Heavy metal contamination of some leafy vegetables growing within Ibadan metropolis, South-western Nigeria.

Sola Ogunyemi^{*}, O.O. Bamgbose and R.O. Awodoyin Department of Crop Protection and Environmental Biology, University of Ibadan, Ibadan. E-mail : <u>solaogunyemi2003@yahoo.com</u>; <u>frawodoyin@yahoo.com</u>

Accepted 22nd July 2003

ABSTRACT

Most vegetable farms in urban areas of Nigeria are located by the roadside, where environment is heavily polluted with heavymetal-laden exhaust. Within Ibadan metropolis, *Amaranthus cruentus*, *Celosia argentea* and *Corchorus olitorius* are commonly grown all the year round. Accumulation of lead (Pb) and cadmium (Cd) in the three leafy vegetable samples in three different traffic density areas was investigated using atomic absorption spectrophotometric technique. Results revealed that the highest concentrations of Pb and Cd in vegetables were present in samples taken from the high traffic density area. Lead and cadmium concentrations varied among vegetable types. The unwashed leaves of *Amaranthus* had the highest lead (157.69±21.52µg/g) and cadmium (138.76±26.92µg/g) concentrations. The amount of heavy metal removed by washing the plant materials in distilled water was in the range of 6.93 to 53.27% (mean=28.37%) for lead and 19.82 to 72.64% (mean=44.64%) for cadmium. This may imply that in terms of deposition on the plants there was more of cadmium than lead and in term of assimilation into the tissues there was more of lead than cadmium. The implication of continuous ingestion of these contaminated vegetables for bioaccumulation and bio-magnification of the heavy metals in the digestive system of vegetable consumers is discussed.

Keywords: Air pollution, bioaccumulation, cadmium, lead, potherbs, traffic

INTRODUCTION

Over the years, many human diseases have been traced to pollution of the environment. Pollution is defined as the alteration or modification of the environment by the introduction of solid, liquid or gaseous substances at concentrations injurious to man, plants and animals (Chaudry *et al.* 1989).

The combustion of fossil fuel and motor traffic exhaust is known to constitute a major source of pollution, particularly in the third world countries where leaded fuel is still being used. Nriagu (1989) reported that emission of Pb from gasoline combustion appears to be the world's most important and widespread heavy-metal emission. It has also been established that elevated levels of Cd and Pb in plants are closely associated with proximity to automobile traffic (Largerwerff and Specht 1970). Onianwa and Ajayi (1987) reported that urban activities such as large-scale refuse burning, welding and small metal works account for high levels of cadmium in highly populated urban centre. Thus, Pb and Cd are the heavy metals of great concern, as their presence in the food chain is known to have serious health implications.

Several publications have reviewed contamination of roadsides with Pb and Cd and the uptake of these heavy metals by plants (Lee 1972, Ndiowkemere 1984, Onianwa and Ajayi 1987, Alloyway and Jackson 1991). Yet, in recent years, particularly in urban areas close to cities, there has been a dramatic increase in vegetable gardening. In the urban and peri-urban areas, most of these vegetable farms are located by the roadside where there is easy access to water supply, fertilizer, other farm input and, most especially, ready market for produce (UNDP 1996). The safety of these vegetables from urban gardens/farm in term of heavy metal contamination is, therefore, of concern.

However, there is little information on the level of these heavy metals in vegetables grown in urban and peri-urban gardens in Nigeria. The thrust of this study was to determine the extent of Pb and Cd contamination in three common leafy vegetables grown in close proximity to the roads with varying traffic density in Ibadan metropolis, and to assess their concentrations with the distance from the road.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

On the basis of traffic density, three vegetable producing farms were selected within Ibadan

Metropolis in Southwestern Nigeria. The farms were located at:

- (i) Dairy farm Iwo Road (High traffic density area, HTD) with 21,888 vehicles/day.
- (ii) Eleyele Water Works Area (Medium traffic density area, MTD) with 14,962 vehicles/day.
- (iii)Practical Year Training Farm, University of Ibadan (Low traffic density area, LTD) with 8,582 vehicles/day.

The Iwo Road Dairy farm vegetable garden was about 30m from the paved way, the Eleyele Water Works farm was about 45m from the paved road and the University of Ibadan vegetable farm was about 10m each from the Faculty of Agriculture/Forestry and Faculty of Education roads. Samples were collected in the dry season when most farmers practised 'Fadama' irrigation planting.

