

1 **Evaluation of the Concentrations of some heavy metals( Pb, Cd and Cr) and long term**  
2 **exposure due to daily Consumption of ready-to-eat foods sold at Petrol station's**  
3 **Atmospheric conditions (AF) in Calabar Metropolis.**  
4  
5

6 **Abstract – just add the place and duration of the study**

7 **Background:** Heavy metals contamination has been reported at petrol station environments.  
8 There is a possibility of contamination foods around petrol stations.

9 **Objectives:** In this study, the concentrations of Pb, Cd and Cr, long term exposure and daily  
10 consumption of ready-to-eat food foods sold at Petrol station's Atmospheric conditions (AF) in  
11 Calabar Metropolis was evaluated.

12 **Methods:** Foods samples, including such prepared ready-to-eat foods were collected at the point  
13 of sale at the fuel stations, about 7:00am in the morning before they were opened for sale (and  
14 exposed to the environment of the filling stations). These were labelled "Before". At about  
15 2:00pm to 3:00pm same day, the same ready-to-eat food samples were collected again at the  
16 same spots.

17 **Results:** In this study, the levels of Pb, Cd and Cr were determined in some ready-to-eat foods  
18 that are sold around the filling station environments in Calabar metropolis. The results obtained,  
19 as presented in Figures 1-3, showed that the levels of Pb and Cd were significantly ( $p < 0.05$ )  
20 increased in garri, afang soup, melon soup, white rice, beans, stew and meat pie, while the level  
21 of and Cr was significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) increased in afang soup, melon soup, white rice, beans, stew  
22 and meat pie after 6 hours of exposure to petrol station's atmospheric conditions.

23 **Conclusion:** From this study, it may be concluded that exposure of ready-to-eat foods at the  
24 filling station's atmospheric conditions may cause heavy metal contamination to the foods,  
25 particularly Pb, Cd and Cr.

26 Key words: lead, Cadmium, Chromium, contamination and petrol stations  
27

28 **Introduction – References to be sequentially numbered and put in square bracket like**  
29 **[1]**

30 Ready-to-eat foods are those foods that are considered to be ready to consume instantly at the  
31 point of sale. Clarence *et al.* (2009) and Mahakarnchanakul *et al.* (2010) reported that these  
32 foods may be consumed in either raw or cooked form, hot or cold as well as consumed with or  
33 without further heat treatment. As reported by Tambekar *et al.* (2008) ready-to-eat foods on the  
34 street are relatively cheap and readily accessible, accounting for the commonly available feeding  
35 source for many city dwellers. Hence, street foods play important roles in the feeding pattern of  
36 different categories of people in major urban cities in developing countries. It has been reported  
37 that about 80% of Thai ready-to-eat foods are generally eaten uncooked and are exported to USA

38 and Europe (Jocelyn and Naewbanji, 2005). The ready-to-eat foods sold by food vendors and  
39 hawkers in streets and other public places usually have high patronage probably due to  
40 convenience, nutritional quality and flavor of the food. The sale of these foods helps to provide  
41 the needed source of income for the non-skilled people in such cities, thereby contributing to  
42 economic development of countries where such activities take place.

43 According to the FAO/WHO (2007), street foods may be obtained from a street side  
44 vendor, often from a makeshift stall which could also be portable. Generally, certain appealing  
45 factors that make street foods popular as food sources in most cities in the developing countries  
46 include familiarity, organoleptic property of the food, low cost and convenience in getting the  
47 food (Mahakarnchanakul *et al.*, 2010). There exists a social pattern characterized by increased  
48 mobility, large number of itinerant workers and less family or home centered activities in  
49 developing societies where these foods are sold. This situation, has led to an increase to the  
50 increase in the amount of ready-to-eat foods taken outside the home. This therefore has led to the  
51 proliferation of food vendor services with the responsibility of good manufacturing practices of  
52 food being “transferred from individuals/families to the food vendors who usually do not enforce  
53 such practices” (Musa and Akande 2002; Clarence *et al.*, 2009). In Nigeria, storage of these food  
54 products is done under poor hygienic conditions. More often than not, the products are displayed  
55 in open trays in open market places as well as hawked along the street by hawkers.  
56 Contamination of food may occur at any point in the production chain (i.e. from the point of  
57 harvest and transport of the raw materials, processing of the raw products, packaging,  
58 transportation of finished product, storage and marketing) to the final point of consumption. Due  
59 to poor processing methods used, these foods could therefore be contaminated by micro-  
60 organism, heavy metals and pesticides. Data regarding metallic concentration of food products at  
61 the point of consumption is necessary to allow for estimation of human exposure to these metals  
62 (Iwegbue, 2011).

63 Basically, Governments and many government agencies globally are known to have  
64 initiated several attempts to improve food safety, but food borne illnesses arising from food  
65 contamination is reported to still possess a significant health threat to humans in both developed  
66 and developing countries (Gasaluck, 2012). The ready-to-eat foods sold along streets are  
67 considered to be of risk to public health as a result of the difficulty associated with the control of  
68 quality of large number of street food vending operations. This difficulty is reported to be

69 attributed to the diversity of the food, food mobility and the temporary nature of the process as  
70 well as inadequate basic infrastructure and services (Ghosh *et al.*, 2007; DeSausa, 2008). Foods  
71 may be contaminated by the introduction of finely dispersed particles in the atmosphere into  
72 foods. Entry of these finely dispersed particles into foods may occur mainly due to the  
73 preparation and pre/post processing method used, wear and tear of metallic cooking vessels as  
74 well as environmental pollutants.

