

Analytical, Nutritional and Clinical Methods

Quantification of cadmium and lead in offal by SF-ICP-MS: Method development and uncertainty estimate

Giovanni Forte*, Beatrice Bocca

Istituto Superiore di Sanità, Viale Regina Elena 299, 00161 Rome, Italy

Received 16 June 2006; received in revised form 12 March 2007; accepted 13 March 2007

Abstract

Offal of bovine, ovine and porcine are able to accumulate potentially toxic heavy metals, such as Cd and Pb, posing a risk for human health. For this reason, the Commission Regulation no. 466/2001 provided the maximum admitted levels for these metals in this kind of matrix (Cd, 500 ng g⁻¹ in all kinds of offal; Pb, 500 ng g⁻¹ in liver and 1000 ng g⁻¹ in kidney). A method based on sector field inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry for Cd and Pb quantification in calf liver was developed and further applied to offal of different animals. The uncertainty of measurements was calculated according to the Eurachem/Citac Guide. The method LoDs and LoQs were 3.5 and 11 ng g⁻¹ for Cd, and 2.0 and 6.0 ng g⁻¹ for Pb. The repeatability and the intra-laboratory reproducibility showed relative standard deviations equal to 2.25% and 1.99% for Cd and 1.49% and 6.55% for Pb. Relative expanded uncertainties at the mean value in calf liver were 4.74% for Cd and 13.8% for Pb. In Italian offal the following concentration intervals were found (in ng g⁻¹): (i) Cd: calf, from <3.5 in spleen and lung to 96.4 in kidney; lamb, <3.5 in all offal; pig, 114 in liver and (ii) Pb: calf, from 4.03 in lung to 31.8 in liver; lamb, from 4.71 in heart to 279 in liver; pig, 9.19 in liver.

© 2007 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Keywords: Cadmium; Lead; Offal; Sector field inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (SF-ICP-MS); Measurement uncertainty

1. Introduction

Industrial and agricultural processes have been largely responsible for environmental pollution with toxic metals such as cadmium (Cd) and lead (Pb). Cadmium is mainly used in smelting, refineries of ores, batteries, and it was found, as an impurity, in fertilizers with rising concern for human and animal health. It mainly accumulates in kidney leading to proteinuria with severe damage for this organ. A massive Cd exposure can cause problems at bones because of the reduced activity of the vitamin D and the consequent failure in the Ca absorption as well as at neurological level because of its capability to replace Zn as metallo-enzyme (FAO/WHO, no. 46, 2001). With reference

to Pb, beside its use as additive in motor fuels, it is utilized in iron and steel production, copper smelting, water pipes, bullets, etc. with significant releases in the environment. The human toxicity of Pb is largely proved, in fact, it is able to bind the SH-group of the proteins making enzymes inactive or replace other ions in metabolic functions with adverse effects on heme biosynthesis, kidney, nervous and cardiovascular systems (FAO/WHO, no. 44, 2000).

Offal of animals, such as liver and kidney, accumulates Cd and Pb at concentration higher than in muscle and than in most other food. Different authors found incremented Cd and Pb levels in kidney and liver of animals grazing in industrial areas (Abou-Arab, 2001; Miranda, López-Alonso, Castillo, Hernández, & Benedito, 2005; Sedki, Lekouch, Gamon, & Pineau, 2003). This augmented level was ascribed to either pollution of soil and plant by wastewater or by deposition of particles emitted from fumes and

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +39 0649902011.

E-mail address: gforte@iss.it (G. Forte).

blown by the wind. For this reason, consumers of offal containing high level of Cd and Pb were exposed to not negligible health risks. In this view, the Commission Regulation (CR) no. 466/2001 of March 8, 2001 (EC, 2001), provided the maximum admitted level (MAL) of the two elements in edible offal. In particular, a MAL of 0.5 mg/kg for Cd in offal of bovine, porcine, ovine and poultry, and of 0.5 mg/kg in liver and 1.0 mg/kg in kidney for Pb in the same categories of animals have been established. Although metal concentrations in offal of cattle have been measured in a variety of Countries (Coleman, Elder, Basu, & Koppenal, 1992; Jorhem, Slorach, Sundström, & Ohlin, 1991; López-Alonso et al., 2000; Niemi, Venäläinen, Hirvi, Hirn, & Karppanen, 1991; Salisbury, Chan, & Saschenbrecker, 1991), there are very few data for offal of animals farmed in Italy (Amodio-Cocchieri & Fiore, 1987). The previously cited works used atomic absorption spectrometry (AAS) as the quantification technique, only one study utilized differential pulse anodic stripping voltammetry (DPASV). In this study, the sector field inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (SF-ICP-MS), with its high sensitivity, large dynamic range, multielementarity, high sample throughput per day, was investigated for the purpose. Nevertheless, the adoption of important instrumentation became useful only when the produced data are associated to a high degree of quality. In this context, current recommendations (ISO 17025, 1999) underline the importance of planning a method validation procedure and identifying all the sources of uncertainties arising from the entire analytical procedure. The association of the results with their uncertainty allows the correct comparison of analytical data between different laboratories and the assessment of the method suitability for its intended purpose. Some texts well define the scaffold of the validation process, limits of detection and quantification, sensitivity, linearity, repeatability, reproducibility, trueness, robustness and uncertainties of measurements (AOAC, 1989; Eurachem, 1998; ISO 5725, 2004). The Eurachem/Citac (2000) guide provides examples on how identifying uncertainty sources and combining the relevant uncertainty contributions. Recently, the ISO/TS 21748 guide (2003) suggests to use experimental data from precision and trueness or recovery studies in the calculation of uncertainty. The application to real samples is the step next to the validation with the aim to give evidence that the developed method can be used in the laboratory for a certain amount of time without losing the adequate analytical performances.