Sampling points were systematically located at 10 m, 20 m and 30 m distances from the edge of the road along transects laid across the farm. Samples (3 kg each) of Amaranthus cruentus, Celosia argentea and Corchorus olitorius were randomly collected at each sampling point. Each sample was divided into two sub-samples. One was thoroughly washed in distilled water while the other was unwashed. All samples were oven dried at 80° C for 48 hours, ground and sieved with a 1mm sieve. Soil samples were also collected from each of the sampling points. All samples were kept in labelled containers prior to digestion. The digestion of plant and soil samples were done following Allen et al (1976) and analysed for lead and cadmium using the atomic absorption spectrophotometer (BulkScientific200A Model).

The data collected were subjected to 2-way analysis of variances (SAS 1987) and Duncan's multiple range test for separation of the means at 5% probability level. Percentage difference in the heavy metals between unwashed and washed samples were calculated from the formula:

[(Unwashed - washed)/unwashed] X 100 %

RESULTS

pH, Pb and Cd concentrations of soils

The soils from different sampling sites contained different concentrations of Pb and Cd. These soils were also generally acidic with pH ranging from 4.6-6.6. The soil from high traffic density (HTD) area had a mean pH of 5.4, while that of the moderate traffic density (MTD) and low traffic density (LTD) areas had mean pH of 5.7 and 5.9, respectively (Table 1).

There were significant differences in the distribution of lead at each site. The same trend was observed for cadmium except for MTD area where Cd was relatively evenly distributed within the site (Table 1).

Lead and Cadmium Contents in the Vegetables

All vegetables samples contained different concentrations of Pb and Cd. In unwashed samples the highest lead (157.69 μ g/g) concentration was recorded in *A. cruentus* at the HTD area, whereas in washed samples the highest concentration (117.10 μ g/g) was still recorded in *A. cruentus* but at the MTD area (Table 2). The highest cadmium in unwashed samples (138.76 μ g/g) was recorded in *A. cruentus* at MTD area, but in washed samples the highest concentration (42.58 μ g/g) was recorded in *C. olitorius* at the HTD area (Table 3).

The amount of these heavy-metals in each vegetable varied among sampling sites in the three traffic density areas, though specific trends could not be identified. In unwashed samples concentration of Pb and Cd followed the order HTD>MTD>LTD except in *A. cruentus* where the trend of Pb concentration was HTD>LTD>MTD (Tables 2 and 3). In washed samples of the three vegetable types, the concentrations of two heavy-metals did not follow a specific trend.

At the HTD area, sampling points were significantly (P<0.05) different with regards to the

 Table 1: Soil pH, Pb and Cd concentration at various distances from farm edge in three traffic density areas. (Values are means of three replicates).

Distance(m)	High traffic density		Moderate traffic density			Low traffic density			
<u></u>	pН	Cd (µg/g)	Pb (µg/g)	pH .	Cd (µg/g)	Pb (µg/g)	pН	Cd (µg/g)	Pb (µg/g)
10	5.6	31.94 a	24.18 ^a	6.6	5.46 ^a	26,66 ^b	5.5	19.40 ^a	9.12°
20	4.9	11.67 b	21.11°	5.9	5.61 ^a	26.73 ^a	6.5	14.95°	39.32 ^a
30	5.6	3.27°	22.78 ^b	4.6	4.81 ^a	24.73°	5.7	25.91ª	27.45 ^b
Mean	5.4	-	-	5.7	-	-	5.9		-

Means in a column with the same letter are not significantly different at 5% level of probability using Duncan's multiple range test.

Table 2. Pooled mean of lead ($\mu g/g$) contents in unwashed and washed samples of *Celosia argentea*, *Amaranthus cruentus* and *Corchorus olitorius* in three traffic density areas in Ibadan metropolis. (Values are means \pm S.E; n=3).

