



Ecological degradation and non-carcinogenic health risks of potential toxic elements: a GIS-based spatial analysis for Doğancı Dam (Turkey)

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Abstract This study was carried out to determine the ecological degradation and non-carcinogenic health risks at Doğancı Dam, Bursa, Turkey. Potentially toxic element (PTE) concentrations (ppm) were as follows: Fe (55.030) > Al (27.220) > Mn (1053) > Cr (181) > Ni (180) > Zn (95) > Cu (62) > As (17) > Pb (11) > Cd (0.20) > Hg (0.108). As, Pb, Cd, and Hg were enriched anthropogenically, while other PTEs were of natural origin. The contamination severity index (CSI) indicated a moderate PTE contamination in the dam, mostly due to lithogenic effects. According to the modified hazard quotient (mHQ), ecological risk was identified at the level of extreme severity for Ni of lithological origin, of high severity for Cr of considerable severity for As of anthropogenic origin, and of moderate severity for Cu. According to the ecological contamination index (ECI), the dam had an ecological risk of a slight-to-moderate contamination. Health risk index showed no non-carcinogenic health risks in the dam. Mining, highways, and agricultural activities

were identified as the primary anthropogenic drivers to be monitored. The ongoing anthropogenic activities in the Nilüfer Stream basin and natural factors affect the ecological degradation and non-carcinogenic health risk level of the dam.

Keywords Environmental monitoring · Ecological risk · Potential toxic element pollution · Human health risk assessment · Geographical information system

Introduction

Metals are divided into two different groups; as essential (e.g., Al, Fe, Mn, and Zn) and non-essential elements (e.g., Hg, Cd, Pb, and As). While essential elements are very important for the Earth's crust and living structures, non-essential elements are used in anthropogenic activities. However, both element groups may demonstrate toxic properties as a result of anthropogenic effects. Metals with the risk of harming the ecosystem and human health due to enrichment by anthropogenic effects are called potential toxic elements (PTEs) (Ustaoğlu & Islam, 2020; Wei & Cen, 2020). Due to anthropogenic processes such as industry, mining, transportation networks, agriculture, and settlements (Lorenzana et al., 2008), ecological and health risk problems are caused by PTEs in aquatic ecosystems such as streams (Ustaoğlu et al., 2020; Xiao et al., 2021), lakes (Wang et al., 2016; El-Alfy et al.,

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2020; Niu et al., 2020), lagoons (Hu et al., 2018; Kükrer et al., 2020), bays (Elsagh et al., 2021; Haghshenas et al., 2020; Soliman et al., 2018), and dams (Farsani et al., 2019; Fural et al., 2021). PTE pollution in natural wetlands disrupts the ecological balance by harming wild fauna species (Marzio et al., 2019). PTE pollution in wetland sediments can cause health problems by passing into the human body by the consumption of water and living things that feed on sediment such as fish (Magni et al., 2021; Nargis et al., 2019). PTE can be released back into water from sediment depending on biological and geochemical conditions (Wang et al., 2012; Yuan et al., 2014). The release of PTEs enriched by anthropogenic effects into the water can create serious problems for the dam's ecosystem and for the people who take advantage of dams in various ways, such as via water consumption, fishing, and agricultural irrigation. Dam water reaches people directly through the water network (Fural et al., 2020). Ecological risks caused by PTE in dams whose water level has decreased due to climatic conditions in recent years (Aydın et al., 2017) may make it difficult for people to access clean and safe water in the coming years.

While approximately one-fifth of the world's population (1.2 billion people) had difficulty in accessing clean water in 2007, this rate is estimated to increase to two-thirds in 2025 (FAO, 2007). Globally, the amount of water consumption was one billion m³ in 1940 and four billion m³ in 1990, and is estimated to exceed eight billion m³ after 2030 (WWF, 2014). In spite of the rapidly increasing need for water, the accelerated depletion of water resources due to climate change and anthropogenic processes such as PTE pollution indicates that the world is rapidly drifting towards a crisis in accessing clean water.

Countries in the Mediterranean basin are not rich in water due to their geological, geomorphological, hydrographic, climatic, and demographic characteristics. Unless Turkey protects its water resources well, it may suffer from water scarcity in the short term (Falkenmark et al., 1989). Hence, ecological risk studies should be carried out on a local, regional, and global scale. In particular, wetlands should be continuously monitored against all anthropogenic effects, especially for ecological degradation and health risks originating from PTEs.

In this study, Doğancı Dam, which provides drinking water to Bursa, the fourth largest metropolis in Turkey, was chosen as the study area. Mining, agriculture,

highways, and settlement are the prominent anthropogenic activities in the Doğancı Dam basin. Land-use and cover data show that 25% of the watershed has intense anthropogenic activity (Fig. 1). The potential of mining and the highway near the dam to create ecological degradation, and health risk problems are quite high (Chakraborty et al., 2021; Lu et al., 2019). For this reason, it is necessary to determine the ecological effects of all land use types on the dam, especially mining and the highway, and offer solutions to the identified problems. In this study, the aforementioned problems are discussed and suggestions for solutions are presented.

This study set out to achieve three main objectives. Firstly, the ecological, toxicological, and non-carcinogenic health risk level created by PTEs (Al, As, Cd, Cr, Cu, Fe, Hg, Ni, Pb, Mn, and Zn) were analyzed in Doğancı Dam surface sediments using various indices, statistical methods, and geographical information systems (GIS). Secondly, scientific monitoring studies to avert the risk of PTE concentration reaching a non-carcinogenic health risk level that may pose a public health threat were initiated. Finally, contributions to and insights into the sustainable use of Doğancı Dam, an extremely important resource on a local, regional, and global scale, were posed so as to protect the population from anthropogenic effects.

Material and method

Study area

Doğancı Dam was built in the western part of Turkey south of Bursa city on the Nilüfer Stream in 1983 to provide drinking water (Fig. 1). The volume of the dam is 2.520.000 m³, its crest (body) height is 65 m, and its volume at maximum water level is 37.80 hm³ with an area of 1.55 km² at a normal water level. The dam, which is fed by Nilüfer Stream, Kapıkaya Creek, and seasonal stream tributaries, provides 125 hm³ of drinking water to Bursa annually (BUSKI, 2021). Metamorphic, volcanic, and sedimentary rock formations exist in the basin, which covers an area of 450 km² (MTA, 2021).

A total of 74.62% of the basin consists of natural areas: 56.65% (255.70 km²) of the basin is forest, 11.35% (110.41 km²) is thicket, 2.97% (13.40 km²) is rocky terrain, 2.78% (12.55 km²) is natural pastureland,