75 The levels of metal content in foods is of great importance because of the huge role that  
76 metallic ions play in health and disease (Hague *et al.*, 2008). The human body cannot tolerate  
77 certain metals (like Cadmium and lead) at even low concentrations due to the fact that they are  
78 highly toxic (Suppin *et al.*, 2006). Heavy metals may cause toxic responses by displacing a  
79 physiologically appropriate metal. For example, “cadmium can replace copper and iron in  
80 cytoplasmic and membrane proteins, with the free metal ions promoting the generation of free  
81 radicals (superoxide and hydroxyl radical) which in turn can lead to oxidative damage of lipids,  
82 nucleic acids and proteins” (Marias & Blackhurst, 2009). Cadmium has been implicated in the  
83 development of skeletal damage (Jarap, 2003). Cadmium and lead have been reported to harm  
84 reproductive system and embryonic development.

85 The physiologic roles of essential metals have been well documented. For example, Iron  
86 (plays the role as a haemopoietics of hemoglobin and cytochromes) (Marias & Blackhurst 2009).  
87 The physiologic roles of essential metals are due to the fact that these metals are constituents of  
88 proteins. A deficiency of these elements could induce disease conditions. For example, a  
89 deficiency of copper could induce elevated blood pressure, induce hypercholesterolemia and  
90 increase low density lipoprotein content in the blood which could trigger cardiac arrest.  
91 Similarly, a deficiency of manganese could cause chronic diseases like osteoporosis and diabetes  
92 mellitus. Intake of essential metals above threshold limits could cause toxicity problems.  
93 Epidemiological data have shown that there is a correlation between excessive dietary intake of  
94 zinc and an increased prevalence of obesity and other related diseases (Singh & Taneja, 2010).

95 As in Nigeria and many other countries, ready-to-eat foods account for a significantly large  
96 proportion of the daily food intake of individuals and families. A survey of revealed that only a handful of  
97 literature exists for the content of metals in Nigerian foods and these studies are limited in scope with  
98 respect to the type of element and food surveyed (Iwegbue, 2011). For example, Onianwa *et al.* (2001)  
99 examined the levels and daily intake of Cu and Zn from confectioneries (sweets, biscuits and breads).  
100 Currently, there is insufficient information regarding elemental composition of ready-to-eat foods

101 consumed in southern Nigeria and no real study on individual and combined target hazard quotient values  
102 for common confectioneries has been reported, this study therefore seeks to provide a comprehensive  
103 evaluation of the concentrations, daily intake and long term exposure to metals due to consumption of  
104 ready-to-eat foods with a view to provide valuable information on the risks associated with their  
105 consumption.

106

## 107 **Materials and Methods.**

### 108 **Materials**

109 The following equipment and glass wares were used in the course of this research:  
110 Laboratory mortar (model EW-63100-60, from Cole-parmer company Ltd, USA), Evaporating  
111 plate (model SER-No.62, from Gallenkamp company Ltd, UK), Atomic Absorption  
112 Spectrophotometer (model AA6800, Schemadzu company, Japan).

### 113 **Reagents/chemicals**

114 Standard reagents and chemicals were used and include: Lichens coded International  
115 Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA-336), from Sigma, USA, Nitric acid (Riedel-deHaën, Germany),  
116 Perchloric acid (Sigma-Aldrich, Germany), Hydrofluoric acid, Ethanol, Methanol, Ethyl-acetate,  
117 (British Drug House Chemicals Ltd, Poole, England), distilled deionized water (obtained from  
118 Cross River State water board, Calabar-Nigeria).

119

120

121 **Methods - References to be sequentially numbered from introduction and put in**  
122 **square bracket; mention statistical analysis followed**

### 123 **Collection of food samples**

124 Foods samples, including such prepared ready-to-eat foods as garri, meat pie, stew, rice,  
125 beans, afang and melon soups were collected at the point of sale at the fuel stations, about  
126 7:00am in the morning before they were opened for sale (and exposed to the environment of the  
127 filling stations). These were labelled "Before". At about 2:00pm to 3:00pm same day, the same  
128 ready-to-eat food samples were collected again at the same spots (after they have been exposed

129 to the filling stations atmospheric environment). These were labelled “After”. The food samples  
130 were collected in such a way that all the Garri purchased before, across the different filling  
131 stations were mashed together as a single sample, while the ones purchased after were equally  
132 collected to form a single sample. The other food samples were handled in in like manner.