In light of this, a method based on microwave (MW)-assisted acid digestion and SF-ICP-MS for Cd and Pb in offal was developed and the analytical performances were used to estimate the expanded uncertainties, following the recommendations given by the above mentioned guides. The method was then applied to different kinds of edible bovine, ovine and porcine offal. The obtained results were also discussed in order to contribute to the assessment of Cd and Pb contamination in offal available on the Italian market.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Sample collection and preparation

The method was developed on calf liver. The same material was used for the quality control study. The method was applied on eight different varieties of offal, namely, spleen, lung and kidney of calf; kidney of pig; liver, lung, kidney and heart of lamb. All the specimens were purchased in different supermarkets in Rome. All the animals were of Italian farms and not over 1-year of age. Visible fat and connective tissue were removed and samples were homogenized in a turbo homogenizer HMHF (PBI International, Milan, Italy) and kept at -20°C until the analysis.

Prior their digestion, samples were allowed to reach the room temperature and further sub-sampled. Calf liver was digested by MW-assisted acidic digestion in MW oven (MLS-1200, FKV, Sorisole, Bergamo, Italy). Aliquots of approximately 2 g were transferred into Teflon vessels and added with 6 ml of a 5:1 (v/v) mixture of *Suprapure* 67% HNO_3 (ROMIL, Cambridge, UK) and *Suprapur* 30% H_2O_2 (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany). The MW irradiation programme consisted of four steps as follows: 10 min at 250 W, 5 min at 400 W, 5 min at 500 W and 5 min at 600 W. After cooling at room temperature, the digested sample solutions were quantitatively transferred into disposable flasks and diluted to ca. 17 g with high purity deionized water (EASY Pure system, Barnstead, Dubuque, USA). The final weight was corrected for the density of the digested solutions in order to take into account for their acidity. Procedural blanks, the Certified Reference Material (CRM) 185R Bovine Liver and the other kinds of offal, were prepared following the same procedure. The resulting digested solutions were stored at $+4^{\circ}\text{C}$ until analyses. Calibrants and standards were daily prepared from single element stock solutions of Cd, In, Mo, Pb and Rh at $1000\ \mu\text{g}\ \text{ml}^{-1}$ (Spex Industries, Edison, USA) by dilution with water. To avoid contamination, all sample manipulation took place in a Class-100 Clean room (TAMCO, Milan, Italy).

2.2. Sample analyses

Digested samples were diluted 1 + 3 (v/v) with water before quantification. The SF-ICP-MS (Element, Thermo-Electron, Bremen, Germany) was characterised by double focusing reverse Nier–Johnson geometry and sampler and skimmer cones in Ni alloy. The instrument was equipped with a Meinhard nebulizer, a water cooled spray chamber (Scott-type) and a Guard Electrode device. The critical instrumental parameters, such as argon flow rates, torch position, lenses and radio frequency (RF) power were daily optimized so as to reach a signal for $1\ \mu\text{g}\ \text{l}^{-1}$ of ^{115}In of $>900,000$ counts per second (cps), established as acceptance limit. Also the oxides formation was daily minimized on the BaO^+/Ba^+ ratio, usually maintained below 0.002. The final instrumental settings were as follows: RF generator, 1250 kW; plasma flow rate, $15\ \text{l}\ \text{min}^{-1}$; auxiliary and

sample gas flows ranged 0.8–1.0 l min⁻¹; sample flow rate, ca. 1.0 ml min⁻¹; temperature of the spray chamber, ca. 10 °C. The analytical masses ¹¹⁴Cd, ¹¹⁵In, ²⁰⁸Pb were selected, and the Low Resolution (LR) mode ($m/\Delta m = 300$) was used to work at the maximum of instrumental sensitivity. The species ⁹⁸Mo¹⁶O and ¹¹⁴Sn were checked as potential interferences on the mass 114 but their contribution to the actual Cd signal (i.e., 0.2% of MoO and 0.4% of Sn) resulted to be negligible. The standard addition calibration approach was chosen so as to overcome matrix effects in SF-ICP-MS analysis. The internal standardization (IS, In at the concentration of 1 ng ml⁻¹ in calibrants and samples) was applied to compensate for any random fluctuations of the signals. The intra-run signal stability was controlled by measuring a check sample (calf liver spiked with 1 ng ml⁻¹ of Cd and Pb) and a maximum fluctuation of ±10% was accepted. Blanks were included in the analytical sequence to check for any signal contributions due to chemicals and ancillary equipments.