1

Plant species	Traffic densities						
	High	Moderate	Low				
		Unwashed					
Celosia argentea	134.50±5.48	102.18±5.00	89.87±10.62				
Amaranthus cruentus	157.70±21.52	130.75±11.43	133.09±10.72				
Corchorus olitorius	115.60±2.55	99.19±14.58	86.76±4.80				
		Washed					
Celosia argentea Amaranthus	62.85±10.40	86.19±7.29	83.64±11.35				
cruentus Corchorus	74.03±20.74	117.10±11.97	87.22±6.50				
olitorius	86.67±10.05	70.55±11.09	62.33±18.40				

amount of Pb in the vegetable. However, for *Amaranthus cruentus* at the MTD area, samples taken at 10 m and 20 m distances from the edge of the farm did not differ significantly in their Pb contents. Also, the Pb concentration in *Corchorus olitorius* taken at 10 m and 30 m distances from the edge of the farm did not differ significantly at HTD, while samples taken at 10 m and 20 m distances from the edge of the farm at the LTD were not significantly different (Table 4).

The vegetables contained different concentrations of cadmium. However, the occurrence of Cd in *Celosia argentea* and *Corchorus olitorius* at 10 m and 20 m distances from the farm edges at the LTD area, and in *C. argentea* at 20 m and Table 3. Pooled mean of cadmium $(\mu g/g)$ contents in unwashed and washed samples of *Celosia argentea*, *Amaranthus cruentus* and *Corchorus olitorius* in three traffic density areas in Ibadan metropolis. (Values are means \pm S.E; n=3).

Plant species	ŗ	Fraffic densities	
	High	Moderate	Low
		Unwashed	
Celosia			
argentea	85.91±45.43	47.13±5.09	28.96±5.00
Amaranthus	129 76126 02	(2.20+01.04	47.9611.40
cruentus Corchorus	138.76±26.92	63.32±21.04	47.86±1.40
olitorius	68.15±17.51	48.84±18.06	29.22±5.63
		Washed	
Celosia			
argentea Amaranthus	38.58±1.03	25.84±2.59	18.69±2.17
Amaraninus cruentus	37.97±3.26	33.52±5.04	34.40±1.00
Corchorus olitorius	42.58±6.00	19.09±5.05	23.43±1.38

30 m distances from edge at the MTD area did not differ significantly (Table 5).

Washing the vegetable samples reduced the concentrations of both Pb and Cd in the vegetables at the three traffic density areas. The amount of lead removed by washing ranged between 6.93% in *C. argentea* at the LTD area to 53.27% in the same *C. argentea* at the HTD area, whereas the amount of cadmium removed by washing ranged from 19.82% in *C. olitorius* at the LTD area to 72.64% in *A. cruentus* at the HTD area (Table 6). On average, washing removed about 28.37% of Pb and 44.64% of cadmium from the vegetables. The concentrations of heavy metals removed from *C. olitorius* by washing were 25.03% and 37.52% for

Table 4. Lead (µg/g) contents in unwashed and washed samples of *Celosia argentea*, *Amaranthus cruentus* and *Corchorus olitorius* at varying distances from the roadside in three traffic density areas in Ibadan metropolis.

Distance from farm edge(m)	Celosi	aargentea	Amarant	thus cruentus	Corchor	us olitorius
	Washed	Unwashed	Washed	Unwashed	Washed	Unwashed
		 Hig	h traffic density	7		
10	126.8 ^c	54.46 ^c	166.71 ^b	52.10 ^b	112.18 ^b	98.59 ^a
20	145.1 ^a	50,56 ^b	189,63 ^a	54,51 ^b	120.62 ^a	94.76 ^a
30	131.6 ^b	83.54 ^a	116.75 ^c	115. 49 ^a	113.89 ^b	66.69 ^b
		Mode	rate traffic dens	ity		
10	107.36 a	83.01 ^b	153.05 ^a	139.97 ^a	127,63 ^a	92.05 ^a
20	107.00 ^a	100.11 ^a	123.93 ^b	- 11.81 ^b	90.51 ^b	55.05 ^c
30	92.19 ^b	75.46 ^c	115.27°	99.53°	79.43°	64.56 ^b
		Lov	v traffic density			
10	106.12 ^a	100.93 ^a	146.07 a	77.22°	92.82 ^a	91.72 ^a
20	69.90 ^c	62.27 ^c	141.37 ^b	85.03b	90.17 ^a	66.82 ^b
30	93.60 ^b	87.73 ^b	11.83°	99.41 ^a	77.29 ^b	28,45 ^c

Means in a column of each vegetable type in each traffic density area with the same letter are not significantly different at 5% level of probability using Duncan's multiple range test.

