

¹DNGM Research Foundation, Kolkata, India

²Department of Clinical and Experimental Pharmacology, School of Tropical Medicine, Kolkata, India

³Department of Statistics, Acharya Prafulla Ch. College, Kolkata, India

⁴Department of Agricultural Chemistry and Soil Science, Bidhan Chandra Krishi Viswavidyalaya, Kalyani, West Bengal, India

⁵Department of Community Medicine, KPC Medical College & Hospital, Jadavpur, Kolkata, India

⁶Department of Food and Nutrition, University of Calcutta, Kolkata, India

⁷Department of Environmental Science, University of Kalyani, Kalyani, West Bengal, India

The authors investigated association of arsenic intake through water and diet and arsenic level in urine in people living in arsenic endemic region in West Bengal supplied with arsenic-safe water ($<50 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$). Out of 94 (Group-1A) study participants using water with arsenic level $<50 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, 72 participants (Group-1B) were taking water with arsenic level $<10 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$. Multiple regressions analysis conducted on the Group-1A participants showed that daily arsenic dose from water and diet were found to be significantly positively associated with urinary arsenic level. However, daily arsenic dose from diet was found to be significantly positively associated with urinary arsenic level in Group-1B participants only, but no significant association was found with arsenic dose from water in this group. In a separate analysis, out of 68 participants with arsenic exposure through diet only, urinary arsenic concentration was found to correlate positively ($r = 0.573$) with dietary arsenic in 45 participants with skin lesion while this correlation was insignificant ($r = 0.007$) in 23 participants without skin lesion. Our study suggested that dietary arsenic intake was a potential pathway of arsenic exposure even where arsenic intake through water was reduced significantly in arsenic endemic region in West Bengal. Observation of variation in urinary arsenic excretion in arsenic-exposed subjects with and without skin lesion needed further study.

Keywords: Arsenic in water, arsenic in diet, arsenic in urine, biomarker, arsenicosis.

Introduction

Arsenic contamination in drinking water has been reported from many countries in the world, but the severity of this contamination in India and Bangladesh is unprecedented.^[1] The main focus of attention, until recently, has been exclusively on exposure of arsenic through drinking of arsenic contaminated groundwater and human health. However, since arsenic contaminated groundwater is also used extensively for crop irrigation in the arsenic belt of West Bengal and Bangladesh, the possibility of a buildup of arsenic concentration in agricultural soils and agronomic

produce resulting in arsenic exposure through food chain has also been considered. Sufficient information is now available regarding high arsenic buildup in soil and high level of arsenic in rice and vegetables grown in arsenic contaminated irrigated region in Bengal basin.^[2,3]

Several reports are available describing raised levels of arsenic in rice grain in arsenic endemic regions of West Bengal and Bangladesh because of use of arsenic contaminated groundwater for irrigation purpose.^[2,4-6] Arsenic contamination of vegetables grown in soil irrigated with arsenic contaminated water has also been reported.^[7-9] Significant quantities of total daily arsenic intake through water and diet have been reported in people living in arsenic-exposed regions of India and Bangladesh by many investigators.^[7,10-13] Arsenic level in urine is an important biomarker of arsenic exposure. Total arsenic level in urine has frequently been used as a biomarker of recent arsenic intake.^[14,15]

As drinking of arsenic contaminated groundwater has been considered to be the main source of arsenic exposure

Address correspondence to Debendra Nath Guha Mazumder, DNGM Research Foundation, 37/C, Block 'B', New Ali-pore, Kolkata 700053, India; E-mail: dngmazumder@gmail.com; guhamazumder@yahoo.com

Received July 29, 2013.

Color versions of one or more of the figures in the article can be found online at www.tandfonline.com/lesa.

in West Bengal, many villagers are currently using water with low level of arsenic ($<50 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, permissible limit in the region) for drinking and cooking purposes in recent years due to the wide awareness.^[16] But, in spite of drinking water with low level of arsenic, there is a possibility that significant arsenic exposure occurs through diet in these people because of report of intake of arsenic-contaminated rice grain and vegetables by people in this region. The current study was therefore undertaken to ascertain the biological effect of arsenic intake through diet, as reflected by the arsenic level in urine, a biomarker of current arsenic exposure, in people living in this region using water with low level ($<50 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) of arsenic.

Materials and methods

Study design

The present study describes dietary arsenic exposure and exposure from low level of arsenic ($<50 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) (the permissible limit in India)^[17] in drinking water and correlates with arsenic level in urine in 94 people living in arsenic endemic region in West Bengal. The study participants were selected from a source population of 167 participants who were exposed to arsenic in drinking water both above and below $50 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ and were studied earlier for assessment of total individual arsenic exposure and arsenic level in urine.^[18] The source population was recruited from a population of 900 residents belonging to 212 households (4% of total households in the selected villages), which had been identified in a previous cross-sectional study carried in six villages in two arsenic-affected blocks of Chakdah and Haringhata in Nadia district (Fig. 1). The households in a sample village were selected by systematic sampling with a random start procedure after preparing a village map and listing of households.^[19] Water samples used for drinking and cooking purpose as well as diet and urine samples were collected from all 94 individual participants, and arsenic levels were estimated. Out of 94 (Group-1A) participants who were using water with arsenic level $<50 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, 72 (Group-1B) participants were using water with arsenic level $<10 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ (the WHO safe limit).^[20]

Among the 94 (Group-1A) study subjects, 60 cases had typical arsenical skin lesions of pigmentation and/or keratosis (Arsenicosis), while 34 individuals had no such skin lesions. The criteria for classifying keratosis and hyperpigmentation as arsenic-caused skin lesions were as follows. Keratosis was characterized by diffuse bilateral thickening of the palms and/or soles with or without nodules of various shapes and sizes. Hyperpigmentation was identified as areas of mottled dark brown pigmentation distributed bilaterally on the trunk. Hyperpigmentation was frequently present on the limbs and sometimes alongside spots of depigmentation, but these characteristics were not regarded as essential for the diagnosis.^[19,21]

All patients were examined in the field by one of two physicians (DNGM, AG) who have had many years of experience in diagnosing arsenic-caused skin lesions in West Bengal. For the assessment of total individual arsenic exposure, the total arsenic level in drinking water and diet samples taken in 24 h was determined for each participant in both groups. All subjects included in this study gave written consent for their participation. Approval of the study protocol was obtained from the Ethical Committee of the DNGM Research Foundation, fulfilling the Helsinki criteria and recommendation of the Indian Council of Medical Research, Government of India.

Field study

In the field study, information was collected on demographic and social characteristics, occupation, and addiction from each participant. Addiction was assessed by taking into account the history of smoking, drinking and tobacco chewing in field visits. Weight and height were measured and used to calculate Body Mass Index (BMI, i.e., weight in Kg/height in m^2).