2.3. Analytical figures of merit

Calibrations curves on calf liver were constructed on at least five concentration levels and squared correlation coefficients (R^2) > 0.9990 were considered as acceptable. The *instrumental* Limit of Detection (LoD) was calculated as the concentration associated with 3.3-times the standard deviation (SD) of the background noise recorded on 10 independent measurements of the procedural blanks. The *method* LoD was analogously calculated, but with the real matrix. The *instrumental* and *method* Limits of Quantification (LoQs) were expressed as 10-times the SD on 10 replicated measurements of blanks or matrices, respectively. The sensitivity was evaluated on the basis of the slope of the calibration curve and expressed in cps for 0.25 ng ml⁻¹ of Cd and Pb. The method linearity was measured on 11 different concentrations spanning the range 0.125–32 ng ml⁻¹ for Cd and Pb and the R^2 was used as indicator of the linear relationship between signal and concentration. The trueness (%) is the difference between the certified and the found values divided for the certified one. Trueness was checked throughout the use of the CRM 185R Bovine Liver (IRMM, Geel, Belgium) where Cd and Pb have certified values of 544 ± 17 ng g⁻¹ and 172 ± 9 ng g⁻¹, respectively, and it was calculated digesting three aliquots of the CRM on six different days for a total of 18 independent measurements. The repeatability was expressed as the relative (R)SD for a total of 21 independent samples analysed by the single analyst on three different days. The intra-laboratory reproducibility was the RSD of 21 independent samples analyzed on 3 days by changing the analyst, the instrumentation (second generation of the same technique, i.e. Element2), the pipettes and the batches of the stock standard solutions. The robustness of the method is the capability of tolerating small changes in parameters without affecting the analytical signal. To assess this characteristic, two series (seven independent samples each) of data,

one acquired with the original method and the other under slightly different instrumental working conditions, were compared. The variations to the method were: HNO₃ 65% of *Suprapur* grade from Merck, Darmstadt, Germany, sample flow rate of ca. 1.3 ml min⁻¹, Rh as the IS at the concentration of 1 ng ml⁻¹, spray chamber kept at room temperature. Results obtained were compared with the *t*-test on means and a *p* value of <0.05 was considered as significant.

2.4. Calculation of measurement uncertainty

In accordance to the recommendations from the *Eurachem/Citac Guide* (2000) and the *ISO/TS 21748* (2003), the analytical figures obtained in this study were used to estimate the expanded uncertainties for Cd and Pb in offal by SF-ICP-MS. Since the applied procedure was the same for both calf liver and other offal samples, it was assumed that all the uncertainty sources were covered by the analysis of calf liver. In particular, the following sources of uncertainty were identified in the developed analytical protocol: the balance when weighting raw mass of liver and diluting the digested samples; the pipettes when preparing calibrants and standards; the purity of the stock standard solutions; the linearity of calibration; the reproducibility and the CRM measurements. On these bases, the single contributors to the overall uncertainty were: (1) the relative uncertainty of the balance (u_b) declared by the manufacturer and taken as a rectangular distribution, i.e. $u_b = \frac{RSD}{\sqrt{3}}$; it was accounted for twice, for each weighing (when weighing the raw mass and when diluting up to ca. 17 g); (2) the relative uncertainty of the stock standard solutions (u_{std}) given in the supplier's certificate and approximated to a rectangular distribution, i.e., $u_{std} = \frac{RSD}{\sqrt{3}}$; (3) the relative uncertainty of the reproducibility (u_{rep}) calculated as the RSD of the intra-laboratory reproducibility measurements; (4) the relative uncertainty of the CRM (u_{crm}) based on the triangular distribution, calculated as $u_{crm} = \frac{RSD}{\sqrt{6}}$. As regards the uncertainty on the pipettes, it can be neglected because during the reproducibility study different pipettes have been used. Also the uncertainty related to the calibration curve is not an additive source of uncertainty but it is included in the reproducibility factor. Thus, the relative combined uncertainty (u_{comb}) was calculated as the square sum of all the relative standard uncertainties following the equation: $u_{comb} = \sqrt{u_b^2 + u_{std}^2 + u_{rep}^2 + u_{crm}^2}$. Finally, the relative expanded uncertainty U was calculated by multiplying the u_{comb} with a coverage factor of 2 which gives an interval containing approximately 95% of the distribution of values.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Method performances

In Table 1 the obtained data are reported in terms of instrumental and method LoD and LoQ, linearity range,

