

**DETERMINATION OF HEAVY METAL CONCENTRATIONS
AND ORGANOCHLORINE PESTICIDE RESIDUES FROM
RIVER WATER SAMPLES OF KINABATANGAN RIVER,
SABAH**

NG PAO HYEAN

**DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF
THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE DEGREE OF BACHELOR OF
SCIENCE WITH HONOURS**

**INDUSTRIAL CHEMISTRY PROGRAM
SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
UNIVERSITI MALAYSIA SABAH**

MAY 2008

PERPUSTAKAAN
UNIVERSITI MALAYSIA SABAH



UMS
UNIVERSITI MALAYSIA SABAH

UNIVERSITI MALAYSIA SABAH

BORANG PENGESAHAN STATUS TESIS@

JUDUL: DETERMINATION OF HEAVY METAL CONC. AND ORGANIC CHLORINE
PESTICIDE RESIDUES FROM RIVER WATER SAMPLES OF KINABAJANG RIVER, SABAH
 IJAZAH: SARJANA MUDA SAINS DENGAN KEPULJIAN

SAYA NG DAO HYEAN SESI PENGAJIAN: 05-08
 (HURUF BESAR)

mengaku membenarkan tesis (LPSM/Sarjana/Doktor Falsafah) ini disimpan di Perpustakaan Universiti Malaysia Sabah dengan syarat-syarat kegunaan seperti berikut:-

1. Tesis adalah hakmilik Universiti Malaysia Sabah.
2. Perpustakaan Universiti Malaysia Sabah dibenarkan membuat salinan untuk tujuan pengajian sahaja.
3. Perpustakaan dibenarkan membuat salinan tesis ini sebagai bahan pertukaran antara institutsi pengajian tinggi.
4. Sila tandakan (/)

☐

SULIT

(Mengandungi maklumat yang berdarjah keselamatan atau Kepentingan Malaysia seperti yang termaktub di dalam AKTA RAHSIA RASMI 1972)

☐

TERHAD

(Mengandungi maklumat TERHAD yang telah ditentukan oleh organisasi/badan di mana penyelidikan dijalankan)

☒

TIDAK TERHAD

Disahkan Oleh


 (TANDATANGAN PENULIS)

1
 (TANDATANGAN PUSTAKAWAN)

Alamat Tetap: KUALA LUMPUR

Dr. HOW JIEW ENG
 Nama Penyelia

Tarikh: 21/05/08

Tarikh: _____

CATATAN:- *Potong yang tidak berkenaan.

**Jika tesis ini SULIT atau TERHAD, sila lampirkan surat daripada pihak berkuasa /organisasi berkenaan dengan menyatakan sekali sebab dan tempoh tesis ini perlu dikelaskan sebagai SULIT dan TERHAD.

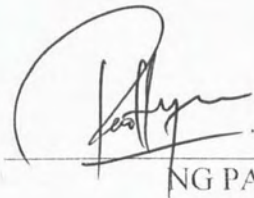
@Tesis dimaksudkan sebagai tesis bagi Ijazah Doktor Falsafah dan Sarjana secara penyelidikan atau disertai bagi pengajian secara kerja kursus dan Laporan Projek Sarjana Muda (LPSM).



DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this dissertation is based on my original work, except for quotations and summaries each of which have been fully acknowledged.

15th May 2008



NG PAO HYEAN

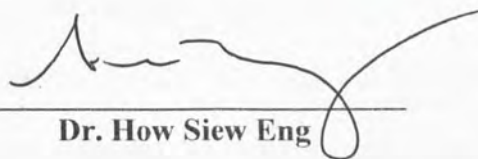
HS 2005-2298



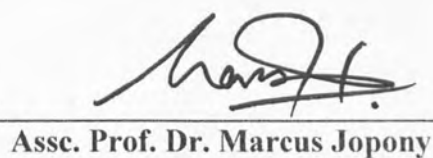
VERIFICATION

Name: Ng Pao Hyeon

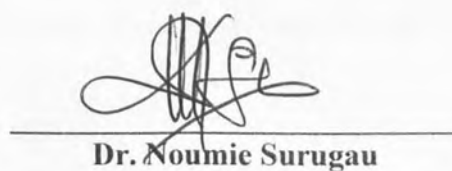
Title: Determination of Heavy Metal Concentrations and Organochlorine Pesticide Residues from River Water Samples of Kinabatangan River, Sabah



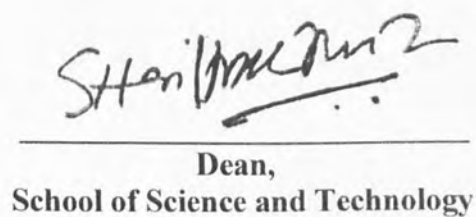
Dr. How Siew Eng



Asse. Prof. Dr. Marcus Jopony



Dr. Noumie Surugau



Dean,
School of Science and Technology

May, 2008



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all, I would like to express my deep gratitude to my supervisor, Dr. How Siew Eng who gave me a lot of advices and guidance during the process of writing this dissertation. Dr. How sacrificed her time to help me and gave me suggestion on solving the technical problems of Gas Chromatography – Mass Spectrometer (GC/MS).

I am very thankful to all the parties in School of Science and Technology, University Malaysia Sabah for providing laboratory equipments and apparatus in order to complete my dissertation. En. Racheidey, the laboratory assistant for Natural Products Laboratory who had helped me a lot on chemicals and apparatus preparation as well as assisting me to run the Atomic Absorption Spectrometer (AAS). His generosity is well appreciated.

Finally, I would like to thank my dearest family and friends who gave a lot of moral support especially when I encountered difficulties in doing my dissertation.