Table 5. Cadmium (µg/g) contents in unwashed and washed samples of Celosia argentea, Amaranthus cruentus and Corchorus	
<i>olitorius</i> at varying distances from the roadside in three traffic density areas in Ibadan metropolis.	

Distance from farm edge(m)	Celosi	aargentea	Amarani	thus cruentus	Corchor	us olitorius
	Washed	Unwashed	Washed	Unwashed	Washed	Unwashed
		Hig	h traffic density	7		
10	43,79 ^b	40.57 ^a	88.11°	43.58 ^a	52.42 ^b	46.19 ^a
20	37.23°	37.10 ^b	148.27 ^b	38.03 ^b	103.11 ^a	50.69 ^b
30	176.71 ^a	38.07 ^b	179.91 ^a	32.29 ^b	48.92 ^c	30.86 ^c
		Mode	rate traffic dens	ity		
10	37.06 ^a	22.09 ^c	48.67 ^b	41.14 ^a	29.77°	12.74 ^c
20	53.50 ^a	24.63 ^b	36.49 ^c	35.42 ^b	84.95 ^a	15.52 ^b
30	50.84 ^a	30.811 ^a	104.81 ^a	24.01°	31.81 ^b	29.06 ^a
		Lov	v traffic density			
10	24.23 ^b	16.34 ^b	48.64 ^a	35.88 ^a	23.79 ^b	20.80 ^c
20	23.77 ^b	16.34 ^b	48.64 ^a	35.88 ^a	23.79 ^b	20.80 ^c
30	38.87a	16.71 ^b	49.80 ^a	32.50 ^a	40.49 ^a	25.47 ^a

Means in a column of each vegetable type in each traffic density area with the same letter are not significantly different at 5% level of probability using Duncan's multiple range test.

Pb and Cd respectively. However, in *A. cruentus* the concentrations were 53.05% of Pb and 72.64% of Cd, and in *C. argentea* the concentrations were 53.27% of Pb and 55.09% of Cd (Table 6).

Table 6. Percentage reduction of lead and cadmium by
washing the samples of Celosia argentea, Amaranthus
cruentus and Corchorus olitorius in distilled water.

Plant species	Traffic densities						
	High	Moderate	Low	Mean			
		Lead					
Celosia							
argentea	53.27	15.65	6.93	25.28			
Amaranthus							
cruentus	53.05	10.44	34.47	32.65			
Corchorus							
olitorius	25.03	28.87	27.66	27.19			
		Cadmium					
Celosia							
argentea	55.09	45.17	35.46	45.24			
Amaranthus	70 ()						
cruentus Correlectus	72.64	47.06	28.12	49.27			
Corchorus olitorius	37.52	60.91	19.82	39.41			
	57.32	00.91	19.02	39.41			

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The results showed that heavy metal concentration in the unwashed vegetable species, which accounted for the amount of surface deposition and assimilation of heavy metals depend on vehicular traffic density. The overall lead and cadmium concentration were also highest in areas with high traffic density (HTD). Onianwa (1987) working with acrocarpous mosses to monitor pollution in the air reported that mosses collected within villages with low population and low traffic density had low Pb $(14.3\pm7.0\mu g/g)$ and low cadmium $(0.12\pm0.15\mu g/g)$ concentrations compared to high concentrations $(136\pm77\mu g/g \text{ for Pb}; 0.35\pm0.21\mu g/g \text{ for Cd})$ obtained in Ibadan with high population, high traffic density and high anthropogenic activities such as large scale refuse burning, welding and small metal works. Lee (1972) reported that in Manchester, England, Pb levels of 185 $\mu g/g$ in most parts of the city increased to 320 $\mu g/g$ at 2m from roadsides. The phenomenal increase in automobile traffic in recent times within Ibadan City has been reported to be a major source of various atmospheric pollution (Oluwande 1977, Osibanjo and Ajayi 1980).

The low concentration of heavy metals in washed samples at the LTD implies that heavy metal deposition was low. Nasralla and Alli (1985) reported that heavy metal concentration of fruits was the result of traffic densities and distances of the farms or gardens from roadsides. They further reported that the primary source of Pb in leaves growing close to public roads was from leaf absorption of tetra-ethyl lead vapor and salts emitted from motor vehicles.

The low concentrations of heavy metals in the soil when compared to the plant would indicate that the availability of soil Cd and Pb to the plant was negligible. It could, therefore, be inferred that the source of Cd and Pb to the vegetables was from aerial deposition and foliar absorption. Various authors have reported that retention of particulate matter is the main source of contamination of roadside vegetation (Little 1973, Chamberlin 1997).