Collection of water and urine

Water samples were collected in certified metal-free containers from the current drinking and cooking water sources of each family. Total daily water consumption of a participant was determined from a self-report on the number of glasses (250-mL capacity) of water the person consumed in a 24-h period. First morning void urine sample was also collected from each participant in certified metal free container. Both the water and urine samples were kept in an icebox before leaving the field and stored at -20°C . All these samples were collected on the same day of collection of diet sample and stored according to standard protocol of the WHO until further analysis.^[20]

Assessment of diet intake

Food samples were collected using the duplicate portion sampling method.^[12] The "senior" woman (mother or eldest daughter-in-law of the family) involved in preparation of food for the family was interviewed. A detailed questionnaire for collecting information on participants' 24-h diet intake was formulated. The diet questionnaire was previously validated by similar dietary study on nutrient intake in arsenic-exposed population in West Bengal.^[22] The participating women were questioned about each meal, from the previous day's afternoon meal to lunch on the following day. The quantity of each diet category administered in each meal to each participant was recorded. To estimate the amount of food consumed by a participant in the family, duplicate portions of the cooked items in each meal were collected by the dietician in a measuring bowl of known

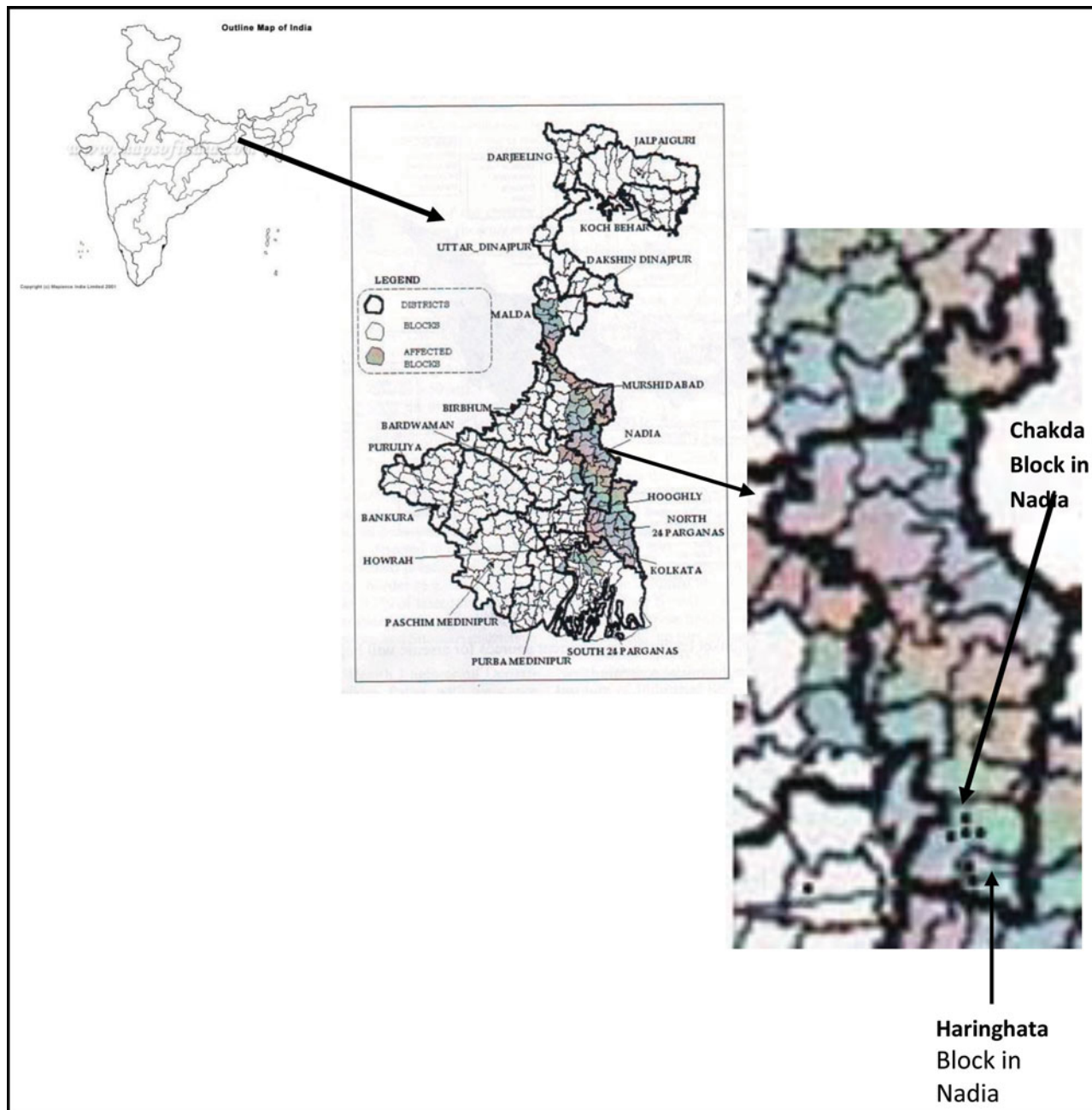


Fig. 1. Map of India, arsenic affected areas in West Bengal and district of Nadia with locations of study villages.

volume, and the wet weight was taken. Similarly, dry cooked food items were collected and their dry weight was taken.

All wet cooked food items of meals were categorized into: (a) cooked cereals (cooked rice, khichuri, suji, payes, semai etc.) and chapati; (b) cooked pulses (lentil, mug dal, motor dal, kalai dal etc.); (c) cooked vegetables (curry made of different vegetables); (d) cooked curry of animal food (fish/egg/meat); and (e) milk. All these items were collected together. Dry food items consisted of: (a) dry cereals (puffed rice, flaked rice, biscuits, etc.); (b) fried pulses (motor, chola, etc.); and (c) raw fruits (banana, mango, etc.). Raw rice samples used in the preparation of cooked food

was also collected from each family for comparison of arsenic content in both raw and cooked rice. All diet samples collected were kept in a well-zipped polyethylene pack, carried from the field in an ice bucket, and stored at -20°C until analysis.

Total arsenic analysis

Arsenic levels in water and urine samples were measured using an atomic absorption spectrophotometer with a flow-injection hydride generation system (Perkin-Elmer A Analyst 400, Waltham, MA, USA).^[23] The lower limit of

detection determined at the 90% confidence level was $0.3 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$. For urine analysis one portion of urine was digested for total arsenic estimation following Das et al.^[23] In this procedure 1 mL of the raw urine sample was digested with an acid mixture (500 $\mu\text{L HNO}_3$, 200 $\mu\text{L HClO}_4$ and 200 $\mu\text{L H}_2\text{SO}_4$, Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) in a Kjehldahl flask. The sample was heated using a small funnel at the top of a sand-bath until it became clear. If necessary, a 200- μL aliquot of HNO_3 was subsequently added.

