

COMISION NACIONAL DEL MEDIO AMBIENTE
OFICINA DE PARTES Y ARCHIVO

1185.

Nº INGRESO

FECHA: 11 MAY 1999

DESPACHADO:

OBS.:

A IUNZOZ

REPUBLICA DE CHILE
MINISTERIO DE SALUD
DIVISION DE SALUD AMBIENTAL

CUBIERTA DE FAX / COVER PAGE

FECHA / DATE	11 de Mayo 1999
DE / FROM	Dr. Silvia Aguirre
FONO / PHONE	66 41119
FAX / FAX	66 47288
A / TO	Rosa, Rodriguez
INSTITUCION / INSTITUTION	CNA - Oficio de Planes y Organiz.
FONO / PHONE	
FAX / FAX	66 471262
Nº PAG / N° PAGES	
MENSAJE / MESSAGE	Dic. o informes Despachador según los procesos establecidos.

DIVISION DE SAI
Departamento de Desarrollo y Vigilancia

000303

EXPOSICION OCUPACIONAL

Según los procesos industriales:

- Extracción, Fundición, Refinación, Elaboración de artículos que lo contienen.

Según la actividad:

- Minería y fundición
- Industria: materia prima y subproductos. Alfarería(vidriado), Baterías, elementos de protección contra radiaciones, tuberías de plomo, imprentas, califont, municiones, cañerías.
- Mayor riesgo con PLOMO a altas temperaturas, humos y vapores

EXPOSICION GENERAL

Fundamentalmente de origen antropogénico.

- Actividades industriales, mineras y combustión de motores de gasolina que contienen aditivos de plomo.
- A través de todos los componentes ambientales: aire, agua, suelo y de diversas fuentes.

Formas de exposición:

a) Por vecindad a fuentes

- Áreas vecinas a las fuentes mineras o industriales debido a sus emisiones.
- El radio de riesgo depende de factores climáticos que puedan influir en la dispersión.

b) Por contacto con trabajadores expuestos

Transporte en la ropa de trabajo, viviendas vecinas al sitio de trabajo, alfareros.

DIVISION DE SAN
Departamento de Desarrollo y Vigilancia

c) Por inhalación de aire contaminado
En poblaciones urbanas: aditivo de plomo en la gasolina.
Vías congestionadas, intersecciones viales.

000304

d) Por ingestión de alimentos contaminados
El contenido de plomo depende de: tipo de alimento, tecnología de enlatado,
tipo de recipiente usado y la contaminación ambiental.

e) Por ingestión de agua potable contaminada
Dependiendo de la contaminación ambiental, instalaciones de distribución y
cañerías plomadas (agua blanda y ácida).

f) Ingestión de polvo o restos de pintura a base de plomo.

g) Por ambiente de carácter ocupacional familiar
Talleres de recuperación y reciclaje de Plomo.

Vías de exposición más importante

- Ocupacional : Inhalatoria
- General : Digestiva

POBLACIONES DE ALTO RIESGO

Grupo que por sus características tiene una mayor probabilidad de desarrollar una enfermedad o alguna condición anormal.