### 133 **Preparation of food samples for heavy metal analysis**

134 One gram (1.0g) each of the **pulled** (means??)samples was weighed into a beaker. 20ml  
135 of aqua-rega (a solution of Nitric acid and perchloric acid (3:1) was added and the beaker was  
136 covered with glass for the initial effervescence to subside. Thereafter, the beaker was placed on a  
137 hot plate and heated to near dryness at about 80-90<sup>0</sup>C. The aqua-rega was added as required in  
138 the course of digestion, to avoid drying. After the sample was fully digested, giving light  
139 coloured solution, the beaker was transferred onto a work bench and allowed to cool. The cooled  
140 sample was filtered into a 50ml beaker and made up to the mark with distilled water. This was  
141 transferred into a sample container in preparation for heavy metal (elemental) determination  
142 using Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer (Awofolu, 2005).

### 143 **Analytical Quality Assurance**

144 To make sure that the analytical methods used for heavy metal determination are  
145 reliability, standard reference materials, Lichens coded (International Atomic Energy Agency;  
146 IAEA-336) were also digested and then analyzed using same procedure. Comparison of  
147 determined values with certified elemental values was carried out to ensure reliability of the  
148 analytical method used (Udiba *et al*, 2012).

149  
150

151 **RESULTS – to this only add discussion at relevant places; mention the**  
152 **values of metals present in ready to eat foods, even you can give to bars**  
153 **in the graph and also X-axis require type or name of the food sample**  
154 **Results showing the different concentrations of Pb, Cd and Cr in some ready-to-eat meals**  
155 **before and after 6 hrs of exposure to petrol station’s atmospheric conditions (AF)**

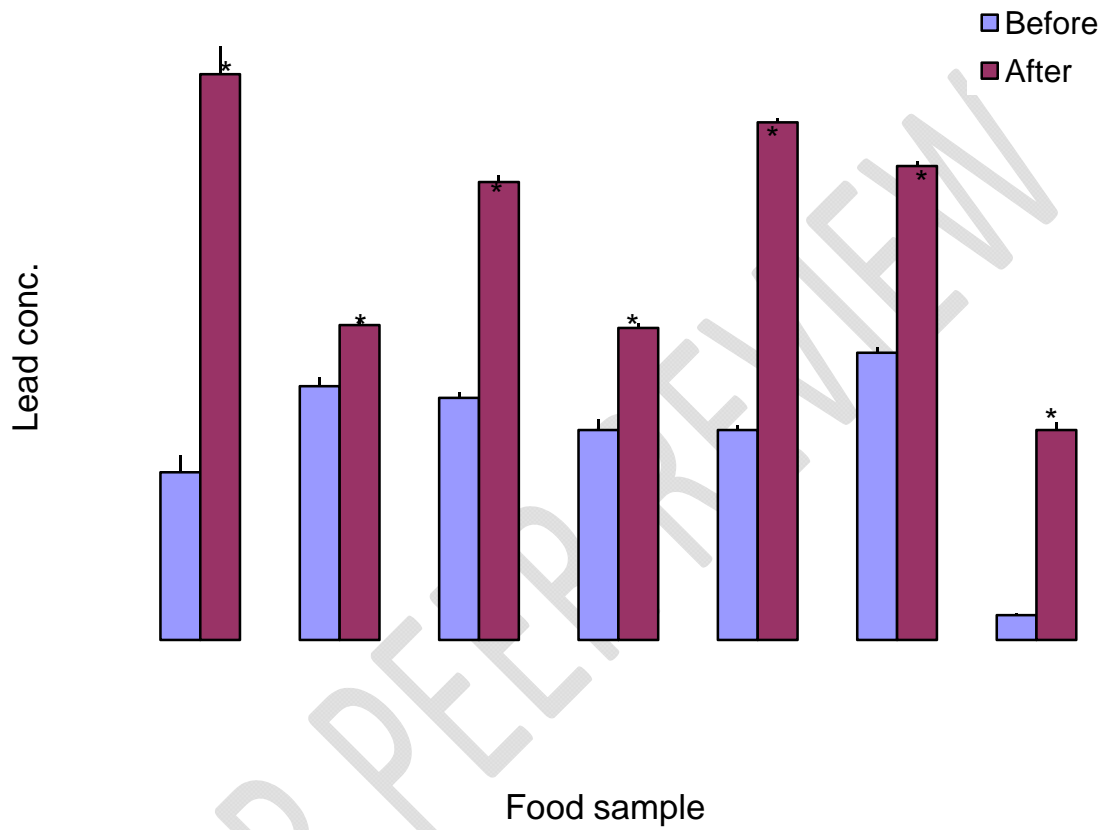


Figure 1: Comparison of concentration of lead before and after exposure in the different food samples.

Values are expressed as mean + SEM, n = 3.