In unwashed samples the differences in heavy metal concentrations across various distances from edge of the road, though did not follow a specific trend, may reflect difference in the aerial deposition as aided by wind drift. Wind drift action may have aided the deposition of Pb since wind velocity affects and sometimes may increase deposition of atmospheric pollutants (Lewinska 1984). Fytiamos *et al* (1985) identified meteorology as one of the factors that affect the concentration of Pb to be found in the various environmental compartments bordering a roadway. The high concentrations of Pb in 20m and 30m distances from edge of the road may imply that fine grained Pb were airborne to a further distance before deposition. Hana and Al-Basam (1983) reported that 25% of the vehicular emitted Pb is coarse grained and deposited close to the road, while the remaining 75% is finer and may be airborne over a long distance.

In HTD area, heavy metal deposition on C. olitorus was far less than deposition on A. cruentus and C. argentea as indicated by the low percentage of heavy metal removed by washing. A. cruentus indicatively had highest surface deposition. The variation in concentrations of Pb and Cd among vegetable types (unwashed) may be explained by differences in leaf morphology. Leaf morphology has been implicated in the relative ability of plant species to absorb and retain heavy metals. The Amaranthus sp. used in this investigation had broader leaves than the other two vegetables. Also C. olitorius had shiny glabrous leaf surface that may not aid retention. Gradual retention and accumulation of surface Pb and other heavy metals have been demonstrated to be dependent on leaf shape and size, and on the general morphology of plants (Martin and Coughtrey 1981, Kingston et al 1988).

Washing removed a considerable amount of heavy metals, as high as 72.64% of Cd in *A. cruentus* at the HTD area. It has been reported that up to 80% of the total Pb content in leaves could be removed by rinsing with distilled water (Schodeller 1967, Breckle and Verche 1974). Also, reports of Hagemeyer *et al* (1986) and Lindeberg and Harris (1994) demonstrated the efficiency of washing in reducing the amount of Cd in plant leaves. This may further imply that the main source of Pb and Cd pollution in vegetables is aerial deposition from motor vehicle emissions and other athropogenic activities.

Washing the vegetables in distilled water removed relatively more Cd than Pb, but the concentrations of these pollutants in the washed vegetables were still above internationally acceptable levels. Kloke (1974) recommended that maximum food content of Pb should be $10\mu g/g$. However, FAO/WHO (1978) recommended maximum tolerable daily Pb intake of 0.00043 $\mu g/g$ or 7 $\mu g/kg$ -body weight. Few of the vegetables samples had Cd level higher than the recommended tolerable level. WHO/UNEP (1976) recommended daily intake of 57.14-71.43 µg/kg-body weight.

The relatively high concentrations of Pb and Cd in these common leafy vegetables raise some serious environmental concerns. Both lead and cadmium have been shown to be toxic to man. Cadmium, inhaled or ingested, is known to be a cumulative poison in man. The liver and kidney are known to contain half the total cadmium in the body and its bioaccumulation in the system has been related to hypertension and cardiovascular diseases (Underwood 1971). Acute effects of Pb poisoning could lead to constipation, vomiting, anaemia, swelling of the brain, paralysis and even death (Shapiro and Johnson 1989). Lead is also known to interfere with the function of the mitochondria, thereby impairing respiration (Chang 1992)

Continuous consumption of heavy metalcontaminated vegetables could have serious health implication in the developing countries where leaded fuel is very much in use. Now that cities in Nigeria are crammed with poorly maintained heavy metalemitting vehicles, environmentalist have the responsibility of monitoring the level of pollutants being ingested by city dwellers. It is recommended that steps be taken to discourage the cultivation of leafy vegetables along roadside and especially, in high traffic density (HTD) areas.