ABSTRACT

This dissertation was aimed to evaluate the concentration of heavy metals and organochlorine pesticide residues in the river water of Kinabatangan River, Sukau, Sabah. *In situ* tests were conducted on the spot during sampling collection and all samples were preserved for transportation. Heavy metal tests were conducted using Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer (AAS) to evaluate the concentration of cadmium, chromium, copper, iron, lead and zinc. Gas Chromatography – Mass Spectrometer (GC-MS) was selected for the determination of organochlorine pesticides. Pesticides tested were aldrin, 2,4-DDD, 4,4-DDD, 2,4-DDE, 4,4-DDE, DDT, heptachlor, hexachlorobenzene, isodrin, α -lindane, β -lindane, and γ -lindane. Samples tested during the *in situ* tests showed that the water quality was low in terms of dissolved oxygen while the pH level was acidic. Most of the heavy metals tested were either too low to be detected or its concentration was too low. Only lead was tested to be present at high concentrations that might pose a threat towards the environment. None of the organochlorine pesticides tested were detected. Steps have to be taken to ensure the lead levels do not exceed the permissible limit. Further monitoring has to be conducted from time to time to ensure the water quality of Kinabatangan River.



ABSTRAK

KAJIAN KEPEKATAN LOGAM-LOGAM BERAT DAN PESTISID ORGANOKLORIN DI DALAM SAMPEL-SAMPEL AIR SUNGAI DARI SUNGAI KINABATANGAN, SABAH

Disertasi ini bertujuan untuk mengkaji kepekatan logam-logam serta mengesan kehadiran residu pestisid organoklorin di dalam sampel air Sungai Kinabatangan, Sabah. Ujian *in situ* telah dijalankan ketika persampelan sedang dijalankan dan semua sampel telah diawet untuk tujuan pengangkutan. Ujian logam-logam berat telah dijalankan menggunakan *Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer* (AAS) untuk mengkaji kepekatan logam kadmium, kromium, kuprum, ferum, plumbum dan zink. *Gas Chromatography – Mass Spectrometer* (GC-MS) pula digunakan untuk kajian pestisid organoklorin. Pestisid organoklorin yang diuji di dalam kajian ini merupakan aldrin, 2,4-DDD, 4,4-DDD, 2,4-DDE, 4,4-DDE, DDT, heptaklor, heksaklorobenzena, isodrin, α -lindan, β -lindan, dan γ -lindan. Sampel-sampel yang diuji ketika ujian *in situ* menunjukkan kualiti air di Sungai Kinabatangan adalah rendah kerana kepekatan oksigen terlarut adalah rendah dan pH adalah berasid. Kebanyakan logam-logam berat yang diuji adalah sama ada terlalu rendah untuk dikesan atau kepekataannya adalah terlalu rendah. Hanya logam plumbum merupakan logam yang dikesan mengandungi kepekatan yang mungkin boleh memberi kesan negatif kepada alam sekitar. Tiada pesitisid organoklorin yang dapat dikesan di dalam kajian ini. Langkah-langkah perlu diambil untuk memastikan kandungan logam plumbum di dalam Sungai Kinabatangan dalam dikurangkan ke paras yang lebih selamat. Pantauan dari semasa ke semasa juga perlu dibuat memantau kualiti air di Sungai Kinabatangan.



LIST OF CONTENTS

	Page
Declaration	ii
Verification	iii
Acknowledgements	iv
Abstract	v
Abstrak	vi
List of Contents	vii
List of Tables	ix
List of Figures	x
List of Symbols and Abbreviations	xii
Chapter 1 Introduction	1
1.1. Background of Study	1
1.2. Objectives	3
1.3. Scope of Study	3
Chapter 2 Literature Review	4
2.1. Heavy Metals	4
2.1.1. Definition of Heavy Metals	4
2.1.2. General Information	4
2.1.3. Heavy Metal Profiles	11
2.1.4. Toxicology Review	15
2.1.5. Legislation Against Heavy Metals	20
2.2. Organochlorine Pesticides	21
2.2.1. Definition of Organochlorine Pesticide	21
2.2.2. Physical Properties of Organochlorine Pesticides	22
2.2.3. Chemical Properties	22
2.2.4. Surface Runoff	25
2.2.5. Description of Targeted Organochlorine Pesticide Residues	26
2.2.6. Use of Organochlorine Pesticides	34
2.2.7. Transfer Mechanism of Organochlorine Pesticides into the River Waters	37



2.2.8. Organochlorine Pesticide Residue Activities in River Waters	39
2.2.9. Impact to Aquatic Life and Wildlife	42
2.2.10. Impact towards Human Health	43
2.2.11. Legislation Enforcement Against Organochlorine Pesticide Residues	44
Chapter 3 Methodology	46
3.1. Introduction	46
3.2. Types of Heavy Metals and Organochlorine Pesticide Residues Tested	46
3.3. Reagents	48
3.4. Apparatus	49
3.5. Samples	51
3.5.1. Sampling Locations	51
3.5.2. Sample Labeling	52
3.5.3. Sampling	52
3.5.4. Filtration of Samples	53
3.6. AAS Test for Samples	53
3.7. Extraction of Samples	53
3.8. GC-MS Test for Samples	54
Chapter 4 Results and Discussion	55
4.1. Sampling Location	55
4.2. In situ Tests	56
4.3. Heavy Metal Tests	59
4.3.1. Heavy Metal Calibration Test	59
4.3.2. Analysis of Samples	64
4.4. Organochlorine Pesticide Tests	69
4.4.1. Organochlorine Pesticide Calibration Test	69
4.4.2. Analysis of Samples	80
Chapter 5 Conclusion	88
Reference	90



LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 3.1	Types of organochlorine pesticide residues tested
Table 3.2	Types of heavy metals tested
Table 3.3	Labeling of river water samples
Table 4.1	Temperature, pH and DO readings at sampling sites
Table 4.2	pH and DO parameters set by the Interim National Water Quality Standard for Malaysia (DOE, 2005)
Table 4.3	Calibration equation and correlation coefficient (R^2) for each heavy metal
Table 4.4	Concentration of heavy metals determined in the river water samples collected during the dry season
Table 4.5	Concentration of heavy metals determined in the river water samples collected during the rainy season
Table 4.6	Concentration of heavy metals approved the by the Interim National Water Quality Standard for Malaysia (DOE, 2005)
Table 4.7	Calibration equation and correlation coefficient (R^2) for each organochlorine pesticide residue
Table 4.8	Retention time for each type of organochlorine pesticide residues
Table 4.9	Mean concentration of organochlorine pesticides determined from the river water samples



LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 2.1	Dehydrochlorination of p,p'-DDT to p,p'-DDE 23
Figure 2.2	Dehydrochlorination of BHC isomers to 1,3,5-trichlorobenzene 23
Figure 2.3	Oxidation of p,p'-DDE and p,p'-DDT to benzophenone 23
Figure 2.4	Oxidation of heptachlor to heptachlor epoxide 24
Figure 2.5	Oxidation of Aldrin to Dieldrin 24
Figure 2.6	Lindane 27
Figure 2.7	Aldrin 28
Figure 2.8	Dieldrin 29
Figure 2.9	Endrin 30
Figure 2.10	Endosulfan 31
Figure 2.11	Heptachlor 31
Figure 2.12	DDT 32
Figure 2.13	DDD 33
Figure 2.14	DDE 33
Figure 2.15	Methoxychlor 34
Figure 2.16	Endosulfan sulfate 36
Figure 2.17	Heptachlor epoxide 37
Figure 4.1	Calibration curve for cadmium 60
Figure 4.2	Calibration curve for chromium 60
Figure 4.3	Calibration curve for copper 61
Figure 4.4	Calibration curve for iron 61
Figure 4.5	Calibration curve for lead 62
Figure 4.6	Calibration curve for zinc 62
Figure 4.7	Chromatogram for organochlorine pesticide mix calibration standard at 2ppm 69
Figure 4.8	Chromatogram for organochlorine pesticide mix calibration standard at 4ppm 70
Figure 4.9	Chromatogram for organochlorine pesticide mix calibration standard at 5ppm 70
Figure 4.10	Calibration curve for α -lindane 71
Figure 4.11	Calibration curve for β -lindane 71



Figure 4.12	Calibration curve for γ -lindane	72
Figure 4.13	Calibration curve for Hexachlorobenzene	72
Figure 4.14	Calibration curve for Heptachlor	73
Figure 4.15	Calibration curve for Aldrin	73
Figure 4.16	Calibration curve for Isodrin	74
Figure 4.17	Calibration curve for o,p'-DDE	74
Figure 4.18	Calibration curve for p,p'-DDE	75
Figure 4.19	Calibration curve for o,p'-DDD	75
Figure 4.20	Calibration curve for p,p'-DDD	76
Figure 4.21	Calibration curve for DDT	76
Figure 4.22	Chromatogram for sample DS1	80
Figure 4.23	Chromatogram for sample DS2	80
Figure 4.24	Chromatogram for sample DS3	81
Figure 4.25	Chromatogram for sample DS4	81
Figure 4.26	Chromatogram for sample DS5	81
Figure 4.27	Chromatogram for sample DS6	82
Figure 4.28	Chromatogram for sample RS1	82
Figure 4.29	Chromatogram for sample RS2	82
Figure 4.30	Chromatogram for sample RS3	83
Figure 4.31	Chromatogram for sample RS4	83
Figure 4.32	Chromatogram for sample RS5	83
Figure 4.33	Chromatogram for sample RS6	84
Figure 4.34	Chromatogram for pesticide mix standard at 500 ppb	86

LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

%	Percent
°C	Degree of Celcius
°C min ⁻¹	Degree of Celsius per minute
µg/L	Microgram per liter
µL	Micro liter
µm	Micrometer
AAS	Atomic Absorption Spectrometer
AOAC	Association of Analytical Chemists
ATSDR	Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry
Cd	Cadmium
CDC	Center for Disease Control
Cr	Chromium
Cu	Copper
DDD	Dichloro-diphenyl-dichloroethane
DDE	Dichloro-diphenyl-dichloroethylene
DDT	Dichloro-diphenyl-trichloroethane
Fe	Iron
g	Gram
GC-MS	Gas Chromatography – Mass Spectrometer
K	Degree of Kelvin
km	Kilometer
L	Liter
M	Molar (Mole per liter)
m	Meter
min	Minute
mL	Milliliter
mm	Millimeter
Pb	Lead
ppb	Parts per billion
ppm	Parts per million
PTFE	Polytetrafluoroethylene
R ²	Correlation coefficient
SIM	Selected Ion Monitoring
v/v	Volume per volume
WHO	World Health Organization
WWF	World Wildlife Foundation
Zn	Zinc



CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of Study

The Kinabatangan River is the longest river in Sabah. It is the second longest river in Malaysia, with a length of 560 kilometers from its headwater in the mountains of southwest of Sabah, to its outlet at the Sulu Sea, east of Sandakan. As the massive river reaches the lowlands, it meanders through the lower Kinabatangan, a great floodplain laden with oxbow lakes, open swamps and distinctive vegetation (WWF, 1997).

Natural habitats here include freshwater swamp forest and lowland dipterocarp forest – home to some of the largest and most diverse concentrations of wildlife species in Borneo today. Many rare and endangered species of animals can be found here, such as the fascinating proboscis monkey, herds of wild Asian elephant, the estuarine crocodile and a spectacular assembly of birdlife (WWF, 1997).

It is the main water source for many villagers surrounding the river for daily activities. With an abundance of marine life forms present in the river, the Kinabatangan is also a major source of food and nutrition especially protein to these people (WWF, 1997).