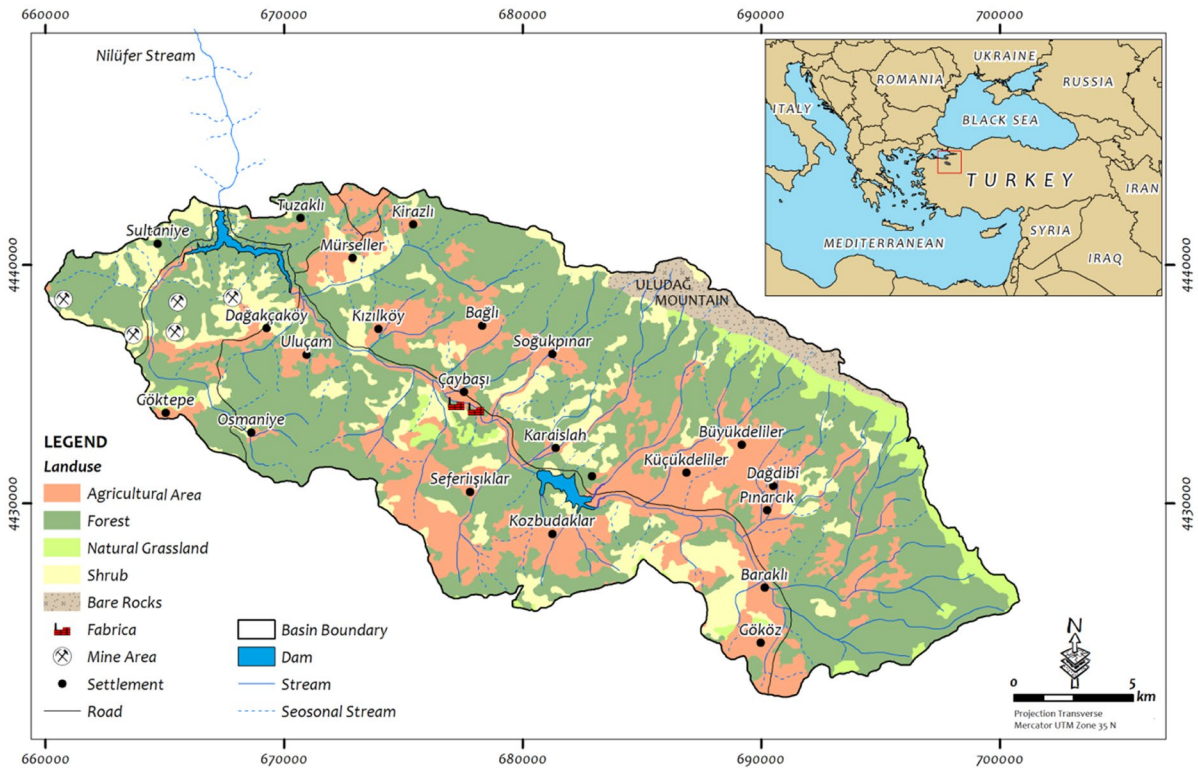


Fig. 1 Location of dam, land-use, and cover map

and 0.87% (3.70 km²) is water surface. A total of 24.50% (110.41 km²) of the basin is used as agricultural land, 0.55% (1.49 km²) as mines, 0.28% (1.26 km²) as settlements, and 0.10% (0.40 km²) is used in the form of roads (CORINE, 2018). Anthropogenic activities are carried out in 25.38% of the basin (Fig. 1).

Sediment sampling and laboratory work

Sediment sampling was carried out in the summer of 2019 (24.08.2019). Sediment samples were used in the study because the PTE concentration in the sediment can remain constant for a long time (Ftrstner, 1976; Luczynskaa & Kang, 2018). Surface sediment samples were taken from 11 points, while rock samples were taken from 6 points in different geological formations in the basin to determine PTE background values. Wet sediment samples were dried in an oven at 60 °C for 24 h for total organic carbon (TOC) and PTE analyses. Dry sediments were pulverized in a mortar. PTE analysis was carried out by ICP-MS Bureau Veritas Analytical Labs in Canada. Reference material, duplicate

measurements, and blind sampling measurements were performed to test the validity of the analyses. The recovery values of PTE measurements varied between 95.08 and 108.84%. TOC analysis was done using the Walkley Black Titration method (Gaudette et al., 1974), while CDP measurements were performed using the acetone extraction application and spectrophotometric method (Lorenzen, 1971). CaCO₃ analysis was done with a Scheibler Calcimeter (Schlichting & Blume, 1966).

Analytical procedure

Enrichment factor (EF), contamination factor (CF), modified degree of contamination (mCd), and geo-accumulation index (*I*_{geo}) are used to identify natural and anthropogenic sources of PTE.

EF is calculated according to formula 1:

$$EF = \frac{(C_i/C_{ref})_{sample}}{(B_i/B_{ref})_{background}} \tag{1}$$

where C_i refers to the PTE concentration, C_{ref} is the reference PTE concentration, B_i is the regional background value of PTE, and B_{ref} is the background value of the reference PTE. EF findings are classified as follows: $EF < 2$ no enrichment/minor enrichment, $EF = 2-5$ a moderate enrichment, $EF = 5-20$ a severe enrichment, $EF = 20-40$ a very severe enrichment, and $EF > 40$ an extremely severe enrichment (Sutherland, 2000).

CF is calculated according to formula 2:

$$CF = C_i / C_{background} \quad (2)$$

where C_i is the PTE concentration and $C_{background}$ is the background value of PTE. CF data are classified as follows: $CF < 1$ low contamination, $1 \leq CF < 3$ moderately contaminated, $3 \leq CF < 6$ considerable contamination, and $CF > 6$ a very high contamination (Hakanson, 1980).

mCd is the modified form of CF and calculated according to formula 3 (Abraham & Parker, 2008):

$$mCd = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n CF}{n} \quad (3)$$

where n is the number of PTEs used in the analysis. mCd is classified as follows: $1.5 \leq mCd < 2$ low degree of contamination, $2 \leq mCd < 4$ moderate degree of contamination, $4 \leq mCd < 8$ high degree of contamination, $8 \leq mCd < 16$ very high degree of contamination, $16 \leq mCd < 32$ extremely high degree of contamination, and $mCd \geq 32$ ultra high degree of contamination. (Abraham & Parker, 2008).

I_{geo} is calculated according to formula 4:

$$I_{geo} = \log_2 \frac{Ci}{(Bm * 1.5)} \quad (4)$$

where Ci is the PTE concentration and Bm is the continental crust value of PTE. I_{geo} is classified as follows: $I_{geo} \leq 0$ uncontaminated, $0 < I_{geo} < 1$ uncontaminated to moderately contaminated, $1 < I_{geo} < 2$ moderately contaminated, $2 < I_{geo} < 3$ moderately to strongly contaminated, $3 < I_{geo} < 4$ strongly contaminated, $4 < I_{geo} < 5$ strong to extremely contaminated, and $I_{geo} \geq 5$ extremely contaminated (Müller, 1969).

Toxic risk index (TRI_i) was used to detect toxic risks of each PTE, as follows (Zhang et al., 2016). TRI_i is calculated according to formula 5:

$$TRI_i = \sqrt{\frac{((C_i/TEL)^2 + (C_i/PEL)^2)}{2}} \quad (5)$$

where C_i represents the PTE concentration, TEL represents “threshold effect level,” and PEL represents “probable effect level” (MacDonald et al., 1997). Since there is no TRI_i risk index scale, integrated TRI was used in risk assessment in this study.

TRI is calculated according to formula 6:

$$TRI = \sum_{i=1}^n TRI_i \quad (6)$$

where TRI_i is the toxic risk index of a PTE, i is the PTE concentration, and n is the number of PTEs used in the analysis. TRI is the total toxic risk value. TRI data are classified thus: $TRI \leq 5$ no toxic risk, $5 < TRI \leq 10$ a low toxic risk; $10 < TRI \leq 15$ a moderate toxic risk; $15 < TRI \leq 20$ a considerable toxic risk; and $TRI > 20$ a very high toxic risk (Zhang et al., 2016).

mHQ is calculated with the method of comparing the ecological and toxicological effects of PTE stored in the sediment with different threshold levels (Benson et al., 2018; MacDonald et al., 2000). mHQ is calculated according to formula 7:

$$mHQ = \left[C_i \left(\frac{1}{TEL} + \frac{1}{PEL} + \frac{1}{SEL} \right) \right]^{1/2} \quad (7)$$

where SEL is the severe effect level. mHQ findings are classified in the following manner: $mHQ < 0.5$ nil to very low severity of contamination, $0.5 \leq mHQ < 1.0$ very low severity of contamination, $1.0 \leq mHQ < 1.5$ low severity of contamination, $1.5 \leq mHQ < 2.0$ moderate severity of contamination, $2.0 \leq mHQ < 2.5$ considerable severity of contamination, $2.5 \leq mHQ < 3.0$ high severity of contamination, $3.0 \leq mHQ < 3.5$ very high severity of contamination, and $mHQ > 3.5$ extreme severity of contamination (Benson et al., 2018).