Table 1
Validation data

| Parameters | Unit | Cd | Pb |
|---|----------------------------------|--------------|--------------|
| Instrumental LoD | ng ml ⁻¹ | 0.005 | 0.06 |
| Instrumental LoQ | ng ml ⁻¹ | 0.015 | 0.18 |
| Method LoD | ng g ⁻¹ | 3.50 | 2.00 |
| Method LoQ | ng g ⁻¹ | 10.8 | 6.00 |
| Linearity range | ng ml ⁻¹ | 0.125– 32 | 0.125– 32 |
| Sensitivity | cps/ 0.25 ng ml ⁻¹ | 26,253 | 166,752 |
| Trueness (<i>n</i> = 18) | % | 1.34 | 5.65 |
| Repeatability (RSD) (<i>n</i> = 21) | % | 2.25 | 1.49 |
| Intra-laboratory reproducibility (RSD) (<i>n</i> = 21) | % | 1.99 | 6.55 |

sensitivity, recovery, repeatability and intra-laboratory reproducibility. The LoDs and LoQs are expressed in ng of each element per ml of final diluted digested sample solution and per g of sample weight. The procedure reached adequate detection power to quantify the elements under study, because the *method* LoDs for both elements were about five-times lower than the concentration found in real samples. The LoD here obtained for Cd in matrix was comparable with that reported for DPASV and Zeeman electrothermal atomisation (Z-ETA)-AAS (López-Alonso et al., 2000; Niemi et al., 1991; Vos, Hovens, & van Delft, 1987) and better of that obtained by Salisbury et al. (1991) with the graphite furnace (GF)-AAS technique, i.e., 10 ng g⁻¹. For Pb, the LoD here found on calf liver was from 5- to 20-times lower than that reported in literature for DPASV (Vos et al., 1987), ZETA-AAS (López-Alonso et al., 2000; Niemi et al., 1991) and GF-AAS (Salisbury et al., 1991) techniques.

In each day of analysis calibration curves gave R^2 higher than to 0.9992 for both elements, linearity was of two orders of magnitude with R^2 equal to 0.9996 for Cd and to 0.9997 Pb over the tested concentration range. As concern the trueness study, the recovery was quantitative for both elements. In addition, the method showed a negligible measurements dispersion under repeatability conditions, in fact, for both element it was about 2%. When varying factors such as the operator and the instrument (i.e., during reproducibility conditions) a slightly higher variance was observed only for Pb. The robustness was calculated after changing four instrumental parameters: two of them can interfere with the sample introduction in the plasma, one can influence the correction of instrumental drifts and the last can affect blank levels. Because the final data did not statistically differ from one to another operative condition ($p > 0.1$ for both elements), it can be concluded that the selected variations did not introduce any worsening of the method performances.

3.2. Quantification of the uncertainty components

Four contributions to the total uncertainty of the proposed method have been taken into account, i.e., balance,

Table 2
Relative standard uncertainty budget for Cd and Pb in offal

| Uncertainty components | Cd (%) | Pb (%) |
|------------------------|--------|--------|
| u_b | 0.43 | 0.43 |
| u_{std} | 0.12 | 0.12 |
| u_{rep} | 1.99 | 6.55 |
| u_{crm} | 1.27 | 2.14 |
| u_{comb} | 2.37 | 6.90 |
| U | 4.74 | 13.8 |

stock standard solutions, intra-laboratory reproducibility and CRM. The size of the contributions of the different relative standard uncertainties were calculated and reported in Table 2. The results showed that the uncertainties related to u_b and u_{std} were small when compared with the others that it is clearly safe to neglect their role in the u_{comb} . For Cd, u_{rep} and u_{crm} contributed for the 50% each to the combined uncertainty, while in the case of Pb, the u_{rep} had the largest part in the uncertainty, being the 75% of the u_{comb} . As a conclusion, the u_{comb} of the described method was obtained by summing only u_{rep} and u_{crm} . Applying the coverage factor of 2, the U were 4.74% for Cd and 13.8% for Pb at the mean concentrations found in real samples.

3.3. Levels of Cd and Pb in offal

Different types of offal (liver, kidney, spleen, lung and hearth) in calf, pig and lamb were analyzed for Cd and Pb content using the method here developed. The levels found in calf, pig and lamb were reported in Tables 3–5, respectively. Due to the limited number of published papers in this field, values obtained in cattle and sheep were also used for comparison throughout the text. However, this comparison can be limited by the age of animals, which is not often reported precisely, since it is well-known that metals accumulate in organs according to the age.