\* = significantly different from before exposure at  $p < 0.05$

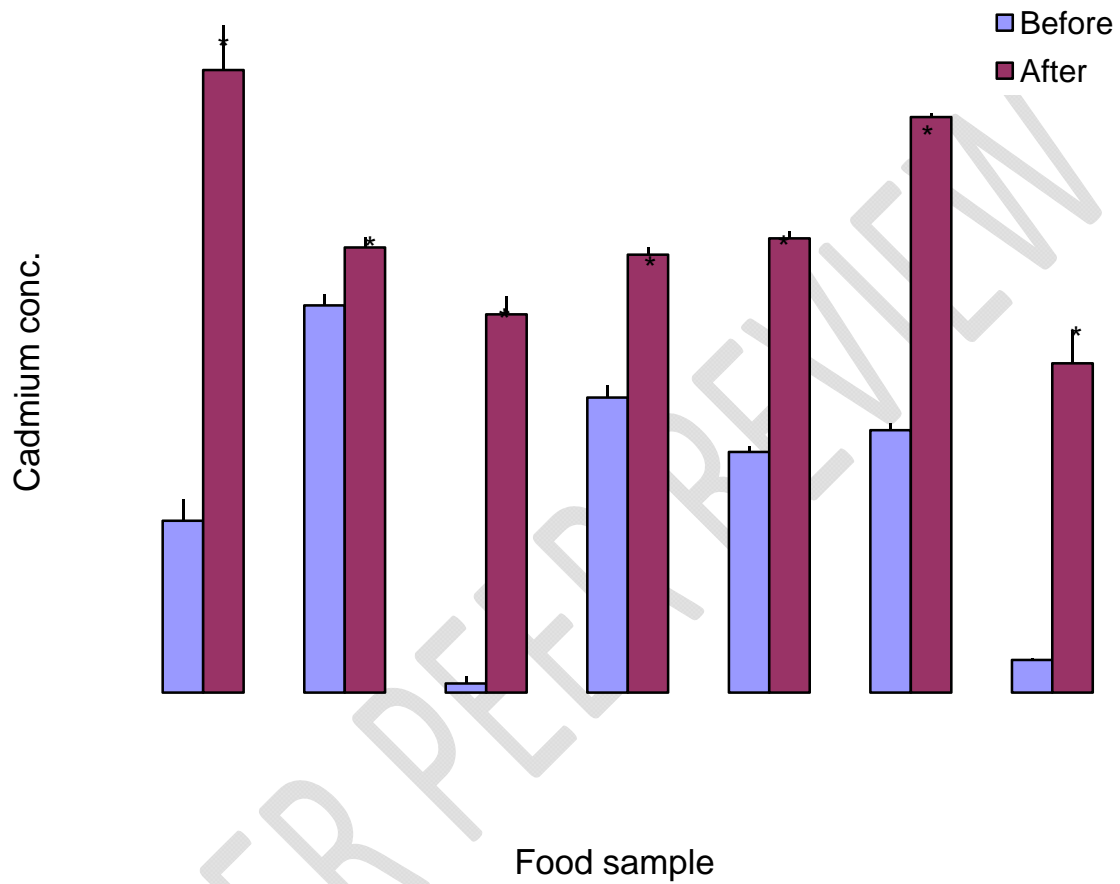


Figure 2: Comparison of concentration of cadmium before and after exposure in the different food samples.

Values are expressed as mean + SEM, n = 3.