ECI is used to determine the integrated total ecological risk level. ECI provides an empirical approach to ecological risk assessment using principal component analysis/factor analysis and is calculated according to formula 8:

$$ECI = B_n \sum_{i=1}^n mHQ_i \quad (8)$$

where B_n is the inverse of the eigenvalue obtained from the analysis of principal components. The ECI findings are classified in the following manner: $ECI < 2$ uncontaminated, $2 \leq ECI < 3$ uncontaminated to slightly contaminated, $3 \leq ECI < 4$ slightly to moderately contaminated, $4 \leq ECI < 5$ moderately contaminated, $5 \leq ECI < 6$ considerably to highly contaminated, $6 \leq ECI < 7$ highly contaminated, and $ECI > 7$ extremely contaminated (Benson et al., 2018).

CSI was developed to analyze the level of PTE contamination (Pejman et al., 2015), based on ERL (effects range low) and ERM (effects range median) (Long et al., 1998). CSI is calculated according to formula 9:

$$CSI = \sum_{i=1}^n W_i \left[\left(\frac{C_i}{ERL_i} \right)^{1/2} + \left(\frac{C_i}{ERM_i} \right)^2 \right] \quad (9)$$

where W_i is the contamination weight of PTE, C_i is the PTE concentration in the sediment, and n is the number of PTEs used in the analysis. W_i is calculated according to formula 10:

$$W_i = \frac{(loading\ value_i \times eigen\ value)}{\sum_i (loading\ value_i \times eigen\ value)} \quad (10)$$

The eigenvalue and load values of the factor/component determined to be anthropogenic are used in the basic components/factor analysis in W_i .

CSI findings are classified as follows: $CSI < 0.5$ uncontaminated, $0.5 \leq CSI < 1$ very low contaminated, $1 \leq CSI < 1.5$ low severity of contamination, $1.5 \leq CSI < 2$ low to moderate severity of contamination, $2 \leq CSI < 2.5$ moderate severity of contamination, $2.5 \leq CSI < 3$ moderate to high severity of contamination, $3 \leq CSI < 4$ high severity of contamination, $4 \leq CSI < 5$ very high severity of contamination, and $CSI \geq 5$ ultra-high severity of contamination.

Calculation of non-carcinogenic health risk indices

The enrichment of PTE with anthropogenic effects in wetlands may pose health risks for humans through the food web depending on the consumption of organisms that feed on sediment such as fish or various methods of exposure. Different risk indices have been developed to analyze health risks. Exp_{ing} is used to analyze the health risks that arise in the case of ingestion of sediments. Exp_{derm} is used to analyze the health risks that arise in the case of dermal exposure. In wetlands,

direct ingestion of sediments and dermatological exposure are rare. However, PTE stored in the sediment may be released back into the water with the formation of favorable environmental conditions (Yuan et al., 2014). In this case, people may be exposed to dermatological and health risks due to ingestion (drinking) during the supply of drinking water, and utility water from dams that store PTE in their sediment at amounts that may cause ecological and health risks.

Exp_{ing} is calculated according to formula 11:

$$Exp_{ing} = \frac{C_{sed} \times IR \times UCF \times EF \times ED}{BW \times AT} \quad (11)$$

where C_{sed} refers to the PTE concentration, IR is the ingestion rate (114 mg/day), UCF is the unit conversion (10^{-6} mg/kg), EF is the exposure frequency (350 days/year), ED is the exposure duration (assumed as 30 years), BW is the mean body weight (70 kg), and AT shows the average time exposed ($30\ years \times 365 = 10,950$ days). According to the formula, it is assumed that a person weighing 70 kg is exposed to 114 mg of PTE per day for 30 years (USEPA, 2002, 2005).

Exp_{derm} is calculated according to formula 12:

$$Exp_{derm} = \frac{C_{sed} \times UCF \times SA \times AF \times ABS \times EF \times ED}{BW \times AT} \quad (12)$$

where SA represents the skin area that is exposed ($5700\ cm^2$), AF represents the attachment factor ($0.07\ mg/cm^2$) of the sediment, and ABS refers to the absorption factor of the sediment (0.001) (Song et al., 2019a, b).

HQ and HI are used to detect the non-carcinogenic health risks of PTE by ingestion and dermal exposure. The formula for HQs (hazard quotients) is calculated according to formula 13:

$$HQ_{ing}/HQ_{derm} = \frac{Exp_{ing}/Exp_{derm}}{RfDO} \quad (13)$$

where Exp_{ing} represents exposure via ingestion, Exp_{derm} represents dermatological exposure, and RfDO represents the reference dose (USEPA, 2002; Sun & Chen, 2018).

HI (total non-carcinogenic health risks) is calculated according to formula 14:

$$HI = \sum_{I=1}^n HQ_{ing}/HQ_{derm} \quad (14)$$

A HI value over 1 points to the existence of non-carcinogenic health risks in the wetland, while a value

less than 1 points to no health risks (USEPA, 2002; Sun & Chen, 2018).

Multivariate statistical and spatial analyses

Cluster, factor, and correlation analyses were carried out to determine the common sources and transportation processes of PTE. The findings were transformed into spatial distribution maps by using the kriging interpolation tool in ArcMap 10.7. Kriging interpolation is used to estimate the optimum values of the data at unknown points using known values of nearby points. ArcGIS 10.7 uses formula 15 in kriging interpolation:

$$N_p = \sum_{i=1}^n P_i \times N_i \quad (15)$$

where N is the number of sampling points, N_i represents the geoid corrugation values of the points used in the calculation of N_p , N_p is the corrugation value to be calculated, and P_i represents each N_i value used in the calculation of N (ESRI, 2021).

Results and discussion

Spatial distribution of PTEs

According to mean values (ppm), PTE concentration was found as follows: Fe (55.030) > Al (27.220) > Mn (1053) > Cr (181) > Ni (180) > Zn (95) > Cu (62) > As (17) > Pb (11) > Cd (0.20) > Hg (0.108). According to our spatial analysis, minimum concentration for Pb and Hg was observed at station (ST) 8; for Zn, Fe, Ni, and Mn at ST 9; for Cr and Cu at ST 5; for Cd at ST 3; and for As at ST 6. Maximum concentration for Al, Cr, and Ni was observed at ST 8; for Fe, Mn, and Zn at ST 5; for Pb and Cd at ST 1; for As and Cu at ST 11; and for Hg at ST 10. The maximum concentration of As, Hg, and Cu at the mouth of Nilüfer Stream, one of the two important stream tributaries discharged into the dam, indicated that these PTEs were transported from within the basin. The maximum concentration of Fe, Mn, and Zn at the mouth of Kapıkaya Creek showed that these PTEs were discharged from the Kapıkaya Creek basin. It is noteworthy that Al, Cr, and Ni peaked at ST 8, a small seasonal stream inflow passing by the mine, while Pb

and Cd peaked near the dam body, where there was no continuous stream inflow but is close to the highway (Fig. 2).