Again the sample was heated until fumes of SO_3 evolved. The solution was cooled and made up to a volume of about 10 mL. Total arsenic analysis of these digest was performed using Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer equipped with a flow injection hydride generation system (FI-HG-AAS, A-Analyst 400, Perkin-Elmer).^[18] Quality assurance included same methods of preparation and analysis of urine standard reference materials (NIST, USA, SRM 2670a) in each sample batch run; recovery percentages varied from 95 to 97% (certified value $220 \pm 10 \mu\text{g/L}$; obtained concentration range 209–213 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$).

In the case of mixed food categories, the samples were wet-weighted (in the case of cooked food) or dry-weighted (in case of raw food) and oven dried until constant weight in 60°C and percentage moisture was calculated. Samples were digested separately following block digestion procedure.^[24] For arsenic analysis, the dry samples were crushed and part of each sample (1.0 g) was transferred to a 100-mL digestion flask pre-wetted with a mixture of nitric acid, perchloric acid, and sulphuric acid (10:4:1) and kept at room temperature. The following day, these samples were heated in a block digestion chamber at $110\text{--}120^\circ\text{C}$ until a clear solution of about 1.0 mL was obtained.

Quality assurance included the same NIST preparation method of rice sample SRM 1568a, recovery percentages varied from 96 to 98% in the case of diet. For total arsenic analysis of urine, sample was acid digested, and arsenic analysis was performed using an atomic absorption spectrophotometer (Perkin-Elmer A-Analyst 400) equipped with a flow injection hydride generation system (FIAS-100, Perkin-Elmer). Quality assurance included the same preparation method for NIST urine sample SRM-2670, in each sample batch run; recovery percentages varied from 95 to 97%. Coefficients of variation of analysis of arsenic were 50.84% in food; 118.02% in water and 90.21% in urine.

Statistical methods

The daily arsenic intake of each individual from drinking water, milk, cooked and dry food was estimated as follows. The arsenic intake from drinking water ($\mu\text{g day}^{-1}$) was calculated by multiplying the arsenic concentration in drinking water of the current drinking water source ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) by the water consumption rate (L day^{-1}) in a day. Arsenic intake from milk was similarly estimated. The daily arsenic intake from each cooked wet food category ($\mu\text{g day}^{-1}$) was

calculated by multiplying the arsenic concentration in each wet food category ($\mu\text{g/Kg wet wt}$) by the daily consumption rate (Kg wet wt/day) of that food category. The arsenic intake from dry food category was similarly estimated from arsenic concentration as $\mu\text{g/Kg dry wt}$. Estimation of total dietary arsenic intake was based on the sum of arsenic ingested from each cooked wet and dry food category consumed during the 24-h period by each participant. Daily total arsenic intake was the sum of total daily arsenic intake from drinking water and diet. Dividing each participant's daily arsenic intake by their body weight determined the daily arsenic dose ($\mu\text{g/Kg bodyweight/day}$).

Frequency distributions of characteristics such as age, sex, addiction, BMI and skin lesion status of both Group-1A and Group-1B were calculated. Descriptive statistics were presented on the data including median and range in regard to quantity of dietary items taken, a mean (SD), median and range in regard to arsenic content in current drinking water source and in urine and daily arsenic intake through water and diet of both the group of participants. A multiple regression model was fitted to urinary arsenic with average arsenic intake from water and diet as the exposure and age, sex and presence of skin lesions as potential confounders for Group-1A (94) participants.

All covariates were screened to determine whether or not they were significant risk factors or confounders. The urinary arsenic and daily arsenic intake and daily arsenic dose values were log transformed as the data was found to be positively skewed. Adjusted R-squared coefficients were used to study model fit. Three exposure scenarios, tube well arsenic concentration ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, daily arsenic intake ($\mu\text{g day}^{-1}$) and daily arsenic dose ($\mu\text{g/kg body wt/day}$), were evaluated to determine which model best predicted the urinary arsenic concentrations. The multiple regression model in Group-1B participants was similarly fitted to evaluate the direction of association of urinary arsenic concentration with any source(s) of arsenic intake for 72 participants using arsenic-safe water ($<10 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, WHO safe limit) for drinking and cooking purpose.

Further, arsenic exposure was found to occur mainly through diet in 68 participants who were drinking water below detection limit ($<0.3 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$). Out of these, arsenical skin lesions were found to be present in 45 and absent in 23 participants. Scatter plots of arsenic value in urine ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) and arsenic intake from diet ($\mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{day}^{-1}$) were constructed for participant with and without skin lesion and a regression line was fitted for both the groups. The software package used for statistical analysis was R, version 2.13.^[25]

Results

Study group characteristics

There was no difference in age, sex, addiction and Body mass index (BMI) among the Group-1A and Group-1B

Table 1. Baseline characteristics of study participants living in arsenic endemic region with groundwater arsenic contamination taking water with As <50 µg L⁻¹ (Group-1A = 94) and <10 µg L⁻¹ (Group-1B = 72) in West Bengal.

| | Group-1A (n = 94) | | Group-1B (n = 72) | | P value [¥] |
|-------------------------------|----------------------|-----|----------------------|-----|----------------------|
| | n | (%) | n | (%) | |
| Age in years: | | | | | |
| 15–29 | 17 | 18 | 14 | 20 | 0.3 |
| 30–44 | 42 | 45 | 34 | 47 | 0.86 |
| 45–74 | 35 | 37 | 24 | 33 | 0.37 |
| Sex : | | | | | |
| Male | 58 | 62 | 44 | 61 | 0.91 |
| Female | 36 | 38 | 28 | 39 | 0.93 |
| Addiction | | | | | |
| Smoking | 26 | 28 | 18 | 25 | 0.82 |
| Tobacco chewing | 10 | 11 | 7 | 10 | 0.94 |
| BMI Classification | | | | | |
| Under Weight (<18.50) | 37 | 39 | 30 | 42 | 0.80 |
| Normal (18.50–24.99) | 56 | 60 | 42 | 58 | 0.84 |
| Overweight (≥ 25) | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | |
| Arsenical skin lesion present | 60 | 64 | 48 | 67 | 0.74 |
| Arsenical skin lesion absent | 34 | 36 | 24 | 33 | 0.81 |

[¥]Two-tailed.

participants using water with arsenic level <50 µg L⁻¹ and <10 µg L⁻¹, respectively. About 45% of participants belonging to Group-1A were aged between 30–44 years, majority (62%) being males (Table 1). Thirty-nine percent of the Group-1A participants were underweight, history of smoking and tobacco chewing being present in 28% and 11% of subjects, respectively. None of the participants had any history of alcohol intake.