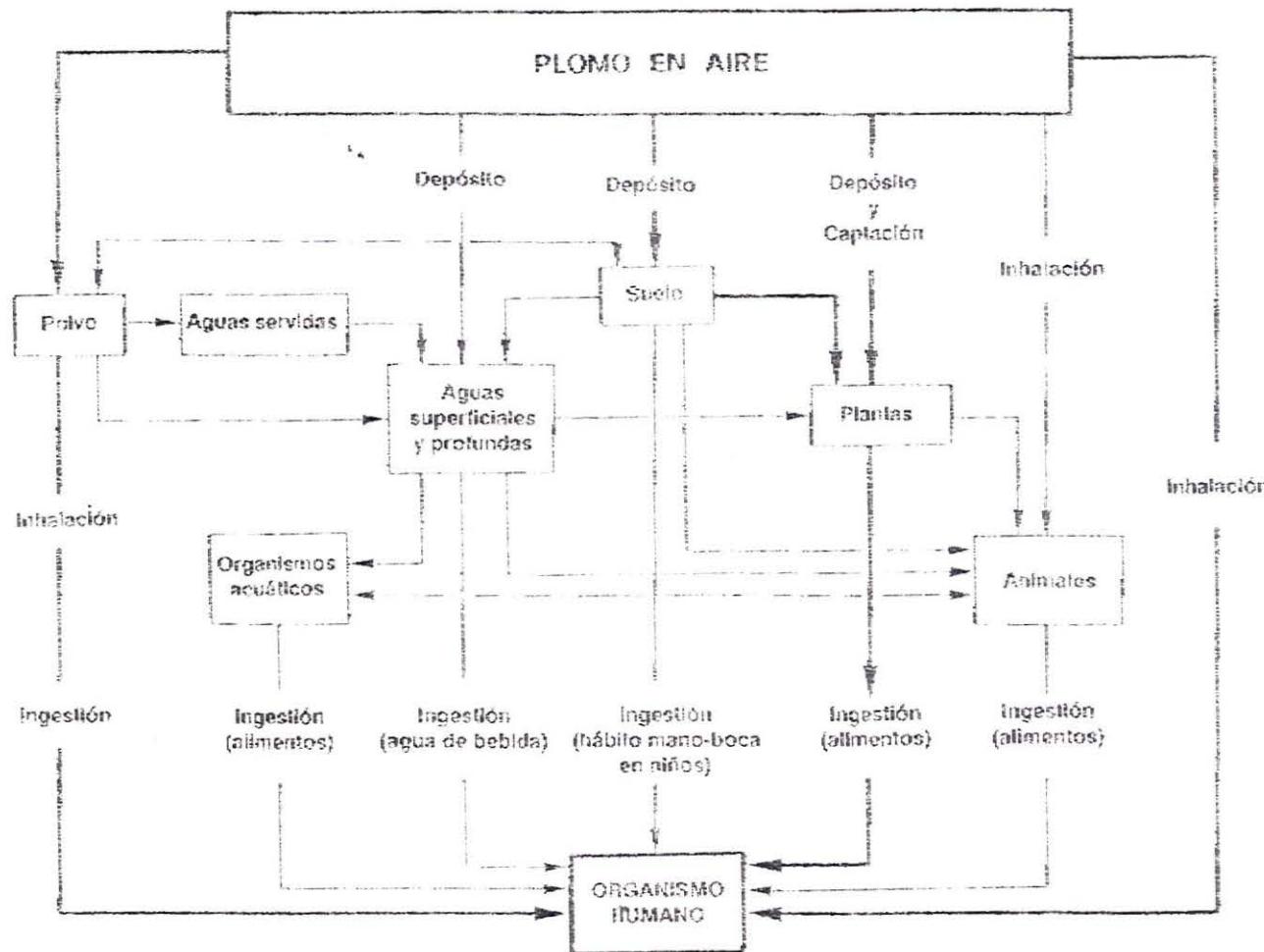
a) Mayor exposición: ocupacional(familia de los trabajadores): cercanía a fuentes mineras, industriales, parque vehicular.

b) Mayor vulnerabilidad: Hábitos, f. constitucionales, enfermedades subyacentes.

- Embarazadas, niños.
- Enfermedades a la sangre (anemia), neurológicos, deficiencias nutricionales.
- Alcohólicos, fumadores.