The data obtained from Doğancı dam were compared with the data for PTE concentrations of the dams located in different parts of Turkey and the world (Table 1). According to minimum and maximum concentrations, Al was found to be higher here than all dams except the Manwan Dam. According to the minimum concentration, As was lower here than İvizcetepeler, Manwan, and Castilseras dams and but higher than the other dams. According to the maximum concentration, As was higher here than all the other dams except Manwan Dam. Cd was higher here than all the dams other than the İvizcetepeler Dam, given the minimum concentration, and all the other dams according to the maximum concentration. Cr was higher here than Manwan, Çatören, and Castilseras dams and lower than the other dams in terms of the minimum concentration and higher than all the other dams according to the maximum concentration. Fe was higher here than all the dams other than the Castilseras Dam in terms of minimum concentration, and all the other dams according to the maximum concentration. According to the minimum concentration, Hg was lower than İvizcetepeler Dam and higher than Aguamilpa Dam, while it was higher than both these dams according to the maximum concentration. According to the minimum and maximum concentrations, Pb was lower here than all the dams other than Aguamilpa Dam. Zn was higher here than all the dams except for Castilseras Dam in terms of the minimum concentration, and all the dams other than Manwan Dam according to the maximum concentration (Table 1). The high As, Cd, Cr, Cu, Fe, Hg, Mn, Ni, and Zn concentrations found in Doğancı Dam were noteworthy among the dams randomly selected from the relevant literature. Natural/anthropogenic sources of these PTEs were analyzed with EF, CF, mCd, and I_{geo} .

Spatial distributions of TOC, CDP, and $CaCO_3$

TOC was maximum (4.36%) at ST 10 and minimum (1.20%) at ST 8, with an average of 2.42%. According to the spatial distribution maps, TOC peaked at the mouths of Nilüfer Stream and Kapıkaya Creek

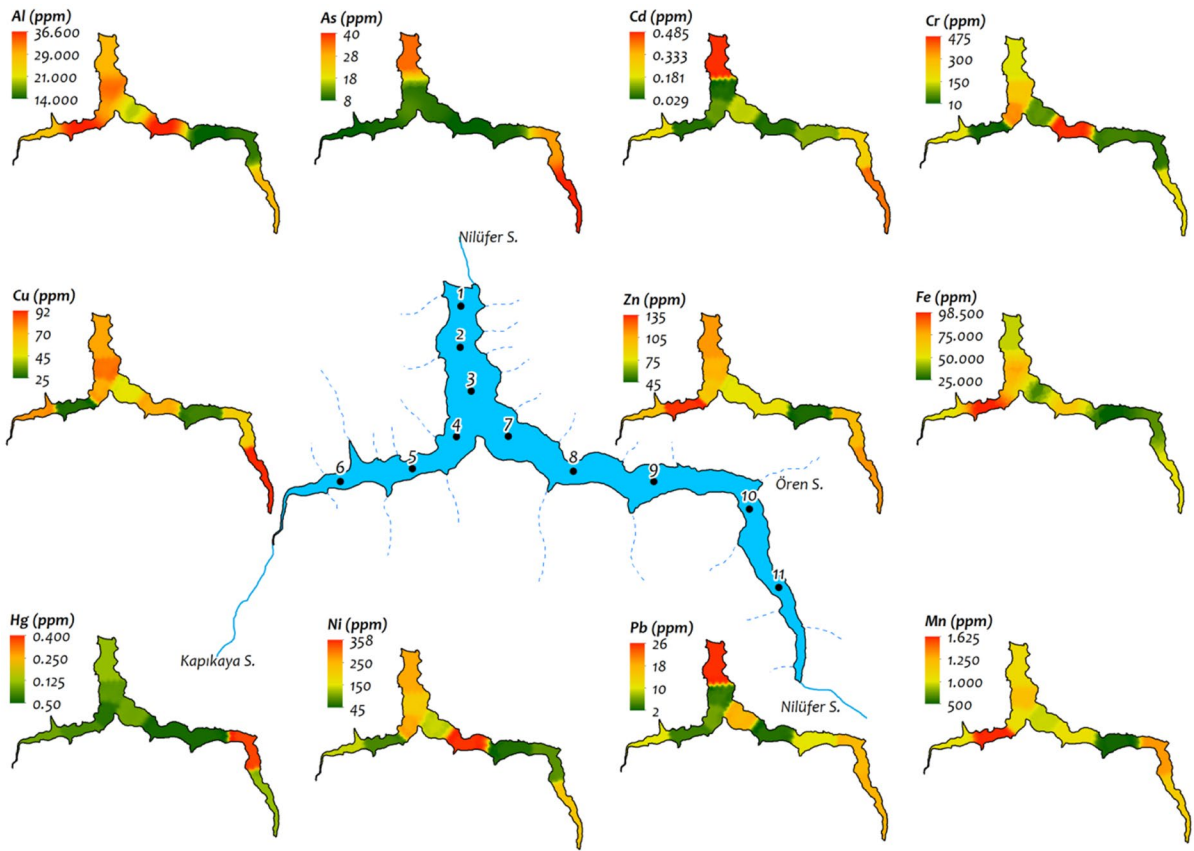


Fig. 2 Spatial distribution of PTEs at the base of the dam in summer of 2019

(Fig. 3). This showed that TOC was discharged from the basin by the rivers, or the primary production increased in these regions depending on the nutrients carried by the rivers. The higher TOC at the mouth of Nilüfer Stream than Kapıkaya Creek indicated the existence of more organic materials in the Nilüfer Stream basin. CDP concentration was minimum (0.44 µg/gr) at ST 9 and maximum (82 µg/gr) at ST 10, with an average of 27 µg/gr. CDP reached a high concentration at the mouths of Nilüfer Stream and Kapıkaya Creek (Fig. 3). The higher CDP concentration at the mouth of Nilüfer Stream suggested that net primary production and/or nutrient inputs into the basin were faster and higher than those into Kapıkaya Creek basin. An increase in Epiphytic algae in Nilüfer Stream due to N and P enrichment was previously reported (Dere et al., 2002; Karaer & Küçükballı, 2006). This in turn showed that the nutrients discharged into the Nilüfer Stream

triggered algae growth in the stream and increased the CDP concentration of the dam.

CaCO₃ concentration was minimum (0%) at ST 4 and maximum (41.75%) at ST 8, with an average of 8.46%. CaCO₃ was discharged by the Kapıkaya Creek, with the seasonal stream located at ST 8 (Fig. 3). There is a limestone formation covering an area of 10.2 km² to the south of Kapıkaya Creek and ST 8 (MTA, 2021). Therefore, the source of the high CaCO₃ concentration at the mentioned sampling points has lithophyll origin.

Evaluation of PTE contamination with EF, CF, mCd, and I_{geo}

According to the mean EF values, the order of elements was as follows: As (19.96) > Pb (19.81) > Hg (7.13) > Cd (5.22) > Mn (1.25) > Zn (1.09) > Ni (0.93) > Fe (0.90) > Cu (0.87) > Cr (0.65). As, Cd, Hg, and Pb were significantly

Table 1 Comparison of PTE concentrations between this study and other dams

Location	Al	As	Cd	Cr	Cu	Fe	Hg	Mn	Ni	Pb	Zn
Doğancı Dam (Turkey) (This study)	Min	14300	7.90	0.07	22.50	28.03	0.017	575	59.80	2.83	47.01
	Max	36600	39.94	0.47	455.20	89.99	0.361	1603	345.60	25.04	131.10
	Std.	7190	12.76	0.14	143.07	20.58	0.09	279	94.18	7.75	23.24
İkizcetepeler Dam (Turkey) (Fural et al., 2020)	Min	10170	16.60	0.09	12.80	10.60	0.025	402	16.50	14.68	33.45
	Max	20520	32.90	0.19	30	22.20	0.108	1.159	54.70	36.56	65.65
Manwan Dam (China) (Wang et al., 2012)	Min	24500	10.30		38.29	15.85		246.58		17.03	45.32
	Max	61000	72.56		89.85	56.32		769.06		92.20	259.84
Çatören Dam (Turkey) (Çiftçi, 2015)	Min	3500	0.001		30.15	18.50		112	7.50	12.50	19.23
	Max	13000	0.01		140.70	42.20		425	38.25	26.83	42.41
Aguamilpa Dam (Mexico) (Peraza et al., 2015)	Min	7760		0.01	0.22	0.79	0.01		0.24		14.80
	Max	27600		0.27	18.30	60.80	0.04		189	13.06	54.88
Castiñeras Dam (Spain) (Ordiales et al., 2015)	Min	10400	8.32		52.69	7.45		433	27.74	20.95	65.61
	Max	15800	14.30		85.69	21.51		666	60.31	50.84	116.82