Water and diet consumption and arsenic content in water and food categories

There was no significant difference in quantity of intake of water and various dietary items taken by the two groups (Table 2). Of the various dietary constituents, cooked rice and cooked vegetables were taken by all the participants. Cooked rice constituted the major bulk of the participants' diet in both groups (56% in Group-1A and 65% in Group-1B participants), (Table 2). That rice constituted the major

bulk of diet in people living in the Indo-Bangladesh sub-continent had also been reported by others.^[7,12,13,26,27]

There was no significant difference in arsenic content in various food categories taken by the two groups of subjects (Table 3). Median arsenic content of cooked rice of Group-1A and Group-1B participants was 83 µg kg⁻¹ and 74 µg kg⁻¹ respectively. A few data are available on arsenic content in cooked rice in India Bangladesh subcontinent. In one report from arsenic contaminated areas of West Bengal arsenic content in cooked rice was reported as 65 (range: 33–138) µg kg⁻¹,^[28] while it was reported as 100 (range: 28–600 µg kg⁻¹) from another study from Bangladesh.^[11] Median arsenic content of cooked vegetables taken by the two groups in the present study was 81 and 75 µg kg⁻¹, respectively.

Daily arsenic intake through drinking water and diet and arsenic in urine

Total daily arsenic intake through drinking water ranged from <0.3 to 139 µg day⁻¹ in 94 Group-1A participants, while ranging from <0.3 to 23 µg day⁻¹ (*P* < 0.001) in 72 Group-1B participants. The range of dose of daily arsenic intake through drinking water was <0.3–3.09 µg/kg body wt/day for the former, while it was <0.3–0.42) µg/kg body wt/day for the latter (*P* < 0.001). Median value of total daily arsenic intake from diet was 136 (range: 20–380) µg day⁻¹ in Group-1A while 124 (range: 20–380) µg day⁻¹ in Group-1B participants (*P* = 0.14). Median dose of total daily arsenic intake from diet was 3.01 (range: 0.39–8.00) µg/kg body wt /day in the former, while 2.66 (range: 0.39–7.61) µg/kg body wt/day in the later (*P* = 0.16). Median arsenic level in urine in Group-1A participants was 64 (range: <0.3–526) µg L⁻¹, while its value in Group-1B participants was 51 (range: <0.3–449) µg L⁻¹ (*P* = 0.12). Median arsenic value in urine was 156 (range <0.3–526) µg L⁻¹ in 22 out of 94 Group-1A participants who were drinking water with arsenic level > 10 µg L⁻¹ (WHO safe limit) but <50 µg L⁻¹ (permissible limit in India).

Sixty-eight people out of 72 participants belonging to Group-1B were exposed to arsenic mainly through diet as they were drinking water with arsenic level below detection limit (<0.3 µg L⁻¹). Median value of total daily arsenic intake from diet was 130 (range: 20–380) µg day⁻¹. Median value of arsenic level in urine in these 68 participants was 55 (range <0.3–449) µg L⁻¹. Amongst these, 45 participants were having features of arsenicosis characterized by arsenical skin lesion of pigmentation and keratosis, while 23 participants had no such lesion. The urinary arsenic concentration was found to correlate positively (*r* = 0.573), (Fig. 2) with dietary arsenic level in the 45 participants who had arsenical skin lesions, while this correlation was insignificant (*r* = 0.007), (Fig. 3) in 23 participants without skin lesions.

The results of multiple regressions analysis conducted on the 94 Group-1A participants drinking water with

Table 2. Daily consumption rates of water and various food categories by 94 (Group-1A) and 72 (Group-1B) study participants.

| Food items (g day ⁻¹) / Water (Liter day ⁻¹) | Group-1A n = 94 | | | | Group-1B n = 72 | | | | P value [¥] |
|--|--------------------|--------|-----|------|--------------------|--------|-----|------|----------------------|
| | n | Median | Min | Max | n | Median | Min | Max | |
| Raw Rice (d. w.) | 94 | 439 | 35 | 945 | 72 | 413 | 35 | 887 | 0.48 |
| Cooked Rice (w. w.) | 94 | 1300 | 100 | 2900 | 72 | 1250 | 100 | 2700 | 0.46 |
| ¹ Dry Cereals (d. w.) | 24 | 22 | 5 | 50 | 21 | 25 | 5 | 50 | 0.98 |
| ² Chapati (w. w.) | 13 | 160 | 50 | 800 | 13 | 160 | 50 | 800 | 1.00 |
| ³ Cooked Pulses (w.w.) | 34 | 100 | 20 | 500 | 31 | 100 | 20 | 500 | 0.79 |
| ⁴ Cooked Vegetables (w. w.) | 94 | 260 | 20 | 717 | 72 | 255 | 20 | 640 | 0.46 |
| Milk (w. w.) (L day ⁻¹) | 5 | 125 | 125 | 250 | 5 | 125 | 125 | 250 | 1.00 |
| Cooked Meat/Chicken (w. w.) | 14 | 50 | 20 | 200 | 14 | 50 | 20 | 200 | 1.00 |
| ⁵ Cooked Fish (w. w.) | 32 | 27 | 2 | 165 | 15 | 45 | 8 | 165 | 0.18 |
| ⁶ Cooked Egg (w. w.) | 19 | 40 | 5 | 90 | 18 | 40 | 10 | 90 | 0.78 |
| ⁷ Fruit (w. w.) | 5 | 75 | 50 | 100 | 4 | 72 | 50 | 100 | 0.90 |
| Water Intake(Male) L day ⁻¹ | 58 | 3.5 | 1 | 6.3 | 44 | 3 | 1 | 6.3 | 0.28 |
| Water Intake (Female) L day ⁻¹ | 36 | 2.5 | 1 | 4 | 28 | 2 | 1 | 4 | 0.3 |

d. w: dry weight; w. w: wet weight.

¹Dry cereals: Puffed rice, flaked rice, biscuits, etc.

²Chapati: Made from wheat flour, bread, etc.

³Cooked pulses: Lentil, mug, matar, Bengal gram, kalai, green peas, soya bean nugget, 'bari' (made from any pulses), etc.

⁴Vegetables: (i) Roots and tubers: Potato, carrot, radish, sweet potato, colocasia, 'oal', 'thor', onion; (ii) GLV: Cabbage, cauli flower, spinach, 'sajna sag', nate, 'pumpkin sag', 'lau sag', 'kochu sag'; (iii) Other vegetables: Tomato, onion stalk, brinjal, papaya, 'sajne data', parwar, cluster beans, beans, 'jhinga', pumpkin, bitter gourd, bottle gourd, ladies finger, plaintain green, 'kakrol', 'chalkumra', 'kochulati' 'mocha', pumpkin flower, 'chichinga', 'echor', green mango.

⁵Fish: Rohu, mrigel, hilsa, puti, pona, bata.