Much has turned, however since the turn of the century when forests covered most of the state of Sabah. Over the recent years, the Kinabatangan has witnessed tremendous development surrounding the area. Activities such as agriculture were blooming due to the water supply provided by the river for irrigation purposes. And with the rapid pace of development in Sabah, the growth of the timber industry and the expansion of agriculture have dramatically transformed the landscape. However, the ecology of the upper reaches of the river has been severely disrupted by excessive logging and clearing of land for plantation purposes. Forested areas are shrinking and many have declined in quality (WWF, 1997).

High quantities of pesticides were used for agricultural purposes to kill bugs and pests from destroying the crops. Pesticides were introduced after the World War II for their various benefits but general worldwide intensive usage today poses potential hazards to the environment and human health (Chambers *et al.*, 2001). Organochlorine pesticide represents an important group of persistent organic pollutants (POPs), which are believed to be possible carcinogens or mutagens as well as endocrine disruptors (Thomas *et al.*, 1998; Peter *et al.*, 2002). Despite the fact that the use of certain organochlorine insecticides in agriculture is prohibited in many countries, these compounds have been detected in the environment worldwide due to their persistency (Rajendran and Subramaniam, 1997).

This study focused on the concentration of heavy metals as well as organochlorine pesticide residues found in water samples collected from the Kinabatangan River. The samples will then be analyzed to determine the residue levels.



1.2. Objectives

The objectives for this study were:

1. To determine the concentration of heavy metals from the water samples using Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer (AAS)
2. To extract organochlorine pesticides from water samples
3. To analyze and determine the organochlorine pesticides extracted using Gas Chromatography—Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS)

1.3. Scope of Study

This study focused on heavy metal concentrations and organochloride pesticide residues found in different water samples collected in various sampling points in the Kinabatangan River. The locations of the sampling points were about 5 km away from the small town of Sukau, Sabah. The water samples collected were filtered before being analysed by Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer (AAS). Organochlorine pesticides were then extracted from the water samples using solvent-solvent extraction with ethyl acetate together with dichloromethane against the river water sample. The extracts were further analyzed by Gas Chromatography–Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS) and the components of the pesticides were compared to internal standards of organochloride pesticides.



CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Heavy Metals

2.1.1. Definition of Heavy Metals

Heavy metal, according to Oxford Dictionary of Chemistry, is defined as a metal with a high relative atomic mass. The term is usually applied to common transition metals, such as copper, lead and zinc. These metals are a cause of environmental pollution from a number of sources, including lead in petrol, industrial effluents, and leaching of metal ions from the soil into lakes and rivers by acid rain.

2.1.2. General Information

a. Cadmium

Cadmium is a chemical element with the symbol Cd and atomic number 48. It is categorized under the transition metal series in the 12th group, 5th period and d block. Cadmium is a soft, malleable, ductile, toxic, bluish-white bivalent metal and available in a relatively abundant amount. Cadmium is silvery gray metallic in color with a standard atomic weight of 112.411 g·mol⁻¹. It has an electron configuration of [Kr] 5s² 4d¹⁰ and 2, 8, 8, 18, 18, 2 electrons in each shell (CDC, 2005b; Oxford, 2004).



At room temperature, it exists in solid form with a density of $8.65 \text{ g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$. At its melting point of 594.22 K, its density drops to $7.996 \text{ g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$. Boiling point is recorded to be at 1040 K. Both its heat of fusion and vaporization are recorded to be at 6.21 and $99.87 \text{ kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ respectively (CDC, 2005b; Oxford, 2004).

The name cadmium was derived from the Latin word *cadmia* and Greek word *καδμεία* which means “calamine”, a Cadmium-bearing mixture of minerals, which was named after the Greek mythological character, Κάδμος or Cadmus. It was discovered by Friedrich Strohmeyer in Germany in 1817. He found the element within an impurity of calamine or zinc carbonate. For 100 years, Germany remained to be the only important producer of this metal. Cadmium was named after the Latin word for calamine since it was found in this zinc compound. Strohmeyer also noted that while pure calamine did not change color while being heated, impure samples of calamine was reported to change colors (CDC, 2005b; Oxford, 2004).

b. Chromium

Chromium has the symbol Cr and atomic number 24. Like Cadmium, it is also categorized under the transition metal series in the 6th group, 4th period and d block. Steel-gray in color, chromium is a lustrous, hard metal that takes a high polish and has a high melting point. Besides that, it is also odorless, tasteless and malleable. It has a standard atomic weight of $51.9961 \text{ g}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$. Electrons are arranged as 2, 8, 13, 1 in each shell with an electron configuration of $[\text{Ar}] 3d^5 4s^1$ (CDC, 2005c; Oxford, 2004).



Cadmium exist in the solid phase at room temperature with a density of $7.19 \text{ g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$. The density drops to $6.3 \text{ g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$ once it reaches the melting point at 2180 K. Cadmium then boils at 2944 K. The heat of fusion and heat of vaporization are reported to be at 21.0 and $339.5 \text{ kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ respectively (CDC, 2005c; Oxford, 2004).

The name chromium was derived from the Greek word “Chrôma”, which brings the meaning color due to many colorful compounds that were made from it. It was discovered back in 1761 by Johann Gottlob Lehmann in the form of lead chromate, today more widely known as crocoite. However, it was only on 1797 that Louis Nicolas Vacquelin was able to isolate the elemental chromium successfully (CDC, 2005c; Oxford, 2004).

c. **Copper**

Copper, with its symbol Cu, has an atomic number 29. It is also categorized under the transition metal series in the 11th group, 4th period and d block. It is ductile with excellent electrical conductivity. Copper is also rather soft in its pure state and has a pinkish luster that is unusual for a metal which is usually silvery white in color. Standard atomic weight is measured to be $63.546 \text{ g}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$. Electron configuration is recorded to be of $[\text{Ar}] 3d^{10} 4s^1$ and arranged as 2, 8, 18, 1 in each shell (CDC, 2005d; Oxford, 2004).