REFERENCES

- Allen SE, Grimshaw HM, Parkinson JA, Quarmby C and Robert JD 1976 Chemical analysis of ecological materials (Ed) chapman; S.B. Blackwell scientific Pub London Pp.466
- Alloway BJ and Jackson AP 1991 The behaviour of heavymetals in sewage sludge amended soil. *Sci. Total. Environ* 100: 151.
- Breckle SW and H Verche 1974 Factors affecting heavymetal content of Garden vegetables. Angrew. Bot. 48:809-815.
- Chamberlin C 1997 Lead in roadside soils and vegetation of Damascus city. *Sci. of Total Environ*. 207(1):43-48.
- Chang LW 1992 The concept of direct and indirect neuro toxicity and concept of toxic metal/essential element interactions as a common biomechanism underlying metal toxicity, In:The vulnerable brain and Environment risk,Vol. 2, Toxins in Food. Plenum Press, New York. pp 61.
- Chaudry R, Ashish P and Mukerjik 1989 Effect of some atmospheric pollutant on micro organisms. In Frontiers in Applied Microbiology. Mukerji, K. Singh, V. and Garg, K. (Eds) Rastogi and co. India pp 84-89.

- FAO/WHO 1978 List of maximum levels recommended for contaminants by joint FAO/WHO codex. Alimentaries commission 3rd series Rome, FAO/WHO. CAL/FAL 4-1978.
- Fytianos K, Vasilikiotis G and Samanidou V 1985 Chemosphere 14:271.
- Hagermeyer J, H Kale and S Breckle 1986 Cadmium in *Fagus sylvatica* L. Trees and seedlings: Leaching, uptake and interconnection with transpiration. *Water, Air and Soil pollution* 29:347-359.
- Hana AAK and Al-Bassam KS 1983 Water, Air and soil pollution. 19:3
- Kingston L, Leharne S and McPhee E 1989 A survey of vehicular lead deposition in a wood land ecosystem. *Water, Air and Soil pollution* 38: 239-250.
- Kloke AC 1974. Lead-Zinc-Cd enrichment in soils and plants J. Environ. Qual 1: 288-291
- Largerwerff JU and Speecht AW 1970 Contamination of roadside and vegetation with Cd, Ni, Pb, Zn, *Environ.Sci. Tech* 4: 583-586.
- Lee JA 1972 Lead pollution from a factory manufacturing antiknock compounds, *Nature* 238:165-166.
- Lewinska J 1984 Metrological aspect of air pollution in forest ecosystem in industrial regions. Springer-Verlag, Bercol. pp 409.
- Lindberg SE and Harris RC 1994 Distribution of Cadmium in food chain (soil-plant-human) of cadmium exposed area. Sci. of Total Environment 156:151-158.
- Little P 1973 Air borne Zn, Pb and cd Pollution, its effect on soil and vegetation *Environ. Pollut.* 5:159
- Martin MH and Coughtrey PJ 1981. Impact of heavy metals on ecosystem. Action and productivity effects of heavymetals on plant 2:449pp ed lepi N.W. Pub Apllied sci Basrley.
- Nasralla MN and EA Alli 1985 Lead accumulation in edible portions of crops grown near Egyptian

Traffic roads. Agric. Ecosyst. Environ 13:73-82.

- Ndiokwere CL 1984 A study of heavymetals pollution from motor vehicle emission and its effect on roadside soil and vegetation and crops in Nig. *Environ.*. *Pollut.* (series B) 7: 35-42.
- Nriagu JO 1989 A global assessment of national source of atmosphere trace metals. *Nature* 338:47-49.
- Oluwande PAC 1977 Automobile traffic and air pollution in a developing country. (An example of affluence cause environmental problem) *Int. J. Environ. Stud.* 11: 197-203.
- Onianwa PC and SO Ajayi 1987 Heavy metal contents of epiphytic acrocarpous mosses within inhabited sites in southwest Nigeria, *Environment International* 13:191-196
- Osibanjo OO and Ajayi SO 1980 Trace metals levels in tree barks as indicators of atmospheric pollution. *Environ. Int.* 4: 239-244.
- SAS 1987 Statistical Analysis system users' guide. Ver, 6.02 SAS Institute, Cary, North Califonia, U.S.A.
- Schodeller A 1967 Lead in vegetables. *Ber schiveiz Bot Ges* 77:266-269.
- Shapiro H and J Johnson 1989 McGraw Hill Encyclopedia Sci.-Tech. 8th Edition pp 705-707.
- Underwood EJ 1971 Trace elements in human nutrition. pp 205.
- UNDP 1996 Urban Agriculture, food, Jobs and sustainable cities. Pub United Nations Development Programmes. New York.
- WHO/UNEP 1976 WHO-1977 Environmental Health criteria 3: Lead. UNEP/WHO, Geneva