⁶Egg: Hen, duck and poultry.

⁷Fruit: Banana, mango, coconut, jack fruit.

arsenic level <50 µg L⁻¹ are presented in Table 4. The exposure assessment showed that daily arsenic dose from water and diet explained the most variability of urinary arsenic level. Doses of daily arsenic intake from water and diet, both, were found to be significantly positively associated with urinary arsenic level (Table 4). Thus, a one-unit increase in daily arsenic dose from water resulted in a 0.344-fold increase in average urinary arsenic content,

and one unit increase in daily arsenic dose from diet resulted in a 0.154-fold increase in average urinary arsenic content. Another significant risk factor and confounder observed were skin lesions. Those with skin lesions were found to excrete significantly more arsenic in urine ($\beta = 0.865$, $P < 0.001$). Thus, those with skin lesions excreted on an average 0.865 as much urinary arsenic, as compared to those without skin lesions with the same dose of

Table 3. Arsenic content in various food categories taken by 94 (Group-1A) and 72 (Group-1B) study participants.

| As conc. of different Food items (µg kg ⁻¹) | Group-1A n = 94 | | | | Group-1B n = 72 | | | | P value [¥] |
|---|--------------------|--------|-----|-----|--------------------|--------|-----|-----|----------------------|
| | n | Median | Min | Max | n | Median | Min | Max | |
| Raw Rice (d. w.) | 58 | 276 | 26 | 621 | 45 | 276 | 26 | 621 | 0.98 |
| Cooked Rice (w. w.) | 58 | 83 | 30 | 164 | 45 | 74 | 30 | 164 | 0.31 |
| ¹ Dry Cereals (d. w.) | 18 | 185 | 49 | 437 | 16 | 185 | 49 | 437 | 0.79 |
| ² Chapati (w. w.) | 11 | 171 | 46 | 222 | 11 | 171 | 46 | 222 | 1.00 |
| ³ Cooked Pulses (w. w.) | 23 | 31 | 4 | 61 | 20 | 30 | 4 | 49 | 0.68 |
| ⁴ Cooked Vegetables (w. w.) | 60 | 81 | 13 | 210 | 46 | 75 | 13 | 210 | 0.44 |
| Milk (w. w.) (L day ⁻¹) | 4 | 60 | 60 | 60 | 4 | 60 | 60 | 60 | |
| Cooked Meat/Chicken (w. w.) | 7 | 100 | 20 | 200 | | | | | |
| ⁵ Cooked Fish (w. w.) | 21 | 96 | 30 | 174 | 10 | 96 | 40 | 108 | 0.85 |
| ⁶ Cooked Egg (w. w.) | 14 | 191 | 7 | 191 | 14 | 191 | 7 | 191 | |
| ⁷ Fruit (w. w.) | 4 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 4 | 20 | 20 | 20 | |

¥Two-tailed, d. w: dry weight, w. w: wet weight.

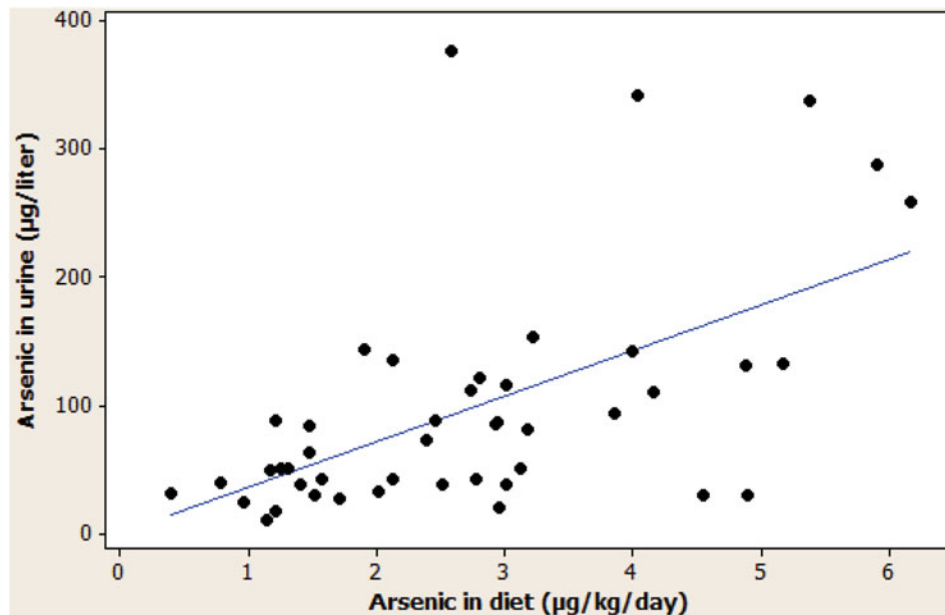


Fig. 2. Correlation of urinary arsenic concentration ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) with daily dietary arsenic intake ($\mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{day}^{-1}$) for participant drinking water with arsenic level $<0.3 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ having skin lesion ($n = 45$), West Bengal, India ($r = 0.573$).

arsenic intake. The adjusted R-squared coefficient was 0.189.

Further, results of multiple regression analysis conducted on the 72 (Group-1B) participants who were drinking water with arsenic level $< 10 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ are presented in Table 5. In this case also, the daily dose of arsenic from water and diet explained the greatest variability of urinary arsenic exposure as in the previous case. However, daily doses

of arsenic intake from water was no longer significantly associated with urinary arsenic, whereas daily dose of arsenic from diet was still found to be significantly positively associated with urinary arsenic value (Table 5). Furthermore, one unit increase in daily dose of arsenic from diet resulted in a 0.436-fold increase in average urinary arsenic content. Moreover, skin lesions were still a significant risk factor and confounder of urinary arsenic and excreted