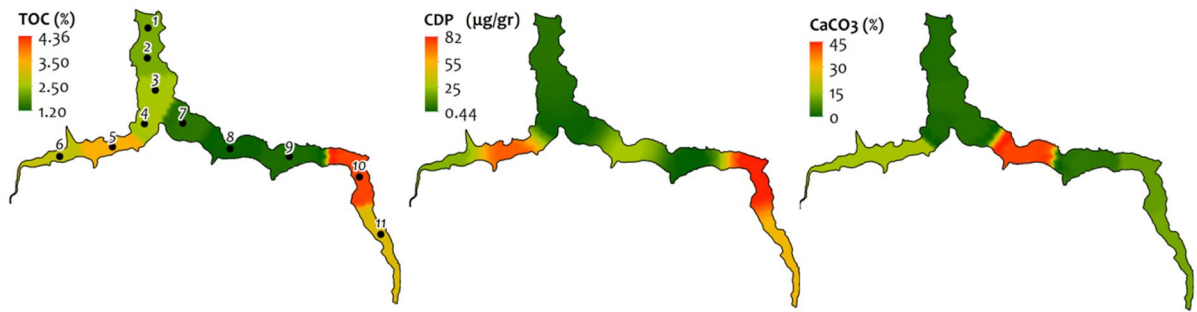


Fig. 3 Spatial distribution of TOC, CDP, and CaCO₃ in summer of 2019

enriched by exposure to various anthropogenic effects. No anthropogenic effects were detected for Mn, Zn, Ni, Fe, Cu, and Cr. Based on the mean CF data, the order of elements was as follows: Pb (29)>As (24)>Hg (7)>Cd (6)>Mn (1.66)>Zn (1.46)>Al (1.41)>Ni (1.34)>Cu (1.17)>Cr (0.98). As, Cd, Hg, and Pb were at their peak contamination levels. The other PTEs were of low contamination; that is, they were of natural origin.

mCd was minimum (3.15) at ST 8 and maximum (13.54) at ST 1, with an average of 7.07. Contamination was detected in the lower limits of high degrees of contamination based on mCd. According to the spatial analyses, the mCd values (12+) at the mouth of Nilüfer Stream and near the dam body were noteworthy. The source of high mCd was indicative of very high contamination of As, Cd, Hg, and Pb. Nilüfer Stream discharged more anthropogenic PTE than did Kapıkaya Creek (Fig. 2). Some previous studies confirmed that Nilüfer Stream discharged organic and inorganic pollutants into Doğançı Dam (Dere et al., 2002; Karaer & Küçükballı, 2006; Güleriyüz et al., 2008; Üstün, 2011). The highest mCd value occurred with ST 1 near the dam body, which does not have a stream entrance. The possible sources of Pb and Cd, which caused very high mCd values at this point, were the highway passing over the dam body, because transportation networks close to wetlands can increase Pb and Cd concentrations up to 320 m (Viard et al., 2004). This was supported considering that ST 1 was located 120 m away from the dam body, whose Pb and Cd concentrations were at the maximum level. The likely source of As and Cd reaching high concentrations and contamination levels at the mouth of the Nilüfer Stream was agriculture, because 24.50% (110.41 km²) of the basin is agricultural land. Cd is the raw material of inorganic

fertilizers frequently used in agriculture (Chen et al., 2021), while As is a raw material used in pesticides and herbicides (Acquavita et al., 2021).

The Hg concentration peaked at the mouth of the Nilüfer Stream and was of anthropogenic origin. The natural concentration level of Hg due to the weathering of volcanic rocks rose due to industrial activities such as mines (Baumann et al., 2019). Our spatial analysis showed no anthropogenic activity such as mining near ST 10, where Hg peaked. However, industrial and domestic wastewater in the Nilüfer Stream basin was carried by the river and discharged to the dam (Karaer & Küçükballı, 2006) as the main anthropogenic sources of Hg (Jahan & Strezov, 2018; Song et al., 2019a, b).

According to the mean *I_{geo}* values, the elements were listed as follows: As (3.75)>Pb (3.59)>Hg (1.94)>Cd 1.79>Mn (0.10)>Zn (-08)>Al (-0.16)>Fe (-0.32)>Ni (-0.36)>Cu (-0.45)>Cr (-1.13). The base of the dam was exposed to anthropogenic effects with Pb and As severely, with Hg and Cd moderately, and uncontaminated with Mn or contaminated moderately. No anthropogenic effects were detected for Zn, Al, Fe, Ni, Cu, and Cr. The indices calculated for the identification of PTE sources indicated that As, Pb, Cd, and Hg were of anthropogenic origin, whereas Al, Cr, Cu, Fe, Ni, Mn, and Zn were of natural origin (Fig. 4).

Toxicological risk assessment with TRI

TRI was maximum (22) at ST 8 and minimum (5) at ST 9, with an average of 13.51. A moderate toxic risk existed throughout the dam. The local anthropogenic effects created considerable toxic risks at ST 1, 2, 4, and 11 and caused a very high toxic risk at ST 8

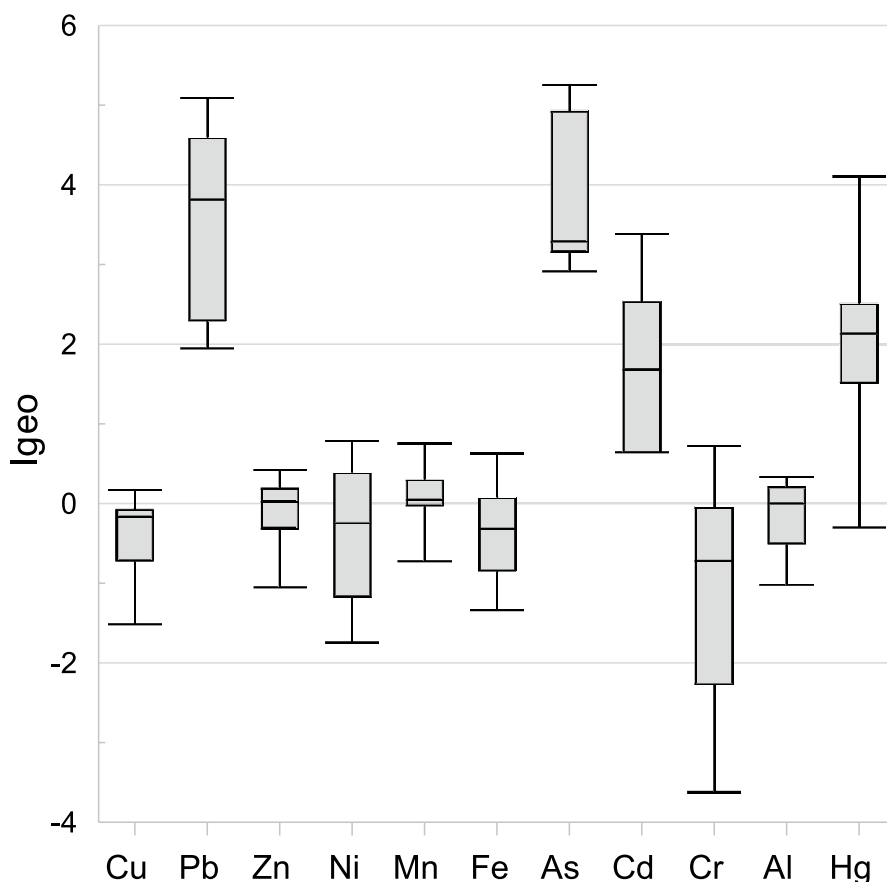
(Fig. 5). The order of responsibility of PTEs for toxic risk was as follows: Ni (45.89%) > Cr (23.53%) > Cu (10.58%) > As (9.69%) > Zn (4.29%) > Hg (3.18%) > Pb (1.70%) > Cd (1.14%). The fact that TRI peaked at a seasonal river mouth that discharges to ST 8 instead of the main river mouths feeding the dam pointed to an anthropogenic effect at this point. However, Ni (45.89%) and Cr (23.53%) are responsible for the very high toxic risk at ST 8. Ni and Cr are released into nature by the decomposition of rocks of volcanic origin (Kelepertzis et al., 2013). Our literature, spatial, and statistical analyses and findings verified that Ni and Cr were discharged into the dam by seasonal streams and emerged during the decomposition of metaclastic rocks of volcanic origin located to the south of ST 8. The source of the considerable toxic risk at ST 4 was related to the release of Ni and Cr into nature due to the decomposition of volcanic rocks, as was the case at ST 8. The highway was the probable source of the considerable toxic risk at ST 1 and 2, located near the dam body and with no stream