000305

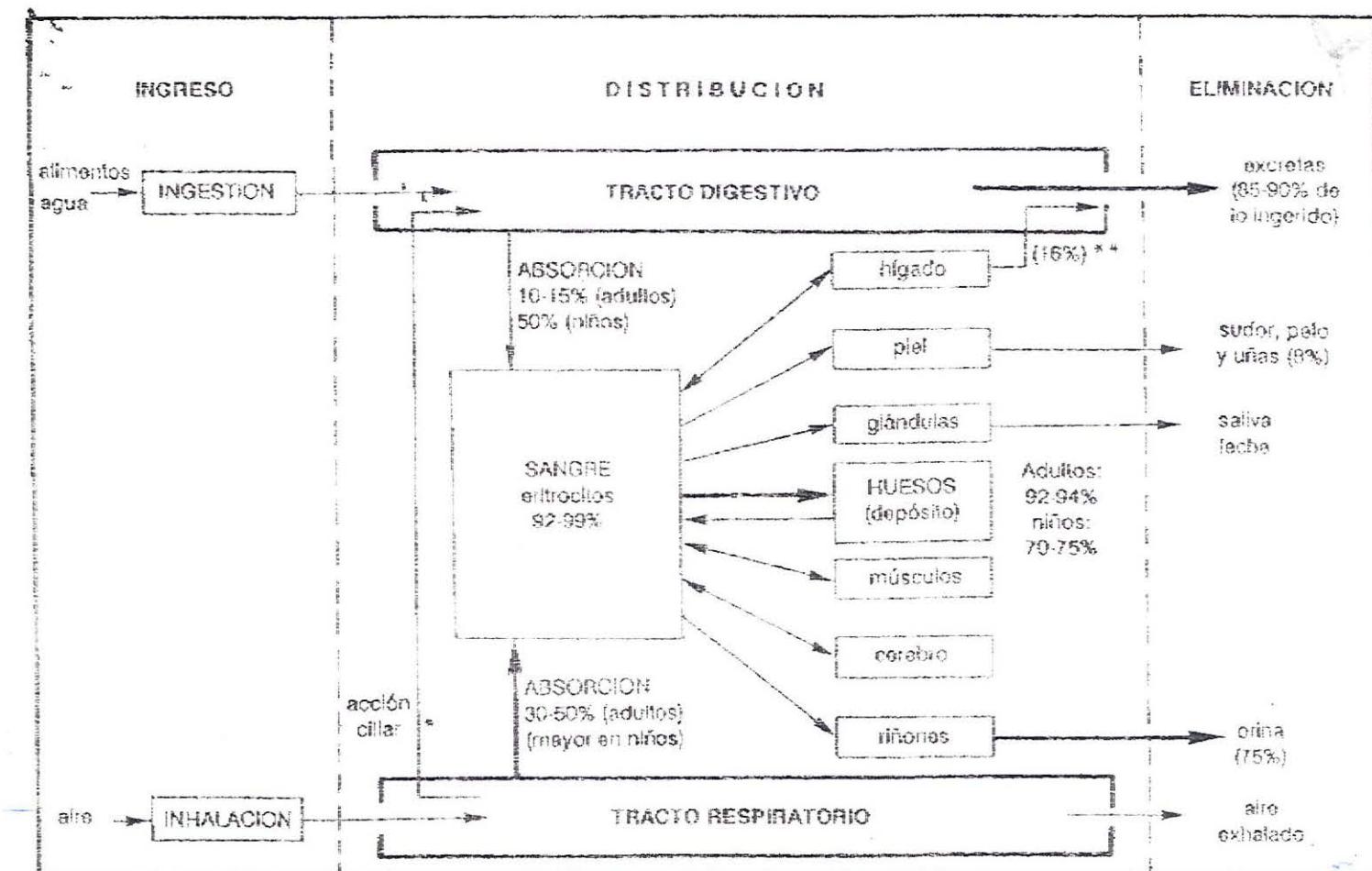
IMPORTANCIA DEL PLOMO ATMOSFERICO EN LA CONTAMINACION GLOBAL
DEL AMBIENTE Y EN EL APORTE DE PLOMO AL ORGANISMO HUMANO.



FUENTE: Adaptado de Publicación Científica No. 386 de OPS, Criterios de Salud Ambiental 3, Plomo, 1979.

000306

VIAS DE ABSORCION, DISTRIBUCION Y ELIMINACION DEL PLOMO EN EL ORGANISMO HUMANO



6

DIVISION DE SISTEMA

Departamento de Desarrollo y Vigilancia Epidemiologica

000307**EFFECTOS DEL PLOMO SOBRE LA SALUD**

- » **El PLOMO** es inhibidor de numerosas enzimas. efecto Sistémico.
- » Cuadro clínico de difícil diagnóstico: síntomas y signos inespecíficos y manifestaciones de instalación lenta; asociado al antecedente de exposición.
- » Población ocupacional: intoxicación aguda y crónica.
- » Población general: más frecuente intoxicación crónica.
- » Efecto depende: Vía de ingreso, dosis absorbida, susceptibilidad individual, tipo de exposición.