As regards Cd in calf (see Table 3), it was found at higher concentration in kidney, at moderate level in liver, while fairly absent in spleen and lung. Data on calf liver appeared to be rather similar to those of other Countries (Larsen et al., 2002; Miranda et al., 2005; Salisbury et al., 1991), except for two cases, in USA and Spain, where the concentration was about three-times higher and seven-times lower, respectively (Coleman et al., 1992; López-Alonso et al., 2000). With reference to kidney, levels in calf from Spain were comparable to those here obtained, whereas other studies reported higher concentrations (Coleman et al., 1992; Larsen et al., 2002; Salisbury et al., 1991). The ratio of 2:1 between Cd in kidney and in liver observed in this study was also found by Coleman et al. (1992), while other authors reported kidney levels increased of ca. seven-fold respect to liver (López-Alonso et al., 2000; Salisbury et al., 1991). Cadmium concentration ranges in cattle liver, i.e., 56–120 ng g⁻¹ (Abou-Arab, 2001; Amodio-Cocchieri et al., 1987; Doganoc, 1996; Falandysz,

Table 3
Mean concentration (in ng g⁻¹, w/w) of Cd and Pb in offal of calf compared with literature data

| | Cd | Pb | Country | References |
|--------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------|----------------------------|
| Liver | 58.2 ± 1.8 | 31.8 ± 1.2 | Italy | This work |
| | 40 ± 60 | 100 ± 140 | Canada | Salisbury et al. (1991) |
| | 190 ± 160 | 840 ± 300 | USA | Coleman et al. (1992) |
| | 7.78 ^a (<LoD–7990) | 33.0 ^a (<LoD–446) | Spain | López-Alonso et al. (2000) |
| | 42 (7–188) | 17 (<16–75) | Denmark | Larsen et al. (2002) |
| | 22.9 ^a (6.43–221) | 20.7 ^a (<LoD–174) | Spain | Miranda et al. (2005) |
| Kidney | 96.4 ± 4.5 | 22.9 ± 1.3 | Italy | This work |
| | 260 ± 470 | 150 ± 180 | Canada | Salisbury et al. (1991) |
| | 360 ± 760 | 870 ± 430 | USA | Coleman et al. (1992) |
| | 54.3 ^a (2.43–1302) | 38.9 ^a (<LoD–1152) | Spain | López-Alonso et al. (2000) |
| | 198 (32–774) | 53 (<16–102) | Denmark | Larsen et al. (2002) |
| | 96.4 ^a (4.20–454) | 15.9 ^a (<LoD–118) | Spain | Miranda et al. (2005) |
| Spleen | <3.5 | 4.26 ± 0.68 | Italy | This work |
| Lung | <3.5 | 4.03 ± 0.58 | Italy | This work |

Range in brackets.

^a Geometric mean.

Table 4
Mean concentration (in ng g⁻¹, w/w) of Cd and Pb in offal of pig compared with literature data

| | Cd | Pb | Country | References |
|-------|-------------|--------------|----------|-----------------------------------|
| Liver | 114 ± 9 | 9.19 ± 0.43 | Italy | This work |
| | 199 ± 122 | 357 ± 131 | Italy | Amodio-Cocchieri and Fiore (1987) |
| | 28 ± 17 | 38 ± 21 | Finland | Niemi et al. (1991) |
| | 19 ± 10 | 19 ± 24 | Sweden | Jorhem et al. (1991) |
| | 90 ± 60 | 70 ± 60 | Canada | Salisbury et al. (1991) |
| | 210 ± 140 | 700 ± 170 | USA | Coleman et al. (1992) |
| | 90 ± 60 | 60 ± 50 | Slovenia | Doganoc (1996) |
| | 42 (17–231) | <16 (<16–25) | Denmark | Larsen et al. (2002) |

Range in brackets.

1993; Jorhem et al., 1991; Niemi et al., 1991; Vos et al., 1987) overlapped those found in calf, while ranges for cattle kidney moved to higher levels, i.e., 220–610 ng g⁻¹ (Abou-Arab, 2001; Amodio-Cocchieri et al., 1987; Doganoc, 1996; Falandysz, 1993; Jorhem et al., 1991; Niemi et al., 1991; Vos et al., 1987), thus suggesting that Cd accumulates in kidney depending on the age of animal. As in the case of calf, in cattle Cd was higher in kidney than in liver. Despite our data suggested the absence of Cd in spleen and lung, relatively high levels, i.e., 90 ng g⁻¹, were found in cattle spleen farmed in Egypt (Abou-Arab, 2001) and in cattle lung from Eastern Europe, i.e., 20–330 ng g⁻¹, depending on the site (Farmer & Farmer, 2000). In pigs (see Table 4), Cd value in liver well matched with the one reported in another Italian study; among the other Countries, the lowest data were obtained in the northern part of Europe (Jorhem et al., 1991; Larsen et al., 2002; Niemi et al., 1991). In the case of lamb (see Table 5), Cd was below the LoD for all the offal samples. Other investigations (Coleman et al., 1992; Jorhem, 1999; Karavoltzos, Sakellari, Dimopoulos, Dasenakis, & Scoullas, 2002; Reykdal & Thorlacius, 2001) quantified this element at the level of tenth of ng g⁻¹ in both liver and kidney. In Italian lambs, Cd values up to 1 µg g⁻¹ were detected in kidney

(Amodio-Cocchieri et al., 1987). This last author traced back the high values to the use of local forages for feeding animals containing a high Cd content. Both sheep and lamb accumulated Cd in liver (56–320 ng g⁻¹) at comparable levels (Abou-Arab, 2001; Falandysz, 1991; Vos, Lambers, & van Delft, 1988; Zantopoulos, Antoniou, & Nikolaidis, 1999). On the contrary, the kidney of sheep (250–1230 ng g⁻¹) (Falandysz, 1991; Jorhem, 1999; Vos et al., 1988; Zantopoulos et al., 1999) presented higher Cd concentration than in lamb. Differently from the results of this study, other authors obtained Cd values from 80 to 180 ng g⁻¹ in heart and lung of sheep (Abou-Arab, 2001; Farmer et al., 2000).