discharge. Cu (10.58%), As (9.69%), and Zn (4.29%) were responsible for the considerable toxic risk at ST 11 at the mouth of Nilüfer Stream. The possible source of Cu, As, and Zn was the agricultural activities carried out in the basin (Acquavita et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2021; Wei et al., 2007).

Ecological risk assessment with CSI, mHQ, and ECI

CSI was minimum (0.48) at ST 9 and maximum (5.52) at ST 8, with an average of 2.31 (moderately contaminated). However, some strong local anthropogenic effects caused an ultra-high severity of contamination at ST 8 and a high severity of contamination at ST 1, 2, 4, and 11. The order of responsibility for PTEs for the total contamination was as follows: Ni (80.51%) > As (7.37%) > Cu (5.26%) > Cr (2.97%) > Zn (2.41%) > Hg (0.55%) > Cd (0.50%) > Pb (0.43%). The reason for CSI peaking at ST 8 was the lithological Ni release. Lithogenic Ni and Cr releases and anthropogenic As, Cu, and Zn were effective in detecting the moderate contamination throughout the dam.

Fig. 4 Box whisker diagram of I_{geo}



According to the average mHQ values, the elements were listed as follows: Ni (4.04)>Cr (2.70)>As (2.01)>Cu (1.60)>Zn (1.09)>Hg (0.88)>Pb (0.66)>Cd (0.60). Ecological risk exhibited extreme severity for Ni, high severity for Cr, considerable severity for As, and moderate severity for Cu. Severity level was low for Zn and very low for Hg, Pb, and Cd. The maximum mHQ values were determined for Cu and As at ST 11, for Pb and Cd at ST 1, for Ni and Cr at ST 8, for Zn at ST 5, and for Hg at ST 10. Ni (5.78) and Cr (4.63) mHQ values were at the maximum level at the mouth of the seasonal stream passing near the mine and discharged to ST 8 (Fig. 5). Being released into nature by volcanic origin magmatic and metamagmatic rock weathering, Ni and Cr led to PTE enrichment in water and sediment (Kelepertzis et al., 2013). There are metaclastic rock formations to the south of ST 8, where Ni and Cr mHQ levels peaked (MTA, 2021). Since marble, which consists of rocks of sedimentary origin, is mined near ST 8, anthropogenic intervention

cannot be applied to the volcanic rocks. Therefore, the possible sources of Ni and Cr were lithogenic factors. Our findings confirmed that Ni and Cr together with Al, Fe, and Mn were of lithogenic origin. The fact that the mHQ level of Cr was above 3 at ST 11 at the mouth of the Nilüfer Stream was related to the discharge of Cr into the dam by the stream, which is released into nature by the decomposition of the volcanic rocks in the Nilüfer Stream basin. High Cr concentration was detected in water samples in a study conducted to determine the water quality of Nilüfer Stream (Üstün, 2011).

mHQ values for As were 3.02 at ST 1 near the highway on the dam body and maximum (3.21) at ST 10 at the mouth of Nilüfer Stream. As was affected by the highway and agricultural activities in the Nilüfer Stream basin. Cu peaked (1.95) at ST 10 at the mouth of the Nilüfer Stream. The probable source of Cu, which reached 1.75 at the mouth of Kapıkaya Creek, was agricultural activities in the basin because Cu

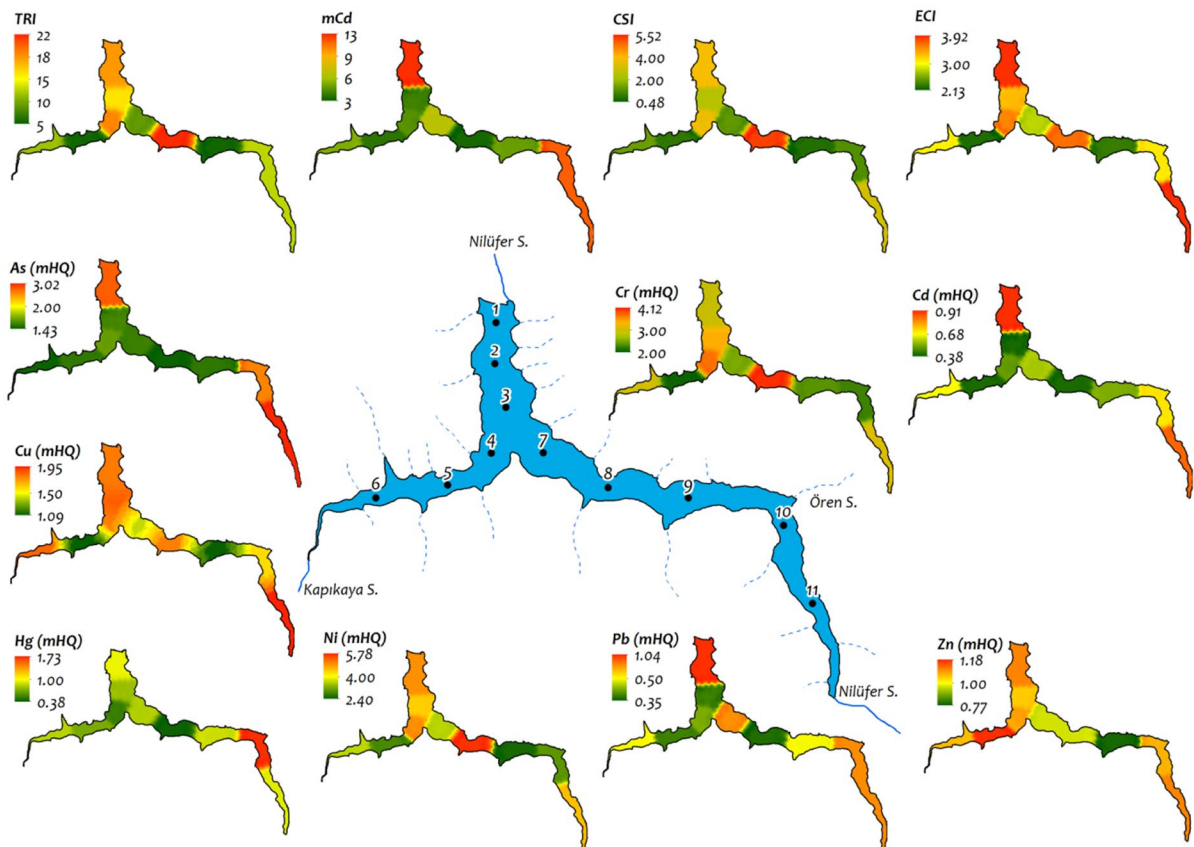


Fig. 5 Spatial analysis of TRI, mCd, CSI, ECI, and mHQ in summer of 2019

along with Zn and Cd are among the raw materials of inorganic fertilizers used in agriculture (Chen et al., 2021; Wei et al., 2007). Our spatial and statistical analyses confirmed the common origin of Cu, Zn, and Cd. However, since Cd is of dual origin, including agriculture and the highway, it was included in the same cluster with Pb and As in the cluster analysis.