INTOXICACION CRONICA: "SATURNISMO"

Es la manifestación más frecuente y de mayor impacto Epidemiológico.

I. EFECTOS GENERALES

Decaimiento, fatiga, dolores articulares, tos, impotencia sexual, palidez y temblor.

II. SISTEMA HEMATOPOYETICO

1. Altera la síntesis del grupo HEMO, precursor de la hemoglobina e inhibe la síntesis de globina.

2. Alteración morfológica de los precursores y de la membrana de los hematíes.

Clinica: Anemia hipocromia, normocítica o microcítica. Mayor susceptibilidad en los niños.

000308

III. SISTEMA NERVIOSO

a) Sistema Nervioso Central

Encefalopatía Saturnina: los síntomas y signos van desde cambios psicológicos-conductuales hasta alteraciones neurológicas graves.

Los niños tienen la mayor susceptibilidad y frecuentemente quedan con secuelas de diversa magnitud.

Clínica: irritabilidad, vértigo, cefaleos, visión nublada, temblor, alusiones, pérdida de memoria y de capacidad de concentración. Delirios, manías, convulsiones, parálisis, coma.

Deterioro en el desarrollo psicomotor, retroceso en el control de esfínter y coordinación psicométriz.

b) Sistema Nervioso Periférico

Parálisis Saturnina: debilidad de los músculos extensores por daño en los nervios motores.

Clínica: Falta de fuerza en las manos, hiperestesia, analgesia, dolores musculares, calambres.

IV. SISTEMA URINARIO

Nefropatía Saturnina: fibrosis intersticial, atrofia glomerular, lesión tubular, degeneración hialina y ateroescleróticas de los vasos, aumenta la actividad de la Renina plasmática.

Clínica: La manifestación es bastante tardía y cursa con Insuficiencia Renal de Grado variable.

DIVISION DE S...

000309

Departamento de Desarrollo y Vigilancia Epidemiologica

III. SISTEMA CARDIOVASCULAR

Hipertensión Arterial: por acción directa sobre los vasos y/o sobre los riñones.

IV. SISTEMA REPRODUCTOR

Mujer: abortos, mortinatos, parto prematuro

Hombre: Astenoespermia, hipoespermia.

V. OTROS EFECTOS

1. Artralgias
2. Retardo en el crecimiento y menor estatura
3. Posibles efectos teratogénicos.
4. Deterioro de la función de la glándula Tiroides: disminuye la captación de Yodo.
5. Alteración de la función de las Suprarrenales.
6. Alteración del metabolismo de la Vitamina D.
7. Gastrointestinales: Cólico saturnino, precedido de estreñimiento. Dolor intenso abdominal, vómitos.

DRA. SRQ

000310

**PRINCIPALES EFECTOS ADVERSOS EN NIÑOS EN CONDICIONES DE EXPOSICIÓN
ESTABLE A LARGO PLAZO AL PLOMO, SEGUN LAS CONCENTRACIONES
SANGUINEAS ALCANZADAS POR EL METAL**

$\mu\text{g Pb}/100 \text{ ml}$ de sangre	Efecto adverso que puede aparecer a la concentración de plomo señalada
10	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - inhibición de la actividad de la enzima AAL-D - edad gestacional reducida (exposición prenatal) - bajo peso al nacer (exposición prenatal) - retraso en crecimiento
12	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - interferencia en el metabolismo de la vitamina D
15 - 20	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - elevación de proto-porfirinas en los riñones - alteraciones electrofisiológicas en el SNC
20	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - alteraciones conductuales, difícil en la atención
30	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - disminución en la conducción nerviosa periférica
40	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - aumento del AAL en suero y del AAL-U - aumento de las CP-U - reducción en la producción de hemoglobina - velocidad de conducción nerviosa periférica reducida - alteraciones en el aprendizaje - nefropatía (aminoaciduria) - síntomas gastrointestinales
50	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - disminución marcada del cuociente de inteligencia
70	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - anemia franca - nefropatía grave
80	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - encefalopatía - daño cerebral grave - retardo mental grave