Solid at room temperature, copper has a density of $8.96 \text{ g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$ at room temperature. Once it reaches its melting point at 1357.77 K, it has a density of 8.02

$\text{g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$. Boiling point is reported to be at 2835 K. The heat of fusion and vaporization of copper are measured to be at 13.26 and 300.4 $\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ (CDC, 2005d; Oxford, 2004).

Copper played a significant role throughout the history of mankind. In fact, it was known to exist since 10,000 years ago as the uncompounded metal can be accessed easily. The name cuprum was derived from the name Cyprium, “metal of Cyprus”, as it was mined primarily on Cyprus during the Roman Empire (CDC, 2005d; Oxford, 2004).

d. Iron

Iron, also under the transition metal series, has an atomic number 26 and symbol Fe. This metal is situation in the 8th group, 4th period and d block. A lustrous and silvery soft metal, it is also one of the few ferromagnetic elements. Iron has a standard atomic weight of 55.845 $\text{g}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$. Electrons are arranged as 2, 8, 14, 2 in each shell with an electron configuration of $[\text{Ar}] 3\text{d}^6 4\text{s}^2$ (CDC, 2005a; Oxford, 2004).

At room temperature, iron is found to be in solid form. Once it starts to melt at 1811 K, the density for iron is at 6.98 $\text{g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$. It has to be further heated until 3134 K for it to reach its boiling temperature. It has the heat of fusion and vaporization of 13.81 and 340 $\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ (CDC, 2005a; Oxford, 2004).

The first iron used by mankind during prehistory came from meteors. The smelting of iron in bloomeries probably began in Anatolia or the Caucasus in the second millennium BC or the latter part of the preceding one. Cast iron was first



produced in China about 550 BC, but not in Europe until the medieval period. During the medieval period, means were found in Europe of producing wrought iron from cast iron (in this context known as pig iron) using finery forges. For all these processes, charcoal was required as fuel (CDC, 2005a; Oxford, 2004).

Steel (with smaller carbon content than pig iron but more than wrought iron) was first produced in antiquity. New methods of producing it by carburizing bars of iron in the cementation process were devised in the 17th century AD. In the Industrial Revolution, new methods of producing bar iron without charcoal were devised and these were later applied to produce steel. In the late 1850s, Henry Bessemer invented a new steelmaking process, involving blowing air through molten pig iron, to produce mild steel. This and other 19th century and later processes have led to wrought iron no longer being produced (CDC, 2005a; Oxford, 2004).

e. Lead

Lead is a transitional metal with the symbol Pb and has an atomic number of 82. It is situated in the 14th group, 6th period and d block. Bluish white in color when freshly cut, lead tarnishes to dull grayish color when it is exposed to air. The standard atomic weight for lead is $207.2 \text{ g}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$. The electrons are arranged as 2, 8, 18, 32, 18, 4 in each shell and has an electron configuration of $[\text{Xe}] 4f^{14} 5d^{10} 6s^2 6p^2$ (CDC, 2005e; Oxford, 2004).

Like almost all metals, lead stays in solid form at room temperature. At its melting point of 600.61 K, it has a density of $10.66 \text{ g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$. When heated further, lead



boils at 2022 K. it has heat of fusion and vaporization of 4.77 and 179.5 kJ·mol⁻¹ respectively (CDC, 2005e; Oxford, 2004).

Lead has been commonly used for thousands of years because it is widespread, easy to extract and easy to work with. It is highly malleable and ductile as well as easy to smelt. In the early Bronze Age, lead was used with antimony and arsenic. Lead also refers collectively to the organic and inorganic compounds of lead, which are toxic. Lead poisoning was documented in ancient Rome, Greece, and China (CDC, 2005e; Oxford, 2004).

In the 20th century, the use of lead in paint pigments was sharply reduced because of the danger of lead poisoning, especially to children. By the mid-1980s, a significant shift in lead end-use patterns had taken place. Much of this shift was a result of the U.S. lead consumers' compliance with environmental regulations that significantly reduced or eliminated the use of lead in non-battery products, including gasoline, paints, solders, and water systems. Lead use is being further curtailed by the European Union's RoHS directive. Lead may still be found in harmful quantities in stoneware, vinyl (such as that used for tubing and the insulation of electrical cords), and brass manufactured in China. Around 2006-2007, many children's toys made in China had been recalled due to lead in paint used to color the product (CDC, 2005e; Oxford, 2004).



f. Zinc

Zinc, with an atomic number of 30, is a metallic chemical element with the symbol Zn. It is situated at the 12th group, 4th period and d block. It is bluish grey in color and moderately reactive. It tarnishes in moist air and burns in air to emit a bright bluish-green flame, exhaling fumes of zinc oxide. It has a standard atomic weight of 65.409 g·cm⁻³. Zinc also has an electron configuration of [Ar] 3d¹⁰ 4s² and are arranged as 2, 8, 18, 2 (CDC, 2005f; Oxford, 2004).

At room temperature, zinc is a solid with a density value of 7.14 g·mol⁻¹. Once it starts to melt at 692.68 K, the density drops to 6.57 g·mol⁻¹. When further heating it to 1180 K, it will start to boil. Heat of fusion and vaporization are reported to be at 7.32 and 123.6 kJ·mol⁻¹ respectively (CDC, 2005f; Oxford, 2004).

The name of the metal zinc is unusual and, while vague in origin, was probably first used by Paracelsus, a Swiss-born German chemist, who referred to the metal as "Zincum", in the 16th century. These words in German apparently mean "tooth-like, pointed or jagged part" and, as zinc metallic crystals are needle-like, the derivation appears plausible (CDC, 2005f; Oxford, 2004).