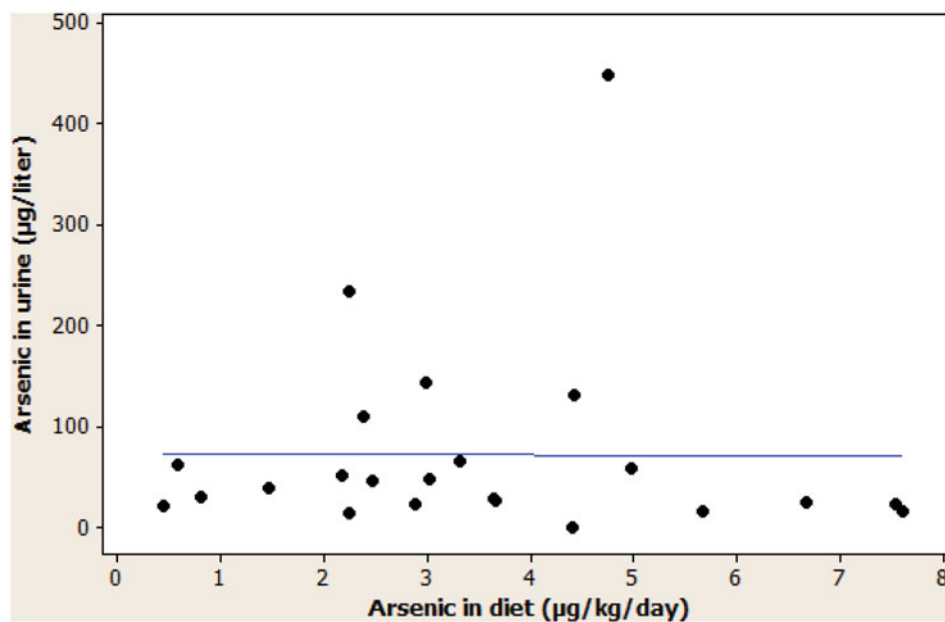


Fig. 3. Correlation of urinary arsenic concentration ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) with daily dietary arsenic intake ($\mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{day}^{-1}$) for participant drinking water with arsenic level $<0.3 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ having no skin lesion ($n = 23$), West Bengal, India ($r = 0.007$).

Table 4. Results for linear regression model evaluating different exposure scenarios for log₁₀ urinary arsenic in 94 participants (Group-1A) taking water with As <50 µg/L⁻¹.

| Parameter | Estimate | SE | P-value |
|---|----------|-------|---------|
| <i>Model- I: Log Tube-well water As content (µg/Liter)</i> | | | |
| Intercept | 3.844 | 0.472 | < 0.001 |
| Tube well conc. (µg L ⁻¹) | 0.536 | 0.191 | 0.006 |
| Age | -0.004 | 0.010 | 0.694 |
| Sex | -0.295 | 0.237 | 0.217 |
| Skin lesion | 0.784 | 0.244 | 0.002 |
| Adj R ² = 0.124 | | | |
| <i>Model- II: Log Total daily intake from diet + Log Av Total daily intake from water (µg day⁻¹)</i> | | | |
| Intercept | 3.589 | 0.498 | < 0.001 |
| Average total daily intake from water (µg day ⁻¹) | 0.007 | 0.003 | 0.031 |
| Average total daily intake from diet (µg day ⁻¹) | 0.003 | 0.001 | 0.103 |
| Age | -0.006 | 0.010 | 0.558 |
| Sex | -0.445 | 0.248 | 0.068 |
| Skin lesion | 0.900 | 0.248 | < 0.001 |
| Adj R ² = 0.150 | | | |
| <i>Model- III: Log Av Total daily dose from diet + Log Av Total daily dose from water (µg/Kg-day)</i> | | | |
| Intercept | 3.575 | 0.481 | < 0.001 |
| Average total daily dose from water (µg/kg body wt/day) | 0.344 | 0.141 | 0.017 |
| Average total daily dose from diet (µg/kg body wt/day) | 0.154 | 0.070 | 0.031 |
| Age | -0.010 | 0.010 | 0.366 |
| Sex | -0.370 | 0.229 | 0.111 |
| Skin lesion | 0.865 | 0.237 | < 0.001 |
| Adj R ² = 0.189 | | | |

significantly more arsenic in urine ($\beta = 0.797$, $P < 0.01$). Thus, those with skin lesions excreted on average 0.797 as much urinary arsenic as compared to those without skin lesions with the same arsenic intake. The adjusted R-squared coefficient was 0.206.

Discussion

The current study highlighted that even when people were using arsenic-safe water (< 50 µg L⁻¹, permissible limit in India) for drinking and cooking purposes, daily doses of arsenic intake from both water and diet were significantly positively associated with urinary arsenic level in people living in an arsenic endemic region. When the arsenic level in drinking water was further reduced to < 10 µg L⁻¹ (WHO safe limit), the dose of arsenic exposure from diet was still found to be associated with significant urinary arsenic excretion but no significant association was found with arsenic dose from water in this group. Median arsenic

level in urine in people using arsenic safe water (<50 µg L⁻¹) was 64 (range: <0.3–526) µg L⁻¹ while its value in participants drinking water with arsenic level <10 µg L⁻¹ was 51 (range: <0.3–449) µg L⁻¹. In another separate study carried by us in three other different villages in northern Nadia, the risk of arsenic exposure was assessed in a cohort of 157 participants (male: 68; female: 89) among the people supplied with arsenic safe drinking water for the past few years.^[29] The determination of urinary arsenic concentration of the participants who were drinking arsenic-safe water (<50 µg L⁻¹), showed that despite low intake of arsenic from drinking water, the concentration of arsenic in urine was considerably high (range: <0.3 µg L⁻¹–753 µg L⁻¹; median: 42.3 µg L⁻¹). By assessing the risk of arsenic exposure at three regions of West Bengal, Mondal et al.^[30] have also reported that the risk of arsenic exposure from rice consumption predominates in the area where arsenic concentration in drinking water was low.

Data of total individual arsenic exposure and arsenic level in urine of 169 arsenic-exposed people in Nadia, West

Table 5. Results for linear regression model evaluating different exposure scenarios for log₁₀ urinary arsenic in 72 participants (Group-1B) taking water with As <10 µg L⁻¹.

| Parameter | Estimate | SE | P-value |
|---|----------|-------|---------|
| <i>Model- I: Log Tube-well water As content (µg L⁻¹)</i> | | | |
| Intercept | 4.41 | 0.491 | < 0.001 |
| Tube well conc. (µg L ⁻¹) | -0.081 | 0.100 | 0.420 |
| Age | -0.017 | 0.011 | 0.117 |
| Sex | -0.222 | 0.241 | 0.362 |
| Skin lesion | 0.708 | 0.250 | 0.006 |
| Adj R ² = 0.135 | | | |
| <i>Model- II: Log Total daily intake from diet + Log Av Total daily intake from water (µg/day)</i> | | | |
| Intercept | 2.574 | 1.003 | 0.013 |
| Average total daily intake from water (µg day ⁻¹) | -0.072 | 0.183 | 0.693 |
| Average total daily intake from diet (µg day ⁻¹) | 0.394 | 0.191 | 0.043 |
| Age | -0.019 | 0.011 | 0.078 |
| Sex | -0.291 | 0.238 | 0.228 |
| Skin lesion | 0.816 | 0.250 | 0.002 |
| Adj R ² = 0.185 | | | |
| <i>Model- III: Log Av Total daily dose from diet + Log Av Total daily dose from water (µg/Kg-day)</i> | | | |
| Intercept | 4.12 | 0.490 | < 0.001 |
| Average total daily dose from water (µg/kg body wt/day) | 0.224 | 0.425 | 0.601 |
| Average total daily dose from diet (µg/kg body wt/day) | 0.436 | 0.183 | 0.020 |
| Age | -0.021 | 0.010 | 0.052 |
| Sex | -0.251 | 0.233 | 0.287 |
| Skin lesion | 0.797 | 0.244 | 0.002 |
| Adj R ² = 0.206 | | | |

Bengal, who were using water with arsenic level both above and below $50 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, and which constituted the source population of this study, were reported earlier.^[18] Total daily arsenic intake from diet was higher (median: 165, range 20–479 $\mu\text{g day}^{-1}$) in that group compared to the total daily dietary arsenic intake (median: 136, range: 20–380 $\mu\text{g day}^{-1}$) as observed in 94 (Group-1A) participants of our presented study group who were using arsenic- safe water (arsenic level $<50 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) for drinking and cooking purposes.