000311

**PRINCIPALES EFECTOS ADVERSOS EN ADULTOS EN CONDICIONES DE
EXPOSICIÓN ESTABLE A LARGO PLAZO AL PLOMO, SEGUN LAS
CONCENTRACIONES SANGUINEAS ALCANZADAS POR EL METAL**

$\mu\text{g Pb}/100 \text{ ml de sangre}$	Efecto adverso que puede aparecer a la concentración de plomo señalada
10	- reducción de la actividad de la enzima ALG-D
15 - 20	- elevación de protohormonas eritrocitarias en mujeres
20 - 30	- elevación de protohormonas eritrocitarias en hombres
30	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - disminución en la conducción de nervios periféricos - resacueras - patofisiológicas alteraciones en el sistema nervioso central - elevación de la presión arterial en hombres mayores de 45 años - alteraciones cromosómicas?
40	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - aumento del AAL en suero y del AAL-U - aumento de las CP-U - marcado aumento de las citopatofisias e hidrocefalia - disfunción nerviosa periférica - alteración de función visual-motor (extrañamiento del globo ocular) - alteraciones psicofisiológicas (alegría, estados de ánimo, memoria, atención) - nefropatía - síntomas gastrointestinales - alteraciones espermáticas
50	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - disminución en la producción de hemoglobina - alteraciones morfológicas de los eritrocitos - parestesias en miembros superiores - debilidad en miembros inferiores - fatiga, cílice, distracción - suberostalopatía - alteración de la función testicular
60	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - acortamiento en la vía de nervios - aumento exponencial de protohormonas eritrocitarias - efectos reproductivos en la mujer - alteraciones patológicas del electromiograma
80	- anemia franca
100	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - encefalopatía grave - nefropatía crónica

- Se consulta respecto de la importancia relativa del ingreso de plomo al organismo vía ingesta y vía inhalación, a lo cual se responde que esa información estará en el tercer informe.
- Se solicita fotocopias de la presentación de la Dra. Ferreccio.



Andrea Muñoz
Dept. Descontaminación, Planes y Normas
CONAMA



RECTOR

UNIVERSIDAD CATOLICA DEL NORTE

000318

70 # 7234,
COMISION NACIONAL DEL MEDIO AMBIENTE
OFICINA DE ESTUDIOS Y DIFUSION
Nº INTERNO 5704 / 45.85
20 MAY 1999
FECHA.....
DESTINATARIO.....
G.D.
P. Matus
D/ 6210

RECT. U.C.N. Nº 077/99

MAT.: Antecedentes Norma de Calidad Primaria para Plomo en Aire.

REF.: ORD. Nº 991157 de CONAMA.

ANTOFAGASTA, mayo 17 de 1999.

Señora
Patricia Matus C.
Jefe Depto. Descontaminación, Planes y Normas
Comisión Nacional del Medio Ambiente
Obispo Donoso 6 - Providencia
Santiago

De mi consideración:

De acuerdo con su requerimiento de antecedentes relacionados con ORD. de Referencia, emitido el 08 de marzo de 1999, comunico a usted que nuestra Institución no posee información referida a los puntos 4, 5 y 6 de dicho documento.

Debido a que los estudios sobre Norma de Calidad Primaria de Plomo en el Aire han sido encargados, por CONAMA, a otras instituciones; la Universidad Católica del Norte no ha realizado aportes publicados sobre los temas citados.

Sin otro particular, saluda atentamente a usted,

JUAN ANDRÉS MUSIC TOMICIC
RECTOR

BASELINE STUDIES AND METAL CONTAMINATED SOILS

Estudios de líneas de base y suelos contaminados con metales

BRIAN E. DAVIES¹

CONTENT

ABSTRACT

INTRODUCTION

IMPORTANCE OF REPRESENTATIVE FIELD SAMPLING AND LABORATORY ANALYTICAL QUALITY CONTROL

STATISTICAL INTERPRETATION OF TRACE METAL DATA

CARTOGRAPHICAL INTERPRETATION OF DATA

CASE STUDIES

Example of the extraction of baseline values

Example of the use of multivariate statistics

**Example of patterns around a point source A smelter or refiner is a point
source of contamination**

Examples of patterns around multiple point sources

REFERENCES

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

¹ Environmental Geochemistry Research Unit, Department of Environmental Sciences, University of Bradford. Bradford, West Yorkshire, BD7 1DP England

ABSTRACT

This paper describes systematic approaches to interpreting results from surveys of metal contaminated soils. Since contaminating metals are present naturally in soil, anthropogenic accumulations are recognised through statistical analysis of the data. Distinctive spatial patterns may also be generated and these are evaluated using computergraphic techniques. Case studies are described briefly to support the general narrative.