In PTE analyses conducted on some plant species in Nilüfer Stream, it was determined that Cr, Cu, Ni, and Zn reached high concentrations (Güteryüz et al., 2008). This showed that Nilüfer Stream discharged Cr, Cu, Ni, and Zn into the dam. The findings of past years overlapped with the PTE concentration and spatial analyses of the sediment samples taken in this study from the sampling points at the mouth of the Nilüfer Stream. No source identification was made for PTEs with low, very low, and insignificant mHQ levels.

ECI was maximum (3.92) at ST 11 and minimum (2.13) at ST 5. It was uncontaminated to slightly

contaminated at ST 5, 7, and 9 and slightly to moderately contaminated at all the other points. The mean ECI of 3.14 pointed to a slight-to-moderate contamination across the base of the dam. The reason for ECI peaking at ST 11 was the mHQ levels of Cu, As, and Zn from agricultural activities and the mHQ levels of the lithogenic Ni and Cr. The ECI (3.88) level at ST 1, close to the highway on the dam body, resulted from the mHQ level of Pb, Cd, and As. In the spatial analysis, no anthropogenic effect was detected at ST 1, except for the highway (Fig. 5).

Non-carcinogenic health risk assessment with HI

According to the mean HI values, the elements were listed as follows: Fe (0.1232) > Cr (0.0949) > As (0.0910) > Al (0.0427) > Ni (0.0257) > Mn (0.0118) > Pb (0.0051) > Cu (0.0024) > Hg (0.0006) > Zn (0.0005) > Cd (0.0003). Thus, no PTE in the dam caused non-carcinogenic health problems.

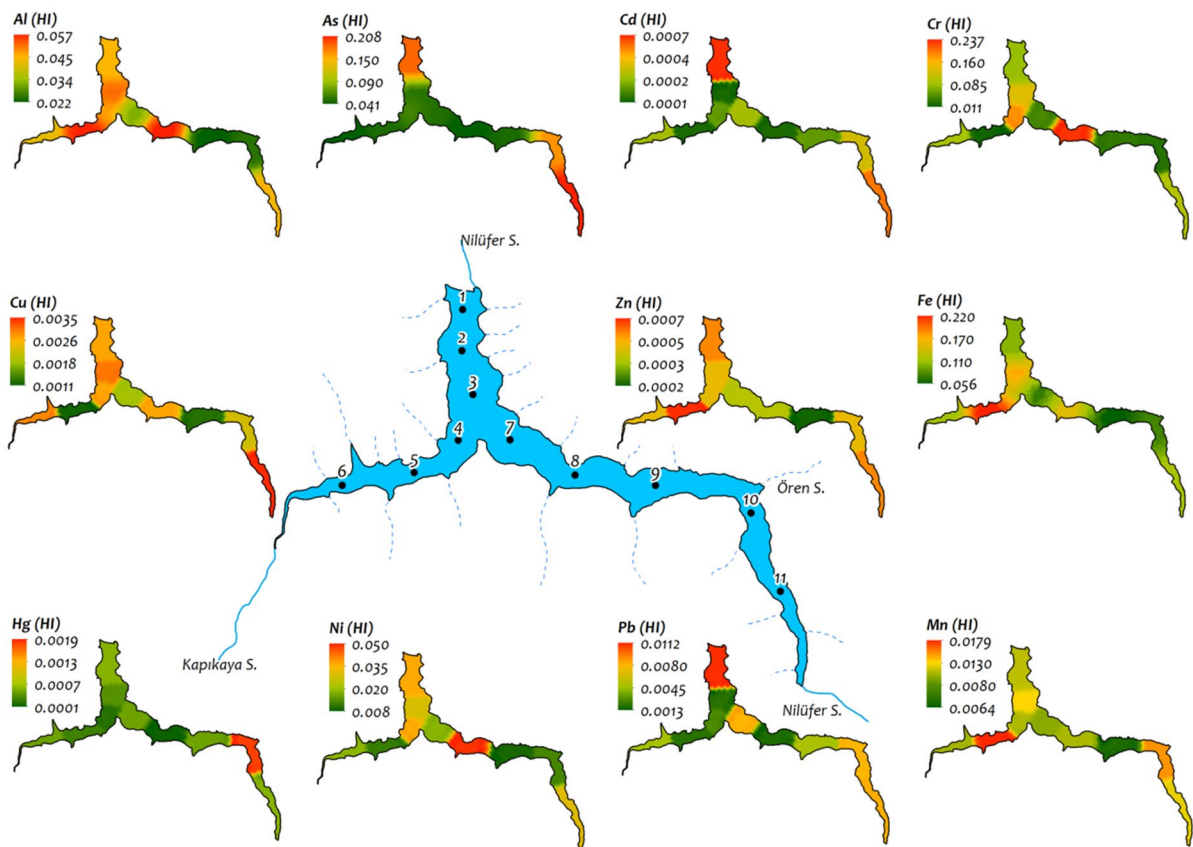


Fig. 6 Spatial analysis of HI in summer of 2019

Currently, there is no health risk in the dam sediments. However, the sampling points with maximum HI should be monitored in future studies. The maximum HI values according to the stations are as follows: Al ST 8 (0.0574), As ST 11 (0.2084), Cd ST 1 (0.0007), Cr ST 8 (0.2378), Cu ST 11 (0.0035), Zn ST 5 (0.0007), Fe ST 5 (0.2205), Hg ST 10 (0.0019), Ni ST 8 (0.0492), Pb ST 1 (0.0112), and Mn ST 5 (0.0179). Thus, the PTEs closest to the health risk limit (1) were As, Cr, and Fe. The source of Cr and Fe was lithogenic, while the source of As was anthropogenic. Our PCA and Cluster analyses also supported these findings. Spatial analyses confirmed that As peaked at the mouth of the Nilüfer Stream, which should be carefully monitored in future studies. The probable source of As at the mouth of the Nilüfer Stream was herbicides and pesticides used in agriculture in the basin. The water quality of the Nilüfer Stream is steadily declining (Üstün, 2011), and hence, more serious and effective measures should be taken against anthropogenic effects such as agriculture and domestic and industrial wastewater in the Nilüfer Stream basin (Fig. 6).

Multivariate statistical analyses

According to Spearman correlation analysis, Cu had a positive relationship with Pb, Zn, Ni, Fe, As, Cd, and Cr but a negative one with TOC. Pb had a very strong positive correlation with As, Cd, Hg; a strong negative one with Fe and Al; and a negative one with Cr, TOC, and CaCO₃. The strong negative correlation between Pb and the lithophile PTEs of Al and Fe supported the finding that Pb was influenced by anthropogenic sources. Zn showed positive correlations with Mn, Fe, Al, As, Hg, and CDP. Ni had a positive correlation with Fe, As, Cr, and Al but a negative one with Hg and TOC. Mn had a positive correlation with Fe, As, Al, TOC, and CDP but a negative one with Cr. Fe exhibited a strong negative correlation with Cd, Hg, and Pb and a negative one with As. The negative correlation between the PTEs, exposed to the most anthropogenic effects in the dam, and Fe, a lithophile PTE, was evidence of an anthropogenic effect. Fe was positively correlated with Al, Cr, TOC, CDP, and CaCO₃, while As had a strong positive correlation with Cd, Hg, and Pb (Table 2). This was another important indicator that As, Cd, Hg, and Pb were exposed to anthropogenic effects.