\* = significantly different from before exposure at  $p < 0.05$

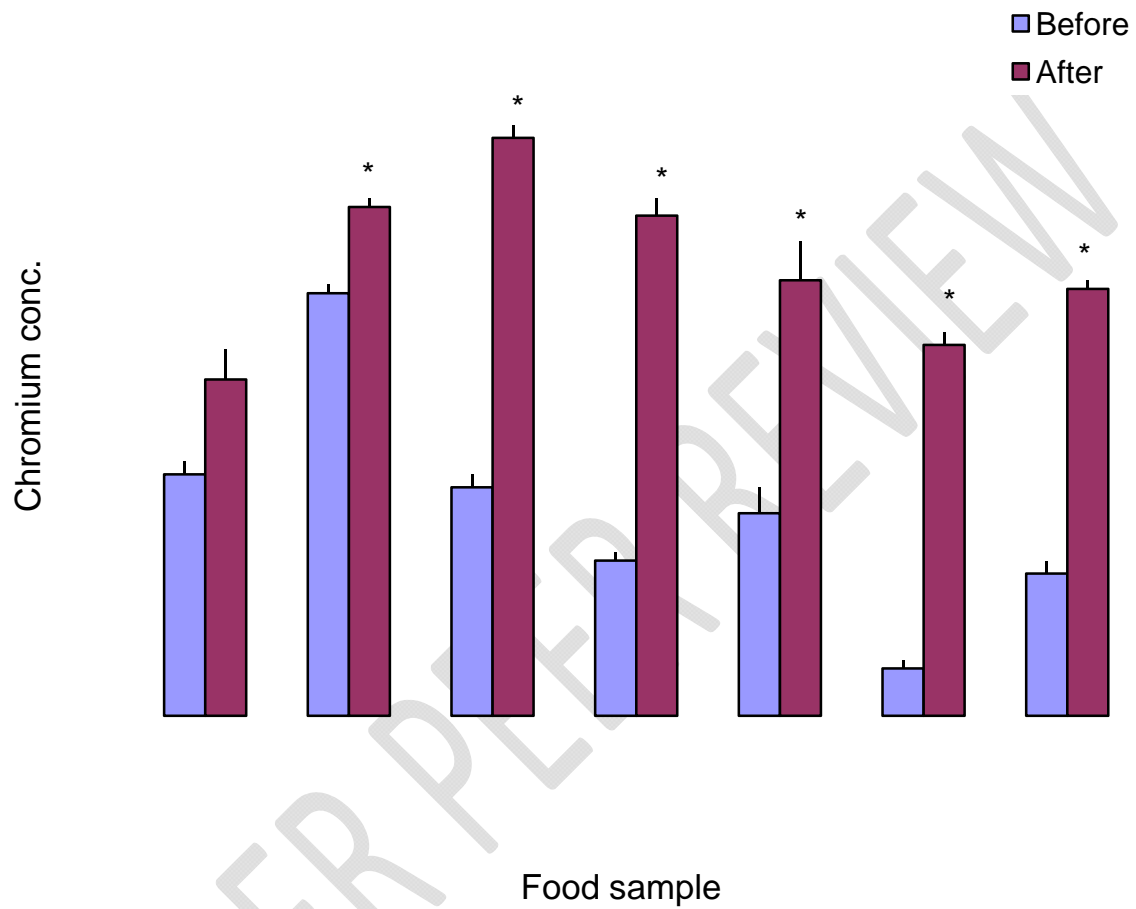


Figure 3. Comparison of concentration of chromium before and after exposure in the different food samples.

Values are expressed as mean + SEM, n = 3.

\* = significantly different from before exposure at  $p < 0.05$



159 In this study, the levels of Pb, Cd and Cr were determined in some ready-to-eat foods, including  
160 garri, afang soup, melon soup, white rice, beans, stew and meat pie that are sold around the  
161 filling station environments in Calabar metropolis. The results obtained, as presented in Figures  
162 1-3, showed that the levels of Pb and Cd were significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) increased in garri, afang  
163 soup, melon soup, white rice, beans, stew and meat pie, while the level of and Cr was  
164 significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) increased in afang soup, melon soup, white rice, beans, stew and meat pie  
165 after 6 hours of exposure to petrol station's atmospheric conditions. This shows that there is high  
166 possibility of contamination of most of the ready-to-eat foods sold around the petrol stations  
167 evaluated with heavy metals (such as lead, Cadmium and Chromium).

168 **Discussion - combine discussion with result and references to be sequentially**  
169 **numbered mentioned from introduction, methods and discussion in**  
170 **square bracket**

171 The presence of heavy metals contaminants in foods has been a serious concern in most societies  
172 of the world in recent times. Generally, increased exposure to heavy metal contaminants  
173 introduced into the air from industrial activities and traffic congestion is a consequence of  
174 advancement in industrialization. Exposure of food and food substances to heavy metals  
175 contaminated environments is likely to result in the contamination of such food substances with  
176 heavy metals. The petrol stations environment is among the areas reported to be characterized by  
177 heavy metal contaminations (Dauda & Odoh, 2012; Afrifa *et al.*, 2013). The presence of heavy  
178 metals in the air, water and food forms a major health threat globally (Matthew *et al.*, 2002).  
179 Such human activities as use of agricultural pesticides, increase in industrialization and mining  
180 are known to release high amount of heavy metals into the environment, thereby increasing the  
181 levels of heavy metal pollution in the ecosystem (Srikanth *et al.*, 2004). Consumption of food  
182 items displayed at these environments is therefore likely to expose the consumers to the risk of  
183 these heavy metals toxicity. Some heavy metals are known to cause various health hazards to  
184 individuals that consume those foods that are enormously contaminated with the metals.  
185 Generally, heavy metals get into human systems following consumption of foods and drinking of  
186 water that are contaminated with heavy metals. This study is therefore important in determining

187 the possibility of dietary consumption of heavy metals from food sources. This may also play a  
188 key role in evaluating food safety and the consequent effects of heavy metals on the consumers.

189 This study assessed the level of some heavy metals in ready-to-eat foods such as prepared  
190 garri, meat pie, stew, rice, beans, afang and melon soups that are sold at the petrol refueling  
191 stations in Calabar. It was observed from the results of this study showed that petrol refueling  
192 stations atmosphere, introduced high levels of Pb and Cd into garri, afang soup, melon soup,  
193 white rice, beans, stew and meat pie sold within premises of the refueling stations. Also, high  
194 level of Cr was recorded in garri, afang soup, melon soup, white rice, beans, stew and meat pie at  
195 the petrol stations in Calabar, compared to the level recorded for the freshly prepared foods.  
196 According to the “Joint FAO/ World Health Organization Expert Committee on Food Additives  
197 (JEFCA) the established provisional tolerable weekly intake for lead is 0.025 mg/kg body  
198 weight” (JEFCA, 2004). Also, the report of “WHO provisional guideline records 0.01 mg/L as  
199 the adopted standard for drinking water” (WHO, 2004). According to the FAO/WHO standard,  
200 “the permissible level of cadmium and lead is 0.05 and 0.2mg/kg, respectively”.