INTRODUCTION

There are eighty four naturally occurring and detectable elements. Nearly all the mass (98%) of silicate rocks and soils is accounted for by only eight of them: O, Si, Al, Fe, Ca, Na, K and Mg. The remainder are the "trace elements", some of which are essential for plant growth and are also called micronutrients. If present in excess concentration both micronutrients and non-essential trace elements have undesirable or lethal effects on plant and animal growth. Some of these elements are now present in excess concentration in some soils as a consequence of man's industrial or urban activities. Much research has been carried out on the polluting 'heavy' metals, especially cadmium, copper, lead, mercury and zinc. The qualifier 'heavy' is not rigorously defined but most authors use it to describe metallic elements having a density greater than 6000 kg m^{-3} .

Whenever an element or its compounds are heated, dissolved or pulverised they become environmentally labile and may escape from the working environment. Having escaped, contaminants follow normal environmental pathways until they reach a geochemical sink, such as soil or sediment, and there accumulate. When the accumulation of a contaminant reaches a level at which biological injury is seen for a particular organism the contaminant becomes a pollutant. Thus, a distinction is made between contamination, anthropogenically induced accumulation above the local background level and pollution, biological injury resulting from contamination. Pollution is species-specific, e.g., excess zinc in soil can injure plant life but is relatively innocuous for animals.

There is no unequivocal way of recognizing when a soil has been contaminated or polluted by trace elements since all the naturally occurring elements are present in all soils, albeit at very low concentrations. The problem of recognizing whether contamination by metals has taken place becomes one of deciding whether the measured concentration of a particular element is within the range of what could occur naturally for that soil or whether the measured concentration is anomalous. If the anomaly is not of natural occurrence but is of anthropic origin it is a neoanomaly and the soil is contaminated. This paper is concerned with some techniques for establishing baseline concentrations in soil and recognizing anomalies and neoanomalies.

IMPORTANCE OF REPRESENTATIVE FIELD SAMPLING AND LABORATORY ANALYTICAL QUALITY CONTROL

In the environmental sciences research is often conducted by sampling, chemical analysis and data evaluation rather than by controlled experimentation in the laboratory. A carefully prepared sampling protocol will ensure that samples are representative. Known or suspected influences can be recorded and quantified. The final data represent the sample analysed, they do not necessarily represent the environment sampled. If the sampling was not representative or if the sample was contaminated after collection then the results are worse than worthless since they may be completely misleading and lead to quite unjustifiable conclusions or remediation policies.

A sample may be representative but the data derived from it may be neither precise nor accurate. In environmental surveys many hundreds of samples may be analysed and the work load may therefore preclude replication of every sample. It is essential to replicate (usually duplicate) some proportion (e.g. 20%) of the samples chosen at random. Every batch should include one or more samples of a certified reference material and samples selected for the batch should be drawn at random from the sample collection. The classical "garbage in, garbage out" pitfall of computer treatment of data can be avoided only by adhering to a strict and well prepared sampling protocol and by ensuring the best possible analytical quality assurance programme.

STATISTICAL INTERPRETATION OF TRACE METAL DATA

Typically, a survey may yield metal concentrations for three to five hundred samples. The size of such a database will preclude its publication in full in most journals and it is therefore necessary to summarize the data both for evaluation and publication.

Quantitative approaches to the description and evaluation of trace element data for soils are still in their infancy and it is not clear what is the best model to describe the variability of soil metal concentrations. Ahrens (1954), has proposed that the distribution of elements in igneous rocks approximates to a log-normal distribution. This model does not necessarily apply to soils but the available evidence suggests it may. Data from contaminated soils are usually strongly skewed and therefore need to be normalised by, e.g., a log transformation.