Lead was quantified in all the analyzed calf offal (see Table 3) ranging from 4.03 ng g⁻¹ in lung to 31.8 ng g⁻¹ in liver. Data in calf liver and kidney were close to each other and matched those reported in literature (Larsen et al., 2002; López-Alonso et al., 2000; Miranda et al., 2005; Salisbury et al., 1991), with the exception of Coleman et al. (1992), who found very high values in both organs. Another author (Abou-Arab, 2001) analysed spleen of bovine obtaining a value three-times higher than that found here. For cattle, the results on Pb were more or less similar to those in calves with equal accumulation

Table 5
Mean concentration (in ng g^{-1} , w/w) of Cd and Pb in offal of lamb compared with literature data

| | Cd | Pb | Country | References |
|--------|------------------------------|-------------|---------|-----------------------------------|
| Liver | <3.5 | 279 ± 11 | Italy | This work |
| | 219 ± 109 | 537 ± 219 | Italy | Amodio-Cocchieri and Fiore (1987) |
| | 140 ± 50 | 710 | USA | Coleman et al. (1992) |
| | 31 ± 53 | 31 ± 21 | Sweden | Jorhem (1999) |
| | 45 ± 37 | – | Iceland | Reykdal and Thorlacius (2001) |
| | 16.3 ± 1.0 | – | Greece | Karavoltzos et al. (2002) |
| Kidney | <3.5 | 172 ± 10 | Italy | This work |
| | 1035 ± 1005 | 696 ± 361 | Italy | Amodio-Cocchieri and Fiore (1987) |
| | 180 ± 100 | 640 ± 90 | USA | Coleman et al. (1992) |
| | 120 ± 270 | 53 ± 38 | Sweden | Jorhem (1999) |
| | 58 ± 50 | – | Iceland | Reykdal and Thorlacius (2001) |
| | 22.2 (medulla); 8.9 (cortex) | – | Greece | Karavoltzos et al. (2002) |
| Lung | <3.5 | 72.2 ± 2.7 | Italy | This work |
| Heart | <3.5 | 4.71 ± 0.14 | Italy | This work |

in liver and kidney (Abou-Arab, 2001; Doganoc, 1996; Falandysz, 1993; Jorhem et al., 1991; Niemi et al., 1991; Vos et al., 1987). In Italian beef, Pb values were higher in both organs (Amodio-Cocchieri et al., 1987). In this context, the data obtained in the last two decades for Pb in calf or cattle showed a decrease in the element concentration in both liver and kidney (see Fig. 1). In particular, in Italy, from 1987 to 2006 Pb values have been lowered 12-times, while, from 2000 till now, data were rather homogeneous. The decrement might be traced back in the restriction of the use of this metal in fuel (Miranda et al., 2005) or in the improvement of the analytical quality control system (Jorhem, 1999). In pigs (see Table 4), a very low Pb value, comparable with the data obtained in Denmark and Sweden (Jorhem, 1991; Larsen et al., 2002),

was found in liver. In Italy and USA values in pigs were much higher (Amodio-Cocchieri et al., 1987; Coleman et al., 1992). When offal of lamb was considered, as reported in Table 5, Pb accumulated in liver and kidney more than in lung and heart. Once more, the works of Amodio-Cocchieri et al. (1987) and Coleman et al. (1992) found a higher Pb content in both organs. Considering data for liver and kidney of sheep, Vos et al. (1988) and Zantopoulos et al. (1999) supplied much higher concentrations (with a maximum of 960 ng g^{-1} for both organs) than those here reported for lamb, whereas Falandysz (1993) and Abou-Arab (2001) found similar data. In addition, Pb level in heart and lung given by literature was higher than the level found in this work (Abou-Arab, 2001; Farmer et al., 2000).