It was interesting to note from our present study that in people exposed to arsenic through diet only, significant correlations of arsenic levels in urine occurred in people showing clinical features of arsenical skin lesion, whereas no such correlation was found in people who didn't show such skin lesions. Out of the 68 participants with arsenic exposure mainly through diet, urinary arsenic concentration was found to correlate positively ($r = 0.573$) with dietary arsenic intake in the 45 participants with skin lesions (Fig. 2), while this correlation was insignificant ($r = 0.007$) in 23 participants without skin lesions (Fig. 3). Higher median urinary arsenic value relative to arsenic intake through water and diet was also reported earlier in 78 subjects with skin lesions compared to urinary arsenic value in 89 subjects without skin lesions amongst 167 participants studied earlier, although there was a marginal difference of median total arsenic intake through water and diet in these two groups.^[18]

The variation in urinary arsenic excretion in arsenic-exposed subjects with and without skin lesions might be due to difference in bio-accessibility of arsenic in the system from the gut after oral intake or due to altered metabolism or differential bio-elimination of arsenic in urine after absorption in people having presence and absence of skin manifestations with similar arsenic exposure. The pathophysiological reason for this differential behavior of arsenic excretion in urine in arsenic-exposed people with and without arsenical skin lesion needs further study.

From a public health perspective, our findings are particularly important given the fact that millions of people are exposed to arsenic in drinking water in India-Bangladesh subcontinent where arsenic contaminated groundwater is used for irrigation purposes, and there is a relevance of reduction of safe limit of arsenic in drinking water. Our study further suggested that the supply of arsenic-safe water with WHO standard ($<10 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) to the population in rural Bengal alone was not enough to reduce the biological effects of chronic arsenic exposure. Dietary intake was another potential pathway of arsenic exposure that must also be considered. Introduction of policies for sustainable agricultural practices that minimize the transfer of arsenic from groundwater to soils to the human food chain was urgently needed. It should also be mentioned that when arsenic from diet contributed significantly to the total daily arsenic intake, an effort should be made to

reduce the safe limit of arsenic in water from $50 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ to $10 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ in India's Bangladesh subcontinent.

Conclusion

This study highlights that dose of daily arsenic intake from both water and diet are significantly positively associated with urinary arsenic levels in an arsenic-endemic region of West Bengal, even when people are using arsenic-safe water ($<50 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) for drinking and cooking purposes. When arsenic levels in drinking water were further reduced to $<10 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ (WHO safe limit), dose from diet was still found to be associated with urinary arsenic excretion significantly. But no significant association was found with arsenic dose from water in this group. Further, when exposed to arsenic through diet only, urinary arsenic concentration was found to correlate positively with dietary arsenic in participants having skin lesions only, while this correlation was insignificant in participants without skin lesion. It can be concluded that, in rural Bengal, any mitigation of chronic arsenic toxicity needed integrated approaches of attempting to reduce arsenic entry into the food chain on the one hand and reduction of safe limits of arsenic in drinking water on the other.

Acknowledgment

The authors wish to thank Dr. S. Sarkar, Dr. T. K. Mondal, Dr. S. Samanta, Dr. S. C. Santra, R. N. Guha Mazumder, Anath Pramanick, Gopal Modak, Goutam Dutta and Narayan Chandra Das for their help in the execution of this study. Special thanks are due to all the patients and villagers for their participation and cooperation in carrying on this study.

Funding

This work was supported by a research grant funded by the World Bank under National Agricultural Innovative Project 'Arsenic in Food Chain: Cause, Effect and Mitigation' from the Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR) Govt. of India (Ref. No. NAIP/C4/C1005, dated 12.6.2007). The contents of this article are solely the responsibility of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official view of ICAR or the World Bank. The authors declare that they have no competing financial interests.

References

- [1] International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC). Some drinking-water disinfectants and contaminants, including Arsenic. In *Monographs on the Evaluation of Carcinogenic Risks to Humans*; World Health Organization: Lyon, France, 2004; Vol. 84, 271–441.