2.1.3. Heavy Metal Profiles

a. Cadmium

Cadmium is a natural element in the Earth's crust. Cadmium is not usually present by itself in the environment but as a mineral combined with other elements such as oxygen (cadmium oxide), chlorine (cadmium chloride), or sulfur (cadmium sulfate, cadmium sulfide). Soil and rocks, including coal and mineral fertilizers, contain some cadmium. Most cadmium used in the United States is extracted during the production of other metals like zinc, lead, and copper (CDC, 2005b). Cadmium is used in many products especially in the steel industry and in plastics, including batteries, pigments, and metal coatings and is found in cigarette smoke (WHO, 2006).

Cadmium is released to the environment in wastewater, and diffuse pollution is caused by contamination from fertilizers and local air pollution (WHO, 2006). The weathering and mining of rocks and minerals that contain cadmium also allow the element to get into the environment. Forest fires and volcanoes also release some cadmium to the air. Cadmium does not corrode easily and has many uses, including batteries, pigments, metal coatings, and plastics (CDC, 2005b).

Contamination in drinking-water may also be caused by impurities in the zinc of galvanized pipes and solders and some metal fittings. Food is the main source of daily exposure to cadmium. The daily oral intake is 10–35µg. Smoking is a significant additional source of cadmium exposure (WHO, 2006).



REFERENCES

- Al-Omar, M., Al-Bassomy, M., Al-Ogaily, N. & Al-Din, S.D., 1985, Residue levels of organochlorine insecticides in lamb and beef from Baghdad. *Environmental Contamination and Toxicology* volume **30**, 509-512.
- Alegria, H.A. & Shaw, T.J., 1999, Rain deposition of pesticides in coastal water of the South Atlantic Bight, *Environmental Science & Technology* volume **33**, 850-856.
- Anon, 1989, Poison in you food, *India Today* volume **14**, 74-83.
- ATSDR, 1997, *Toxicology Profile for Endrin*, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Atlanta.
- ATSDR, 2001, *Toxicology Profile for Endosulfan*, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Atlanta.
- ATSDR, 2002, *Toxicology Profile for 4,4-DDT, 4,4-DDD, 4,4-DDE*, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Atlanta.
- ATSDR, 2002b, *Toxicology Profile for Methoxychlor*, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Atlanta.
- ATSDR, 2002c, *Toxicology Profile for Aldrin/Dieldrin*, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Atlanta.
- ATSDR, 2005a, *Toxicology Profile for alpha-, beta-, gamma-, and delta-hexachlorocyclohexane*, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Atlanta.



- ATSDR, 2005b, *Toxicology Profile for Zinc*, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Atlanta.
- ATSDR, 2007, *Toxicology Profile for Heptachlor/Heptachlor Epoxide*, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Atlanta.
- Bernhoft, A., Wiig, O. & Skaare, J.U., 1997, Organochlorine in polar bears (*Ursus maritimus*) at Svalbard, *Environmental Pollution* volume **95(2)**, 159-175.
- Bhuiyan, S.I. & Castaneda, A.R., 1995, The impact of rice field pesticides on the quality of freshwater resources. In: Prabhu, L.P. & Pierre, A.R., *Impact of pesticides on farmer health and the environment*, Kluwer Academic Publishers, Boston, USA, 181-202.
- Börner, H., 1994, *Pesticides in ground and surface water*, Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Germany.
- Cagauan, A.G., 1995, The impact of pesticides on rice field vertebrates with emphasis on fish. In: Prabhu, L.P. & Pierre, A.R., *Impact of pesticides on farmer health and the environment*, Kluwer Academic Publishers, Boston, USA, 181-202.
- Candlish, J., 1998, International environmental law and biochemistry: an innovative teaching opportunity, *Biochemical Education* volume **26**, 153 – 156.
- CDC, 2005a, *Third National Report on Human Exposure to Environmental Chemicals*, <http://www.cdc.gov/exposurereport/pdf/thirdreport.pdf>
- CDC, 2005b, *Cadmium*, <http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/tfacts5.pdf>
- CDC, 2005c, *Chromium*, <http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/tfacts7.pdf>



CDC, 2005d, *Copper*.

<http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/tfacts132.pdf>

CDC, 2005e, *Lead*.

<http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/tfacts13.pdf>

CDC, 2005f, *Zinc*.

<http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/tfacts60.pdf>

Chambers, H.W., Boone, J.S., Carr, R.L., Chambers, J.E., 2001, Chemistry of organophosphorus insecticides. In: Robert, I.K. (Ed.), *Handbook of Pesticide Toxicology*, second ed. Academic Press, California, USA, pp. 913–917.

Crier, J.W., 1974, Organchlorines and mercury in Northwestern Ontario Bald Eagles, *Canada Field Nature* **88**, 469-475.

Davies, J.E., Freed, V.H. & Whittemore, 1982, An agromedical approach to pesticide management: Some health and environmental considerations, University of Florida School of Medicine, Miami.

Davis, J.R., Brownson, R.C., Garcia, R., Beniz, B.J. & Turner, A., 1993, Family pesticide use and childhood brain cancer, *Environmental Contamination & Toxicology* **24**, 87-92.

Day, K.E., 1991, Pesticide transformation produces in surface water: Effects on aquatic biota. In: Sumasundaram, L. & Coats, J.R., *Pesticide transformation products: Fate and significance in the environment*, American Chemical Society, USA.

DOE, 2005, *Interim National Water Quality Standards for Malaysia*



Ejobi, F., Kanja, L.W., Kyule, M.N., Muller, P., Kruger, J., Nyeko, J.H.P. & Latigo, A.A.R., Organochlorine pesticide residues in cow's milk in Uganda, *Environmental Contamination & Toxicology* **56**, 551-557.

Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO). 2006. *Obsolete Pesticides*.