201 The level of these heavy metals, particularly Pb, Cr and Cd, were observed to be higher  
202 than the World recommended limits. The observed increase in heavy metals contents in ready-to-  
203 eat foods at the petrol stations implies that the atmospheric environment of petrol stations in  
204 Calabar must have been contaminated with these heavy metals, from where they are likely  
205 introduced into these food items. Reem *et al.*, (2012) reported that the level of Pb in some brands  
206 of chicken liver meat sold in open market in Iraq is higher than the permissible limits. This  
207 suggested the possibility of the introduction of Pb from a contaminated open market atmosphere  
208 into the meat. Results of the current study gives a clear indication that most ready-to-eat foods  
209 sold around the petrol stations may be prone to contamination with heavy metals (such as Pb, Cd  
210 and Cr). The results of this study therefore support the report of Dauda & Odoh (2012) and  
211 Afrifa *et al.* (2013), that the level of atmospheric air within the petrol refueling stations in South  
212 South region of Nigeria are heavily contaminated with heavy metals. Also, Thirulogachandar *et*  
213 *al.*, (2014) reported that the presence of heavy metals in poultry liver meat correlates the extent  
214 of contamination due to water, foodstuff, air and premixes intake by the chicken.

215 The results of this study are in agreement with work done by Oladimeji *et al.* (2014) that  
216 who reported that ready-to-eat foods at traffic and industrial activities congested areas contain  
217 high level of such heavy metals as Cd, Pb and Cr. Since the concentrations of Pb, Cd and Cr in

218 the ready-to-eat foods in this study were high, it can be deduced that consumption of these foods  
219 may pose a significant health hazard to their consumers. In a study carried out by Sharma *et al.*  
220 (2009), “a concentration of 1.96 mg/kg was recorded for cadmium in tomatoes collected from  
221 production and market sites of a tropical urban area of India”. Similarly, high amounts of  
222 cadmium was been reported by Jimoh *et al* (2012). However, the studies carried out by Radwan  
223 & Salama (2006) in Egypt reported a concentration of  $0.01 \pm 0.00$  mg/kg of Cd (i.e., below the  
224 standard threshold) in some Egyptian fruits and vegetables, including tomatoes. Since the level  
225 of Cd recorded in this study for ready-to-eat foods was above the reported tolerable limits,  
226 consumption of these foods may pose a health risk to the consumers, as observed by Zheng *et al.*  
227 (2007).

228 A study on heavy metal content of Egyptian fruits and vegetables reported the  
229 concentration of  $0.26 \pm 0.09$  mg/kg (Radwan & Salama, 2006), while Aryan Dermisbas (2009)  
230 reported Pb concentration of  $0.43 \pm 0.08$  mg/kg for tomatoes from market survey in Egypt. It has  
231 been reported that the presence of lead in foodstuff at a concentration higher than the maximum  
232 permissible limit of 0.2 mg/kg can pose both long and short term health hazard (Oladimeji *et al.*,  
233 2014). According to this report, “short-term exposure to high levels of lead can cause brain  
234 damage, paralysis (or lead palsy), anaemia and gastrointestinal symptoms”. Consumption of  
235 foods containing high concentration of lead may therefore pose a major health challenge(s) to the  
236 consumers. Short-term exposure to low amounts of lead has been reported to produce adverse  
237 effects on neuro-behavioral development of particularly young children (Food Safety Authority  
238 of Ireland, 2009). The results obtained from this present research work suggest that the  
239 consumption of ready-to-eat foods exposed to petrol stations environment for 8hours are liable to  
240 cause lead toxicity.

241 The potential health risks that are known to be associated with exposure to heavy metals  
242 in foods have attracted the concern of researchers in recent times. Literature reports clearly  
243 pointed out that heavy metals are dangerous due to their non-biodegradability property and long  
244 biological half lives, hence their ability to bio-accumulate within living tissues (Jarup, 2003;  
245 Sathawara *et al.*, 2004; Banerjee *et al.*, 2011). According to Demirezen & Uruc (2006),  
246 consumption of foods contaminated with heavy metals pose a serious health threat to the  
247 consumers due to their toxicity effects, bioaccumulation and biomagnifications in food chains.  
248 Although it may be difficult to prevent the contamination of the atmospheric air around

249 industrialized areas with heavy metals, it is important that strict measures of controlling the  
250 exposure of food items to these contaminated environments should be devised and adopted.  
251 Among these measures may include prevention of exposure and sale of ready-to-eat foods in  
252 such open contaminated environments as petrol refueling stations. With this, the prevalence of  
253 food contamination with heavy metals will be reduced, and the rate of consumption of heavy  
254 metals contaminated foods will also be reduced.

#### 255 **Conclusion**

256 From this study, it may be concluded that exposure of ready-to-eat foods at the filling station's  
257 atmospheric conditions may cause heavy metal contamination to the foods, particularly Pb, Cd  
258 and Cr. It is therefore advisable to protect the ready-to-eat foods sold within and around the  
259 filling stations from direct exposure to the atmospheric conditions of the filling stations.