The simplest descriptive statistic is the mean and computer packages also provide the standard deviation of the mean, i.e., a measure of the spread of values around the mean. It is also helpful to tabulate the minimum and maximum values. But data assessment should not stop at this point since these parameters do not fully summarize the data. It is important that the median value be calculated. Many statistical packages will also provide the skewness or third moment statistic. A positive value indicates a clustering of samples to the left of the mean.

Table 1 illustrates soil metal concentrations from a typical survey (Davies and Roberts, 1978). The arithmetic data are characterised by a feature which is common in this kind of data, namely that the mean is greater or very much greater than the median. The most common inference drawn from the value of the mean is

of metals in soils as a result of weathering of sulphide ores close to the surface. This is a natural process having nothing to do with contamination. Identification of a geochemical anomaly should, in the first instance, be considered as only that, an anomaly.

Very often it is not possible *a priori* to separate contaminated and uncontaminated soils at the time of sampling. The best that can be done in this situation is to assume the data comprise several overlapping log-normal populations. A plot of percentage cumulative frequency versus concentration (either arithmetic or log-transformed values) on probability paper produces a straight line for a normal or log-normal population. Overlapping populations plot as intersecting lines. These are called broken line plots and they can be partitioned so as to separate out the background population and hence estimate its mean and standard deviation (Tennant and White, 1959; Sinclair, 1974; Davies, 1983).

CARTOGRAPHICAL INTERPRETATION OF DATA

Isotopic analysis is becoming more widely available and is inherently superior for identifying sources but is still beyond the reach of many laboratories. Valuable inferences concerning source apportionment may be drawn from the spatial distribution of soil metal concentrations.

Contaminating sources are generally classed as point or line. A smelter stack is a typical point source and highways are typical line sources due to the movement of motor vehicles and their exhaust emissions along them. A cluster of point sources forms an area source. But whatever the geometry of the source, as contaminants are carried away they become diluted. Fallout from a stack tends to decline exponentially away from the source. Similarly, overbank inundation in polluted river systems leads to greatest contamination nearest to the river channel. Distinctive depositional patterns are thereby created and much can be inferred about the presence and nature of contamination by studying these patterns. Cartographical interpretation of data is an essential component of many contamination projects.

Many ways are possible for representing the spatial distribution of trace metal data ranging from sized or coloured symbols based on the relative concentration at the sample locality to complex statistical surfaces such as trend surface plots. Whatever style of representation is chosen an essential step in the data reduction is the manner in which the concentration values are classified to produce a relatively few groupings of the data from the minimum to the maximum. This can be done empirically by allocating class limits from previous experience but this approach involves too high a degree of subjectivity.

A more systematic approach derives from the frequency distribution of the data. The log-transformed values are classified (a class width of 0.1 is often suitable) and the percentage frequency in each class is calculated. These are then summed to 100%. A plot of concentration versus cumulative percent frequency is drawn and a smooth, sigmoid curve is interpolated between the points. This curve is then used to estimate the concentrations corresponding to selected percentiles.

Modern computer spreadsheets allow the same task to be performed without the need for drawing graphs. For contamination studies it is often convenient to use the 50, 70, 80, 90, 95 and 99th percentiles. This was done for the Halkyn Mountain data and the results are given in **Table 2**. The 50th percentile is, of course, the median.

Table 2. Percentiles of the Halkyn Mountain data summarised in Table 1

Percentile	50	70	80	90	95	99
$\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ dry soil						
Lead	167	386	775	2015	3689	12321
Zinc	111	190	341	697	1274	16496
Copper	12.5	16.5	19.2	29.4	53.4	101
Cadmium	1.1	1.8	2.4	4.6	9.9	146