<http://www.fao.org/ag/AGP/AGPP/Pesticid/Disposal/en/what/103380/printfriendly.html>

Forget, G., 1991, Pesticides and the third world, *Toxicology, Environmental & Health* **32**, 11-31.

Giddings, J.C. & Manroe, M.B., 1972, *Our Chemical Environment*, Confield Press, San Francisco, USA.

Green, M.B., Hartley, G.S. & West, T.F., 1989, *Chemicals for Crop Improvement and Pest Management*, 3rd Edition, Pergamon Press, Oxford, UK.

Gómez-Gutiérrez, A.I., Jover, E., Bondineau, L., Albaigés, J., Bayona, J.M., 2006, Organic contaminant loads into the Western Mediterranean Sea: Estimate of Ebro River inputs, *Chemosphere volume* **65**, 224 – 236.

Gustafson, D.I., 1993, *Pesticides in Drinking Water*, Van Nostrand Reinhold, New York, USA.

Hallberg, H.W., Christioansen, E.C., Matthews, J.R. & Bidleman, T.F., 1980, Rainfall input of toxophene to a South Carolina estuary, *Estuaries* **3**, 142-147.

Harborne, A.R., Afzal, D.C., Andrews, M.J., 2001, Honduras: Carribean Coast, *Marine Pollution Bulletin* **42**—12, 1221 – 1235.

Hashimi, M.I., Mustafa, S. Ahmad Tariq, S., 2002, Heavy metal concentrations in water and tiger prawn (*Penaeus monodon*) from grow-out farms in Sabah, North Borneo, *Food Chmistry* **79**, 151-156.



- Hassett, A.J., Viljoen, P.T. & Liebenberg, J.J.E., 1987, An assessment of chlorinated pesticides in the major surface water resources of the Orange Free State during the period September 1984 to September 1985, *Water South Africa* **13**, 133-136.
- Hayes, W.J., 1982, *Pesticides studied in man*, Williams & Wilkins, Baltimore.
- Henderson, C., Johnson, W.L. & Inglis, A., 1969, Organochlorine insecticide residues in fish, *Pesticide Monitoring* **3**, 145-171.
- Henry, L., Kishimba, M.A., 2005, Pesticide residues in Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*) and Nile perch (*Lates niloticus*) from Southern Lake Victoria, Tanzania, *Environmental Pollution* **140**, 348 – 354.
- Hornsby, A.G., Wauchope, R.D. & Herner, A.E., 1996, *Pesticide Properties in the Environment*, Springer-Verlag, New York, USA.
- Howard, P.H., 1991, *Handbook of Environmental Fate and Exposure Data for Organic Chemical Pesticides*, Lewis Publishers, Chelsea.
- Huschenbeth, E. & Harms, U., 1975, On the accumulation of organochlorine pesticides, PCB and certain heavy metals in fish and shell fish from Thai coastal and inland water, *Environmental Contamination & Toxicology* **18**, 490-494.
- Ip, H.M.H. & Philips, D.J.H., 1989, Organochlorine chemicals in human breast milk in Hong Kong, *Environmental Contamination & Toxicology* **18**, 490-494.
- IUPAC, 1997, IUPAC Compendium of Chemical Terminology Electronic version, <http://goldbook.iupac.org/L03572.html>.



- Kammerbauer, J. & Moncada, J., 1998, Pesticide residues assessment in three selected agricultural production systems in the Choleteca River Basin of Honduras, *Environmental Pollution* **103**, 171-181.
- Kawano, M., Ramesh, A., Thao, V.D & Tatsukawa, R., 1992, Persistent organochlorine insecticide residues in some paddy, upland and urban soils in India, *Environmental Analytical Chemistry* **48**, 163-174.
- Kidd, H. & James, D.R., 1991, *The Agrochemicals Handbook*, 3rd Edition, Royal Society of Chemistry, Cambridge.
- Kok, H.L., Tan, B.L.L., Ali Mohd Mustafa, 2007, Contamination levels of selected organochlorine and organophosphate pesticides in the Selangor River, Malaysia between 2002 and 2003, *Chemosphere volume* **66**, 1153 – 1159.
- Mason, C.F., 1996, *Biology of Freshwater Pollution*, 3rd Edition, Longman, Singapore.
- Matsumura, F., 1985, *Toxicology of Insecticides*, 2nd Edition, Plenum Press, New York.
- Medvedev N. & Markova, L., 1995, Residues of chlorinated pesticides in the eggs of Karelian Birds, 1989-1990, *Environmental Pollution* **87**, 65-70.
- Metcalf, R.L., Sangha, G.K. & Kpoor, I.P., 1971, Model ecosystem for the ecosystem for pesticide biodegradability and ecological mangnification, *Environmental Science & Technology* **5**, 709.
- Meybeck, M., Chapman, D. & Helmer, R., 1989, *Global Freshwater Quality: A First Assessment*, Blackwell Reference, Oxford.
- Mowbray, D.L., 1986, Pesticides control in the South Pacific, *Ambio*. **15**, 22-29.



MSDS, 2005a, Safety (MSDS) date for aldrin,
<http://ptcl.chem.ox.ac.uk/MSDS/AL/aldrin.html>

MSDS, 2005b, Safety (MSDS) date for DDT,
<http://ptcl.chem.ox.ac.uk/MSDS/DD/DDT.html>

MSDS, 2005c, Safety (MSDS) date for dieldrin,
<http://ptcl.chem.ox.ac.uk/MSDS/DI/dieldrin.html>

MSDS, 2005d, Safety (MSDS) date for endosulfan,
http://ptcl.chem.ox.ac.uk/MSDS/EN/endosulfan_sulfate.html

MSDS, 2005e, Safety (MSDS) date for endrin,
<http://ptcl.chem.ox.ac.uk/MSDS/EN/endrin.html>

MSDS, 2005f, Safety (MSDS) date for heptachlor,
<http://ptcl.chem.ox.ac.uk/MSDS/HE/heptachlor.html>

MSDS, 2005g, Safety (MSDS) date for methoxychlor,
<http://ptcl.chem.ox.ac.uk/MSDS/ME/methoxychlor.html>

Mugambi, J.M., Kanja, L., Maitho, T.E., Skaare, J.U. & Lokken, P., 1989, Organochlorine pesticides in domestic fowl (*Gallus domesticus*) eggs from Central Kenya, *Science Food Agriculture* **48**, 165-176.