- [2] Meharg, A.A.; Rahman, M.M. Arsenic contamination of Bangladesh paddy field soils: implications for rice contribution to arsenic consumption. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2003**, *37*, 229–234.
- [3] Roberts, L.C.; Hug, S.J.; Dittmar, J.; Voegelin, A.; Kretzschmar, R.; Wehrli, B.; Cirpka, O. A.; Saha, G.C.; Ali, M.A.; Badruzzaman, B.M. Arsenic release from paddy soils during monsoon flooding. *Nat. Geosci.* **2010**, *3*, 53–59.
- [4] Williams, P.N.; Price, A.H.; Raab, A.; Hossain, S.A.; Feldmann, J.; Meharg, A.A. Variation in arsenic speciation and concentration in paddy rice related to dietary exposure. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2005**, *39*, 5531–5540.
- [5] Rahman, M.A.; Hasegawa, H.; Rahman, M.A. Influence of cooking method on arsenic retention in cooked rice related to dietary exposure. *Sci. Total Environ.* **2006**, *370*, 51–60.
- [6] Duxbury, J.M.; Mayer, A.B.; Lauren, J.G.; Hassan, N. Food chain aspects of arsenic contamination in Bangladesh: Effects on quality and productivity of rice. *J. Environ. Sci. Health A* **2003**, *38*, 61–69.
- [7] Roychowdhury, T.; Uchino, T.; Tokunaga, H.; Ando, M. Survey of arsenic in food composites from an arsenic affected area of West Bengal, India. *Food. Chem. Toxicol.* **2002**, *40*, 1611–1621.
- [8] Alam, M.G.M.; Snow, E.T.; Tanaka, A. Arsenic and heavy metal contamination of vegetables grown in Samta village, Bangladesh. *Sci. Total Environ.* **2003**, *308*, 83–96.
- [9] Huq, S.M.I.; Joardar, J.C.; Parvin, S.; Correll, R.; Naidu, R. Arsenic contamination in food-chain: transfer of arsenic into food materials through groundwater irrigation. *J. Health Popul. Nutr.* **2006**, *24*, 305–316.
- [10] Chowdhury, U.K.; Rahaman, M.M.; Mondal, B.K.; Pal, K.; Lodh, D.; Biswas, B.K.; Basu, G.K.; Chanda, C.R.; Saha, K.C.; Mukherjee, S.C.; Roy, S.; Das, R.; Kaies, I.; Barua, A.K.; Palit, S.K.; Quamruzzaman, Q.; Chakraborty, D. Ground water arsenic contamination and human suffering in West Bengal, India and Bangladesh. *Environ. Sci.* **2001**, *8*, 393–415.
- [11] Watanabe, C.; Kawata, A.; Sudo, N.; Makiko Sekiyama, M.; Tsukasa Inaoka, T.; MunjooBae, M.; Ohtsuka, R. Water intake in an Asian population living in arsenic contaminated area. *Toxicol. Appl. Pharmacol.* **2004**, *198*, 272–282.
- [12] Ohno, K.; Yanase, T.; Matsuo, Y.; Kimura, T.; Rahman, M.H.; Magara, Y.; Matsui, Y. Arsenic intake via water and food by a population living in an arsenic-affected area of Bangladesh. *Sci. Total Environ.* **2007**, *381*, 68–76.
- [13] Kile, M.L.; Houseman, E.A.; Breton, C.V.; Smith, T.; Quamruzzaman, O.; Rahman, M.; Mahiuddin, G.; Christiani, D.C. Dietary arsenic exposure in Bangladesh. *Environ. Health Perspect.* **2007**, *115*, 889–893.
- [14] Valentine, J.L.; Kang, H.K.; Spivey, G. Arsenic levels in human blood, urine, and hair in response to exposure via drinking water. *Environ. Res.* **1979**, *20*, 24–32.
- [15] Buchet, J.P.; Lauwerys, R.; Roels, H. Urinary excretion of inorganic arsenic and its metabolites after repeated exposure of sodium metaarsenite by volunteers. *Int. Arch. Occup. Environ. Health* **1981**, *48*, 1111–1118.
- [16] Halder, D.; Bhowmick, S.; Biswas, A.; Mandal, U.; Nriagu, N.; Guha Mazumdar, D. N.; Chatterjee D.; Bhattacharya P. Consumption of brown rice: A potential pathway for arsenic exposure in rural Bengal. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2012**, *46*, 4142–4148.
- [17] Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) and World Health Organization (WHO). Evaluation of certain contaminants in food; In *72nd Report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives*; WHO: Geneva, 2011.
- [18] GuhaMazumder, D.N.; Deb, D.; Biswas A.; Saha, C.; Nandy, A.; Ganguly, B.; Ghose, A.; Bhattacharya, K.; Majumdar, K.K. Evaluation of dietary arsenic exposure and its biomarkers: A case study of West Bengal, India. *J. Environ. Sci. Health Pt. A* **2013**, *49*, 1–9.
- [19] Guha Mazumder, D.N.; Ghosh, A.; Majumdar, K.K.; Ghosh, N.; Saha, C.; Guha Mazumder, R.N. Arsenic Contamination of Ground Water and its Health Impact on Population of District of Nadia, West Bengal, India. *Ind. J. Commun. Med.* **2010**, *35*, 331–338.
- [20] World Health Organization (WHO). *Clinical Aspects of Arsenicosis. A Field Guide for Detection, Management and Surveillance of Arsenicosis Cases*, Caussy, D., Ed.; Technical Publication No. 30; Author: New Delhi, 2005; 59.
- [21] Guha Mazumder, D.N.; Haque, R.; Ghosh, N.; De, B.K.; Santra, A.; Chakraborty, D.; Smith, A.H. Arsenic levels in drinking water and the prevalence of skin lesions in West Bengal, India. *Int. J. Epidemiol.* **1998**, *27*, 871–877.
- [22] Mitra, S.; Guha Mazumder, D.N.; Basu, A.; Block, G.; Haque, R.; Samanta, S.; Ghosh, N.; Smith, M.H.; Ehrenstein, O.S.V.; Smith A.H. Nutritional factors and susceptibility to arsenic-caused skin lesions in West Bengal, India. *Environ. Health. Perspect.* **2004**, *112*, 1104–1109.
- [23] Das, D.; Chatterjee, A.; Mandal, B.K.; Samanta, G.; Chakraborty, D. Arsenic in ground water in six Districts of West Bengal, India: The biggest arsenic calamity in the world, Part 2, Arsenic concentration in drinking water, hair, nails, urine, skin-scale and liver tissue (biopsy) of the affected people. *Analyst* **1995**, *120*, 917–924.
- [24] Rahman, M.A.; Hasegawa, H.; Rahman, M.M.; Miah, M.A.M. Accumulation of arsenic in tissues of rice plant (*Oryza sativa* L.) and its distribution in fractions of rice grain. *Chemosphere* **2007**, *69*, 942–948.
- [25] R Development Core Team. *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*. R Foundation for Statistical Computing: Vienna, Austria, 2009. Available at <http://www.R-project.org> (accessed May 2011)
- [26] Williams, P.N.; Islam, M.R.; Adomako, E.E.; Raaba, S.; Hossain, A.; Zhu, Y.G.; Feldman, N.J.; Meharg, A.A. Increase in rice grain arsenic for regions of Bangladesh irrigating paddies with elevated arsenic in ground waters. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2006**, *40*, 4903–4908.
- [27] Smith, N.M.; Lee, R.; Heitkemper, D.T.; DeNicolaCafferky, K.; Haque, A.; Henderson, A.K. Inorganic arsenic in cooked rice and vegetables from Bangladeshi households. *Sci. Total Environ.* **2006**, *370*, 294–301.
- [28] Pal, A.; Chowdhury, U.; Mandal, D.; Das, B.; Nayak, B.; Ghosh, A.; Maity, S.; Chakraborty, D. Arsenic Burden from cooked rice in the population of arsenic affected and non-affected areas and Kolkata city in West Bengal, India. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2009**, *43*, 3349–3355.
- [29] Halder, D.; Bhowmick, S.; Biswas, A.; Chatterjee, D.; Nriagu, J.; GuhaMazumder, D.N.; SŠlejkovec, Z.; Jacks, G.; Bhattacharya P. Risk of arsenic exposure from drinking water and dietary components: Implications for risk management in rural Bengal. *Environ Sci Technol.* **2013**, *47*, 1120–1127.
- [30] Mondal, D.; Banerjee, M.; Kundu, M.; Banerjee, N.; Bhattacharya, U.; Giri, A.K.; Ganguli, B.; Sen Roy, S.; Polya, D.A. Comparison of drinking water, raw rice and cooking of rice as arsenic exposure routes in three contrasting areas of West Bengal, India. *Environ. Geochem. Health.* **2010**, *32*, 463–477.