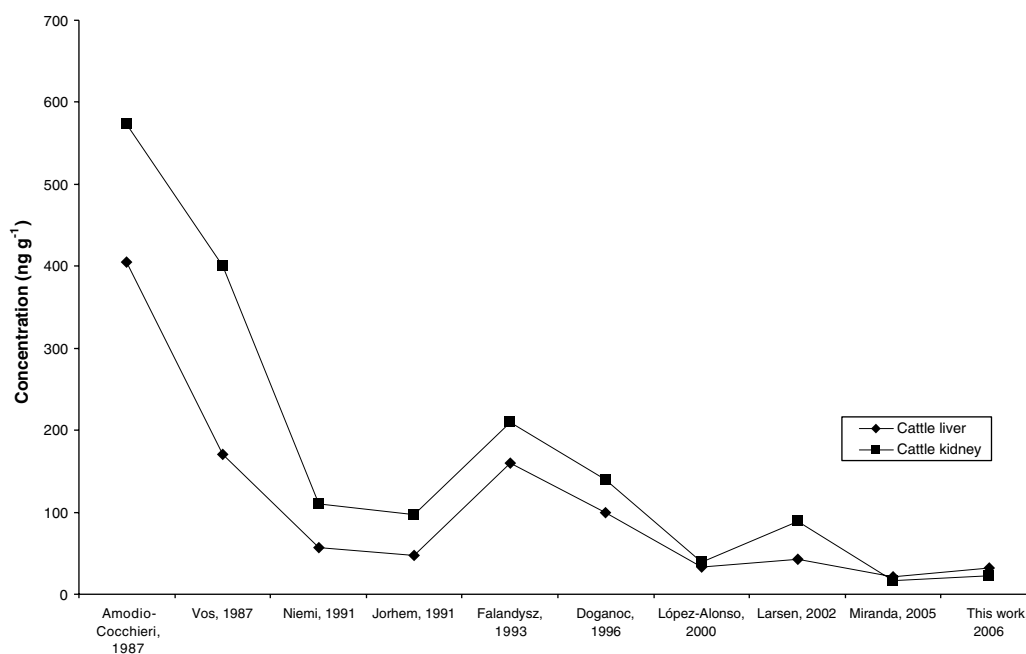


Fig. 1. Trend of Pb level in bovine kidney and liver over two decades.

In summary, results for Cd indicated that kidney and, to a lesser extent, liver are the critical organs for accumulation of this element. This result had been foreseen since the Cd elimination rate from these two organs is relatively low, partly due to the link with metallothioneins in these tissues. Cadmium levels in lung, spleen and heart were below the LoD in all the animals analyzed. Data of Cd in calves appeared to be lower than those in cattle reported in literature and this fact can be easily attributed to the young age of the animals. Lead appeared to accumulate with the same concentration in kidney and liver, while levels in lung, spleen and heart were lower. Moreover, the Pb concentration in offal of lamb was higher than the one in calf and pig. This could be due to the fact that lambs were more prone to Pb contamination due to their grazing outside, on the contrary, calves and pigs are fed indoors. In comparison with literature, Cd and Pb levels appeared to be amongst the lowest recorded in Europe, Canada and USA. In this frame, it has been reported that most of the Italian unpolluted cultivated soil are alkaline or sub-alkaline. This fact makes the Cd and Pb bio-availability from soil very low, limiting their absorption from plant used for forages (Ferraresi & Corticelli, 2002).

4. Conclusions

An analytical approach for the determination of Cd and Pb in offal samples by SF-ICP-MS, based on the evaluation of a number of method's parameters, is described. In addition, the data were then used for the uncertainty assessment. The total uncertainty of the method was composed mainly from the contribution of the intra-laboratory reproducibility, while some sources of uncertainty were neglected. Values obtained for Cd and Pb in offal from different animals were below the maximum admitted level for these elements in edible offal and well matched with those present in literature. These results are much in a preliminary phase and have to be confirmed by measurements of a larger number of offal samples.