260

#### 261 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

262 Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

263

#### 264 **REFERENCES – All the references to be numbered and sequentially arranged from** 265 **introduction, methods and discussion**

266 Afrifa, C. G., Ofosu, F. G., Bamford, S. A., Wordson, D. A., Atiemo, S. M., Aboh, I. J. K. and  
267 Adeti, J. P. (2013). Heavy metal contamination in surface soil dust at selected fuel filling  
268 stations in Accra, Ghana. *American Journal of Scientific and Industrial Research* 4(4): 404-413  
269

270 Aryan, D. (2009). Oil, Micronutrients and heavy metal contents of tomatoes. *Food Chemistry*  
271 *Journal*, 118(3).504-507

272 Awofolu, O. R.; Mbolekwa, Z., Mtshemla, V.; Fatoki, O. S., (2005). Levels of trace metals in  
273 water and sediments from Tyume River and its effects on an irrigated farmland. *Water SA* 31 (1):  
274 87-94

275 Clarence, S. Y., Obinna, C. N. and Shalom, N. C. (2009). Assessment of bacteriological quality  
276 of ready to eat food (meat pie) in Benin City Metropolis, Nigeria. *African Journal of*  
277 *Microbiological Research* 3(6): 390–395.

278  
279 Dauda, M. S. and Odoh, R. (2012). Heavy metals assessment of soil in the vicinity of fuel filling  
280 station in some selected local government areas of Benue State, Nigeria. *Der Chemica Sinica*. 3  
281 (5):1329-1336  
282  
283 Demirezen, D. and Uruc K. (2006). Comparative study of trace elements in certain fish, meat and  
284 meat products. *Meat Science* 74:255-260.

285 Desausa, C. P. (2008). The impact of food manufacturing practices on food borne diseases.  
286 *Brazillian Archives of Biology and Technology* 51(4): 815-823.  
287  
288 FAO (1989). Street foods: A summary of FAO studies and other activities relating to street  
289 foods. *FAO, Rome, Italy, Food Policy and Nutrition Division*.  
290 <http://agris.fao.org/agris-search/search.do?recordID=XF9092131>  
291

292 FAO/WHO. (2000). *Report of the 32nd Session of the codex committee of the food additives*  
293 *Contaminants*. Beijing People's Republic of China, 20-24.

294 FAO/WHO, Codex Alimentarius Commission (2001). Food additives and contaminants. *Joint*  
295 *FAO/WHO food standards programme, ALINORM 01/12A:1-289*.

296 FAO/WHO (2007). Food safety risk analysis: A guide for national food safety authorities  
297 [www.fao.org/docrep/012/a0822e/a0822e00.htm](http://www.fao.org/docrep/012/a0822e/a0822e00.htm)  
298  
299 Food safety Authority of Ireland, (2009). Toxicology factsheet series: mercury, lead, cadmium,  
300 tin and arsenic in food issue no. 1 | may 2009.  
301 <https://www.fsai.ie/workarea/downloadasset.aspx?id=8412>  
302

303 Gasaluck, P. (2012) Microbial and heavy metal contamination monitoring of ready-to-eat food in  
304 Nakhon Ratchasima Province. *International Journal of Food, Nutrition & Public Health* 5(  
305 1/2/3): 213-223.  
306  
307  
308 Ghosh, M., Wahi, S., and Ganguli, K. (2007). Prevalence of enterotoxigenic *Staphylococcus*  
309 *aureus* and *Shigella* species in some raw street food vended India food. *International Journal of*  
310 *Environmental Health Resources* 17: 151-156.  
311

312 Hague, T., Petrocozi, A., Andrews, P. L. R., Baker, J. and Noughton, D. P. (2008).  
313 Determination of metal ion content of beverages and estimation of target hazard quotient: a  
314 comparative study. *Chemistry Central Journal* 2:13.

315 Iwegbue, C. M. A. (2011). Concentrations of selected metals in candies and chocolates  
316 consumed in southern Nigeria. *Food Additives & Contaminants Part B*: 4(1): 22–27.

317 Jacobs, D. E., Clickner, R. P., Zhou, J. Y., Viet, S. M., Marker, D. A., Rogers, J. W., Zeldin, D.  
318 C. and Broene, P. (2002). The prevalence of lead-based paint hazards in U.S. housing.  
319 *Environmental Health Perspectives* 110 (10): A599–606.

320 Jarap, L. (2003). Hazards of heavy metal contamination. *British Medical Bulletin* 68: 167–182.

321 JEFCA, (2004). Evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants (Sixty-first report of the  
322 Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). *WHO Technical Report Series*, No.  
323 922, 2004.  
324

325 Jimoh, W.L.O and Mahmud I. M, (2012). Assessment of Cadmium and Lead in Soil and  
326 Tomatoes Grown in Irrigated Farmland of the Kaduna Metropolis Nigeria. *Research Journal of*  
327 *Environmental and Earth Sciences* 4(1): 55-59, 2012  
328

329 Jocelyn, O. & Naewbanji, N. (2005). Food Safety Overview in Thailand.  
330 <http://www.selamat.wur.nl/NR/rdonlyres/5978C7AB-1B03-442A-9D9A-DF72F->  
331

332 Mahakarnchanakul, W., Ontoun, W., Stonasaovapak, S., Pirapatrungsuriya, N., Choo-in, P. and  
333 Borisuit, T. (2010). Risk evaluation of popular ready-to-eat food sold in Bangkok. *Asian Journal*  
334 *of Food and Agro-Industry* 3(01): 75–81.