Murano, P.S., 2003, *Understanding Food Science and Technology*, Thomson Wadsworth, USA, 347.

Murty, A.S., 1986, *Toxicity of Pesticides to Fish*, CRC Press, Florida.

Oxford, 2004, *Oxford Dictionary of Chemistry*, Oxford University Press, Great Britain.



- Overten, J., 1993, *Soil and Water Quality: An Agenda for Agriculture*, National Academy Press, Washington.
- Peter, O., Lin, K.C., Karen, P., Joe, A., 2002. *Persistent Organic Pollutants (POPs) and Human Health*. World Federation of Public Health Association Publications, Washington, DC, USA, pp. 1–35.
- Pinstrup-Andersen, P., Pandya-Lorch, R., 1998, Food security and sustainable use of natural resources: a 2020 Vision, *Ecological Economics* volume **26**, 1 – 10.
- Rajendran, R.B., Subramanian, A., 1997. Pesticide residues in water from river Kaveri, South India. *Chemistry Ecology* volume **13**, 223–236.
- Ramesh, A., Tanabe, S., Tatsukawa, R., Subramaniam, A.N., Palanichamy, S., Mohan, D. & Venugopalan, V.K., 1989, Seasonal variation in organochlorine insecticides residues in air from Porto Novo, South India, *Environmental Pollution* **62**, 213-222.
- Scott, A.S., Lavy, T.L., Mattice, J.D., Edward, E.G. & Skulman, B.W., 1997, Trace level pesticide detections in Arkansas surface water, *Environmental Science Technology* **31**, 395-401.
- Tan, G.H. and Tang, N.N., 2005, Determination of organophosphorous pesticide residues in selected fruits by gas chromatography-mass Spectrometry, *Malaysian Journal of Chemistry* **7** (1), 049 – 056.
- Tanabe, S., Gondaira, F., Subramaniam, A.N., Ramesh, A., Mohan, D., Kumaran, P., Venugopalan, V.K. & Tatsukawa, R., 1990, Specific pattern of persistent organochlorine residues in human breast milk from South India, *Agriculture Food Chemistry* **38**, 899-903.
- Thao, V.D., Kawano, M., Tatsukawa, R., 1993, Persistent organochlorine pesticides in soils from tropical and sub-tropical countries, *Environmental Pollution* **81**, 61-71.



- Thomas, M.C., Eric, D.C., Ralph, L.C., William, P.W., David, G.A., Karl, P.B., Jennifer, L.H., Melba, S.M., Donald, J.R., John, E.S., Leslie, W.T., Maurice, G.Z., Yogendra, M.P., 1998. Environmental endocrine disruption: an effects assessment and analysis. *Environmental Health Perspectives volume 106*, 11–56.
- Tomizawa, C., 1980, Biological accumulation of pesticides in an ecosystem: Evaluation of a biodegradability and ecological magnification of rice pesticides by a model ecosystem, *Japan Agriculture Research Quarterly 14(3)*, 143-149.
- Tomizawa, C. & Kazano, H., 1979, Environmental fate of rice paddy pesticides in a model ecosystem, *Environmental Science & Health 14(B)*, 121-152.
- United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA). 1996. *Method 3510C: Separatory Funnel Liquid-Liquid Extraction*. Office of Solid Waste.
- United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA). 1996. *Method 8000B: Determinative Chromatographic Separation*. Office of Solid Waste.
- United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA). 1996. *Test method for evaluating, Chapter 4: Organic analytes*. Office of Solid Waste.
- United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA). 2000. *Method 3500C: Organic Extraction and Sample Preparation*. Office of Solid Waste.
- United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA). 2007. *Method 8270D: Semivolatile Organic Compounds by gas Chromatography/Mass Spectrometry*. Office of Solid Waste.
- United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA), 2007, *Technology Transfer Network Air Toxics Web Site: Heptachlor*, <http://www.epa.gov/ttn/atw/hlthef/heptachl.html>.



- Ulman, E., 1972, *Lindane: Monograph of an Insecticide*, Schillinger-Verlag, Germany.
- WHO, 1990, *The WHO Recommended Classification of Pesticides by Hazard and Guidelines to Classification 190-1991*, WHO/PCS/90.1, WHO, Geneva.
- WHO, 2006, *Guidelines for Drinking-water Quality; Volume 1: Recommendation*, http://www.who.int/entity/water_sanitation_health/dwq/gdwq0506.pdf
- Wiemeyer, S.N., Swineford, D.M., Spitzer, P.R. & McLain, P.D., 1978, Organochlorine residues in New Jersey osprey eggs, *Environmental Contamination & Toxicology* **19**, 56-63.
- Wolff, M.S. & Toniolo, P.G., 1995, Environmental organochlorine: Exposure as a potential etiologic factor in breast cancer, *Environmental Health Perspective* **103**(7), 141-145.
- WWF, 1997, *The Kinabatangan Floodplain: An Introduction*, WWF Malaysia.
- Zitko, V., 2003, Persistent Organic Pollutants, *The Handbook of Environmental Chemistry*, Volume 3O, Springer Berlin / Heidelberg.
- Zuriati Zakaria, Lee, Y.H., Pauzi Abdullah, Rosita Osman & Laili Din, 2003, The environmental contamination by organochlorine insecticides of some agricultural areas in Malaysia, *Malaysia Journal of chemistry* **5**(1), 078-085.