References

- Abou-Arab, A. A. K. (2001). Heavy metals contents in Egyptian meat and the role of detergent washing of their levels. *Food and Chemical Toxicology*, 39, 593–599.
- Amodio-Cocchieri, R., & Fiore, P. (1987). Lead and cadmium concentrations in livestock bred in Campania, Italy. *Bulletin of Environmental and Contamination and Toxicology*, 39, 460–464.
- AOAC International (1989). Guidelines for collaborative study-procedures to validate characteristics of a method of analysis. *Journal of the Association of Official Analytical Chemists*, 72, 694–704.
- Coleman, M. E., Elder, R. S., Basu, P., & Koppenal, G. P. (1992). Trace metals of livestock and poultry. *Journal of the Association of Official Analytical Chemists International*, 75(4), 615–625.
- Doganoc, D. Z. (1996). Lead and cadmium concentrations in meat, liver and kidney of Slovenian cattle and pigs from 1989 to 1993. *Food Additives and Contaminants*, 13(2), 237–241.
- EC (2001). Commission Regulation no. 466 of 8 March 2001 setting maximum levels for certain contaminants in foodstuffs. *Official Journal of the European Communities*, L77, 1–13.
- Eurachem (1998). *The fitness for purpose of analytical methods. A laboratory guide to method validation and related topics*. UK: LGC Teddington Ltd., pp. 1–61.
- Eurahem/Citac Guide CG 4. (2000). In S. L. R. Ellison (LGC, UK), M. Rosslein (EMPA, Switzerland) & A. Williams (UK) (Eds.), *Quantifying uncertainty in analytical measurement (QUAM)* (2nd ed., pp. 1–120).
- FAO/WHO (2000). *Safety evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants. WHO food additive series* (Vol. 44). Geneva: World Health Organization.
- FAO/WHO (2001). *Safety evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants. WHO food additive series* (Vol. 46). Geneva: World Health Organization.
- Falandysz, J. (1991). Manganese, copper, zinc, iron, cadmium, mercury and lead in muscle meat, liver and kidney of poultry, rabbit and sheep slaughtered in the northern part of Poland, 1987. *Food Additives and Contaminants*, 8(1), 71–83.
- Falandysz, J. (1993). Some toxic and essential trace metals in cattle from the northern part of Poland. *The Science of the Total Environment*, 136, 177–191.
- Farmer, A. A., & Farmer, A. M. (2000). Concentrations of cadmium, lead and zinc in livestock feed and organs around a metal production centre in eastern Kazakhstan. *The Science of the Total Environment*, 257, 53–60.
- Ferraresi, A., & Corticelli, C. (2002). Cosa sono i metalli pesanti che si “nascondono” nel cibo. *Agricoltura*, 6, 17–19.
- International Standard Organization (1999). *ISO 17025:1999. General requirement for the competence of calibration and testing laboratories*. Geneva, Switzerland: ISO.
- International Standard Organization (2003). *ISO/DTS 21748. Guide to the use of repeatability, reproducibility and trueness estimates in measurements uncertainty estimation*. Geneva, Switzerland: ISO.
- International Standard Organization (2004). *ISO 5725:2004. Accuracy, trueness and precision of measurement methods and results*. Geneva, Switzerland: ISO.
- Jorhem, L., Slorach, S., Sundström, B., & Ohlin, B. (1991). Lead, cadmium, arsenic and mercury in meat, liver and kidney of Swedish pigs and cattle in 1984–1988. *Food Additives and Contaminants*, 8(2), 201–212.
- Jorhem, L. (1999). Lead and cadmium in tissues from horse, sheep, lamb and reindeer in Sweden. *Zeitschrift für Lebensmittel-Untersuchung und -Forschung*, 208, 106–109.
- Karavoltos, S., Sakellari, A., Dimopoulos, M., Dasenakis, M., & Scoullou, M. (2002). Cadmium content in foodstuffs from the Greek market. *Food Additives and Contaminants*, 19(10), 954–962.
- Larsen, E. H., Andersen, N. L., Møller, A., Petersen, A., Mortensen, G. K., & Petersen, J. (2002). Monitoring the content and intake of trace elements from food in Denmark. *Food Additives and Contaminants*, 19(1), 33–46.
- López-Alonso, M., Benedito, J. L., Miranda, M., Castillo, C., Hernández, J., & Shore, R. F. (2000). Arsenic, cadmium, lead, copper and zinc in cattle from Galicia, NW Spain. *The Science of the Total Environment*, 246, 237–248.
- Miranda, M., López-Alonso, M., Castillo, C., Hernández, J., & Benedito, J. L. (2005). Effects of moderate pollution on toxic and trace metal levels in calves from a polluted area of northern Spain. *Environmental Pollution*, 31, 543–548.
- Niemi, A., Venäläinen, E.-R., Hirvi, T., Hirn, J., & Karppanen, E. (1991). The lead, cadmium and mercury concentrations in muscle, liver and kidney from Finnish pigs and cattle during 1987–1988. *Zeitschrift für Lebensmittel-Untersuchung und -Forschung*, 192(4), 427–429.
- Reykjal, Ó., & Thorlacius, A. (2001). Cadmium, mercury, iron, copper, manganese and zinc in the liver and kidney of the Icelandic lamb. *Food Additives and Contaminants*, 18(11), 960–969.
- Salisbury, C. D., Chan, W., & Saschenbrecker, P. W. (1991). Multielement concentrations in liver and kidney tissues from five species of Canadian slaughter animals. *Journal of the Association of Official Analytical Chemists*, 74(4), 587–591.

- Sedki, A., Lekouch, N., Gamon, S., & Pineau, A. (2003). Toxic and essential trace metals in muscle, liver and kidney of bovines from a polluted area of Morocco. *The Science of the Total Environment*, 317, 201–205.
- Vos, G., Hovens, J. P. C., & van Delft, W. (1987). Arsenic, cadmium, lead and mercury in meat, livers and kidneys of cattle slaughtered in The Netherlands during 1980–1985. *Food Additives and Contaminants*, 4(1), 73–88.
- Vos, G., Lammers, H., & van Delft, W. (1988). Arsenic, cadmium, lead and mercury in meat, livers and kidneys of sheep slaughtered in The Netherlands. *Zeitschrift für Lebensmittel-Untersuchung und -Forschung*, 187, 1–7.
- Zantopoulos, N., Antonoiu, V., & Nikolaidis, E. (1999). Copper, zinc, cadmium and lead in sheep grazing in North Greece. *Bulletin of Environmental and Contamination Toxicology*, 62, 691–699.