Table 2 Spearman correlation analysis matrix

PTE	Cu	Pb	Zn	Ni	Mn	Fe	As	Cd	Cr	Al	Hg	TOC	CDP	CaCO ₃
Cu														
Pb	0.248													
Zn	0.333	0.139												
Ni	0.551	-0.006	0.066											
Mn	0.115	-0.054	0.854	-0.018										
Fe	0.236	-0.648	0.575	0.284	0.612									
As	0.401	0.699	0.516	0.261	0.486	-0.018								
Cd	0.337	0.951	0.177	0.067	-0.067	-0.595	0.590							
Cr	0.648	-0.309	-0.175	0.806	-0.212	0.369	-0.042	-0.227						
Al	0.163	-0.660	0.406	0.563	0.418	0.878	-0.127	-0.595	0.503					
Hg	0.163	0.890	0.212	-0.284	0.103	-0.636	0.547	0.865	-0.503	-0.721				
TOC	-0.648	-0.333	-0.042	-0.345	0.284	0.224	0.012	-0.509	-0.369	0.103	-0.369			
CDP	0.078	-0.018	0.672	-0.006	0.745	0.357	0.194	0.128	-0.200	0.272	0.187	-0.042		
CaCO ₃	-0.127	-0.442	0.187	-0.187	0.175	0.248	-0.516	-0.276	-0.078	0.272	-0.187	-0.163	0.636	

Bold expressions indicate significant correlations at 95% confidence interval

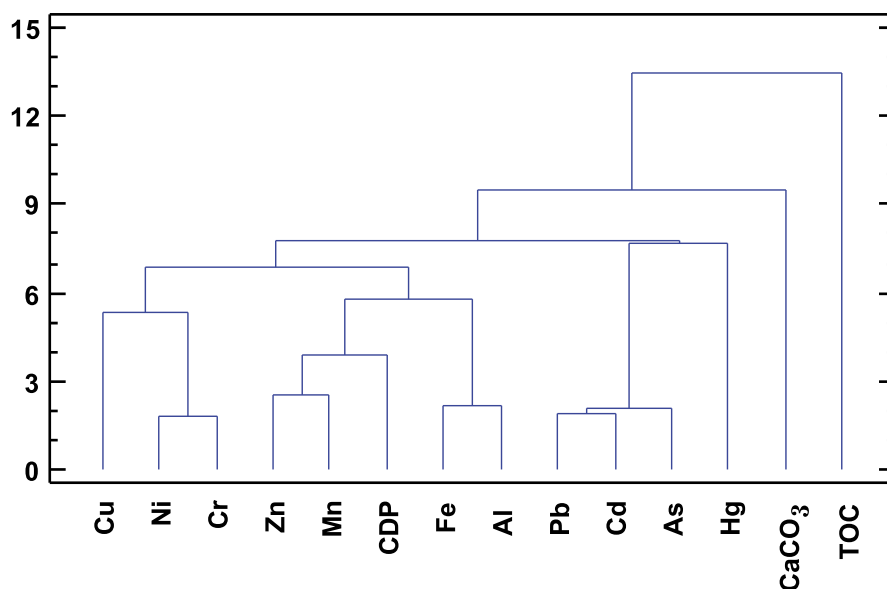
Table 3 Weight of principal components

PTE	Component 1	Component 2	Component 3	Component 4
Cu	0.075	0.303	-0.384	0.009
Pb	-0.388	0.157	-0.178	-0.112
Zn	0.068	0.464	0.193	-0.271
Ni	0.255	0.181	-0.370	0.003
Mn	0.071	0.361	0.395	-0.036
Fe	0.360	0.204	0.240	-0.223
As	-0.275	0.374	-0.116	-0.033
Cd	-0.297	0.312	-0.241	-0.092
Cr	0.338	0.050	-0.323	0.125
Al	0.393	0.254	-0.002	-0.149
Hg	-0.358	0.137	0.146	0.290
TOC	0.045	-0.187	0.328	-0.209
CDP	-0.078	0.308	0.353	0.430
CaCO ₃	0.250	0.084	-0.008	0.707

Our PCA showed four components with an eigenvalue > 1, explaining 88.97% of the total variance. Component 1 consisted of Ni, Fe, Cr, and Al. According to the findings, component 1 was of lithological origin. Component 2 consisted of Cu (which created a medium ecological risk according to the mHQ data), Zn (which created an ecological risk at the upper limits of low levels), and Cd, Pb, and As (which were enriched with anthropogenic effects). In this case, component 2 consisted of the PTEs of anthropogenic origin. Component 3 consisted of Mn, a lithophile PTE, and TOC. Component 4 included CDP

(discharged from the basin into the dam by rivers), CaCO₃ of lithogenic origin and Hg of anthropogenic origin (transported from the basin by the Nilüfer Stream). Component 4 was of lithological and anthropogenic origins with common transport processes (Table 3).

According to the cluster analysis, Cu, Ni, Cr, Zn, Mn, Fe, Al, and CDP were in the same cluster. This cluster consisted of the lithophilic PTEs and CDP. Pb, Cd, and As were exposed to anthropogenic effects and located in the same cluster, while Hg was in a closely related cluster. This in turn supported that Pb, Cd,

Fig. 7 Cluster analysis

As, and Hg were of anthropogenic origin. Although CaCO₃ and TOC were in different clusters, they were associated with the lithophile-based PTEs. The presence of carbonate rocks in the basin also confirmed that CaCO₃ was of lithophilic origin (Fig. 7).

Conclusion

Based on our findings, As, Pb, Cd, and Hg were defined as the PTEs of anthropogenic origin. Ni and Cr were determined to be of lithological origin. As was affected by agriculture and transportation networks, while Cu was affected only by agriculture. These elements created a moderate level of toxic risk throughout the dam and caused a considerable-to-very high toxic risk at some sampling points. CSI data showed a moderate PTE contamination in the dam. According to the mHQ value, ecological risk was identified at extreme severity for lithological Ni, high severity for Cr, considerable severity for anthropogenic As, and moderate severity for Cu. The ECI value pointed to a slight-to-moderate contamination across the dam. The HI value demonstrated no non-carcinogenic health risks in the dam. Our spatial analyses showed that the PTEs became more enriched near the mouth of the Nilüfer Stream and the dam body than the other sampling points, thus creating ecological and health risks. Overall, a moderate level PTE contamination, a moderate ecological risk, and a very low level of non-carcinogenic health risk existed in Doğancı Dam due to natural factors and anthropogenic activities. It is crucial to continue monitoring the highway near the dam body, mining activities south of the dam, and the other human disturbances such as agriculture and wastewater in the Nilüfer Stream basin, based on the ecological and health risk level of the PTEs. To minimize ecological deterioration and health risks,

- The ecological effects of the highway on the dam body should be analyzed with a more specific focus.
- Environmental impact audits should be carried out in the mines to the south of the dam and the factories in the basin.
- The use of chemical fertilizers in agricultural activities should be restricted. Organic farming should be encouraged in the basin.

- Strict measures should be taken to prevent the wastewater of settlements from being discharged into the Nilüfer Stream and Kapıkaya Stream.

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Author contribution Ş.F.: conceptualization, methodology, software, data curation, investigation, writing — original draft, visualization. S.K.: conceptualization, methodology, formal analysis, writing — original draft, writing — review & editing. İ.C.: conceptualization, funding acquisition, project administration, resources, writing — review & editing. D.A.: conceptualization, investigation, validation, writing — original draft, writing — review & editing. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Declarations

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Consent to participate Not applicable.

Consent for publication All authors approve the publication of the article in your journal.

Competing interests The authors declare no competing interests.

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