335 Marias, A. D. and Blackhurst, D. M. (2009). Do heavy metal counter the potential health benefits  
336 of wine? *Journal of Endocrinology, Metabolism and Diabetes of South Africa* (14)2: 77–79.  
337

338 Matthew, M. M., Henke, R. and Atwood, A. (2002). Effectiveness of commercial heavy Metal  
339 chelators with new insights for the future in chelate design. *Journal of Hazardous. Materials*  
340 92(2): 129 142  
341

342 Musa, O. I. and Akande, T. M. (2002). Effect of Health Education Intervention on food safety  
343 practice among food vendors in Illorin. *Sahel Medical Journal* 5: 120–124.

344 Navas-Acien, A., Guallar, E., Silbergeld, E. K. and Rothenberg, S. J. (2007). Lead Exposure and  
345 Cardiovascular Disease—A Systematic Review. *Environmental Health Perspectives* 115 (3):  
346 472–482.

347 Oladimeji, O., Idowu, M. and Idowu-Adebayo F. (2014). Effect of air pollution on  
348 concentrations of lead, cadmium and chromium in ready to eat foods in some major towns of  
349 South-Western Nigeria. *Journal of Biology, Agriculture and Healthcare* 4(22): 83-87  
350  
351

352 Radwan, M. A. and Salama, A. K. (2006). Market basket survey for some heavy metals in  
353 Egyptian fruits and vegetables. *Food and Chemical Toxicology* 44:1273–1278

354

355 Reem, T. H., Manal, K. E. and Hanady, M. M. (2012). Assessment of heavy metals (Cd, Pb and  
356 Zn) contents in livers of chicken available in the local markets of Basrah City, Iraq. *Basrah*  
357 *Journal of Veterinary Research* 11(1):

358

359 Sathawara, N. G., Parikh, D. J., and Agarwal, Y.K. (2004). Essential heavy metals in  
360 environmental samples from western India. *Bulletin of Environmental Contamination and*  
361 *Toxicology*. 7(3): 264-269.

362 Sharma, R. K., Agrawal, M. and Marshall, F. M. (2009). Heavy metals in vegetables collected  
363 from production and market sites of a tropical urban area of India. *Food and Chemical*  
364 *Toxicology* 47: 583–591.

365

366 Singh, K. B. and Tajena, S. K. (2010). Effect of long term excessive Zn supplementation on  
367 blood lipid profile and tissue mineral status in wistar Rat. *Journal of Experimental Science*  
368 1(3):4–9.

369 Srikanth, R., A.M. Rao, C.H.S. Kumar and A. Khanum, (2004). Lead, cadmium, nickel, and zinc  
370 contamination of ground water around Hussain Sagar Lake, Hyderabad, India. *Bulletin of*  
371 *Environmental Contamination and Toxicology* 50(1): 138-143.

372

373 Suppin, D., Zahlbracker, R., Krapfenbauer-Coemak, G. H., Hassam-Hawer, C. H. and  
374 Smulders, F. J. M. (2005). Mercury, lead and cadmium content of fresh and canned fish collected  
375 from Austrian retail operation. *Ernahrung/Nutrition* 29(11): 456–460.

376 Tambekar, D., Jaiswal, V., Dhanorkar, D., Gulhane, P., and Dudhane, M. (2008). Identification  
377 of microbiological hazards and safety of ready-to-eat food vended streets of Amravati City,  
378 India. *Journal of Applied Biosciences*. (7): 195 -201.

379

380 Thirulogachandar, M. E, Rajeswari, M. and Ramya, S. (2014). Assessment of heavy metals in  
381 *Gallus* and their impacts on Humans. *International Journal of Scientific and Research*  
382 *Publications* 4(6): 1- 8

383

384 Udiba, U. U., Gauje B., Ashade, N. O., Ade-Ajayi, F.A., Okezie, V. C., Aji, B. M. and Agboun,  
385 T. D. T. (2014). An assessment of the heavy metal status of River Galma around Dakace  
386 industrial layout, Zaria, Nigeria. *Merit Research Journal of Environmental Science and*  
387 *Toxicology* 2(8): 176-184

388

389

390 WHO, (2011). World Health Organisation: World Health statistics report.  
391 <http://www.who.int/whosis/whostat/2011/en/>

392

393 WHO, (2004). Evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants. Sixty-first report of the  
394 Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives, WHO Technical Report Series 922.  
395 Geneva: World Health Organization

396  
397 Zheng, N., Wang, Q. and Zheng, D. (2007a). Health risk of Hg, Pb, Cd, Zn, and Cu to the  
398 inhabitants around Huludao Zinc Plant in China via consumption of vegetables. *Science of the*  
399 *Total Environment* 383: 81-89.

400  
401 Zheng, N., Wang, Q., Zhang, X., Zheng, D., Zhang, Z. and Zhang, S., (2007b). Population health  
402 risks due to dietary intake of heavy metals in the industrial area of Huludao city, China. *Science*  
403 *of the Total Environment* 387: 96-104.

404

405

406

407

408

409

UNDER PEER REVIEW