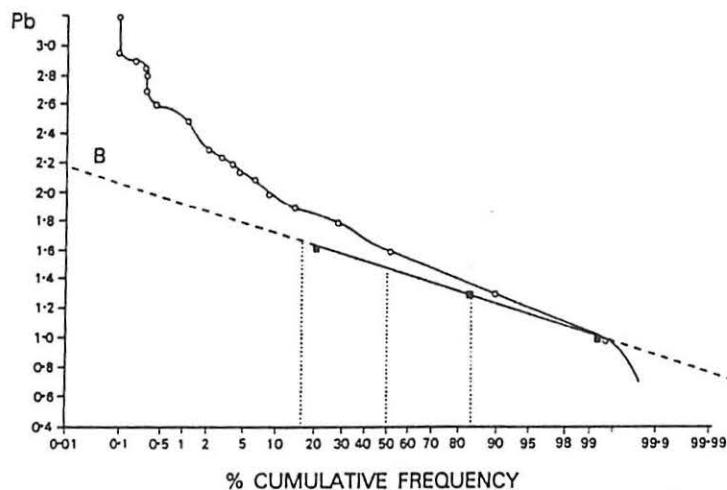


Figure 1 Frequency distribution for soil lead on probability paper

Broadly, there are two kinds of map. Where it cannot be assumed that there is any progressive change across a given area for the value of the parameter under investigation choropleth maps are constructed. Areas of equal value are separated by boundaries from adjacent areas of different values. Familiar examples are soil or geology maps. But where progressive change occurs isoline maps may be

used. Examples are topographical maps where contours connect points of equal elevation or weather maps where isobars connect points of equal atmospheric pressure. The familiarity of topographical maps compared with other isoline maps has often led to all isoline maps being loosely described as 'contour'. **Monmonier (1982)** has provided a comprehensive account of the fundamentals of computer-aided cartography although much better software is now available than when he was writing.

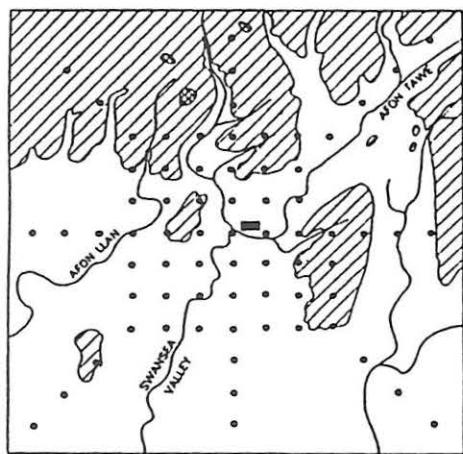
It is arguable whether geochemical data are satisfactorily representable by isoline maps. Since chemical composition depends on rock type and rock type can be depicted properly only by choropleth maps, isoline maps are not perhaps strictly suitable for depicting geochemical data. However, although soil composition is strongly influenced by parent material composition other processes are also significant, such as wind or water transportation of particles and compounds. Transportation over distance entails progressive change in deposition and therefore progressive change in soil composition. It has already been observed that the contamination effect is subject to such a diminution away from the line or point source. It is reasonable to conclude that isoline maps often are suitable for the study of metal contamination.

A number of computer program packages are available for constructing isoline maps. **Davies and Roberts (1978)** and **Davies and Wixson (1985)** used the older SYMAP system where isoline maps were printed on a line printer and the plots were redrawn for publication. Major mainframe computer packages now produce very high quality monochrome or colour plots with inkjet or thermal printers. Powerful packages are also available for desktop computers and the plots in this paper were produced using a PC microcomputer and the SURFER FOR WINDOWS system of Golden Software, Inc., Golden, Colorado. SURFER also produces block diagrams and these three dimensional perspective figures are most helpful in visualizing geographic patterns.

Whichever system is used there is an important first stage. The data are imported into the program as X, Y and Z values (two geographic coordinates and the metal concentration) and from these a uniform grid of values is created. This entails extrapolation between neighbouring values to calculate the concentration at the grid intersection. The most common involves searching over a defined radius around each sample point and averaging using a weighing factor e.g., one dependent on the inverse square of the distance between points. Another method depends on a moving average system called kriging. Since production of a regular grid is an essential preliminary then the more the distribution of the original data departs from regularity the more possibility there is of distortion of the eventual geographic pattern and the higher the likelihood of misinterpreting the pattern. Where the terrain permits it is much better to sample on an orthogonal grid basis rather than rely on the chosen computer algorithm to regularise an irregular grid.

CASE STUDIES

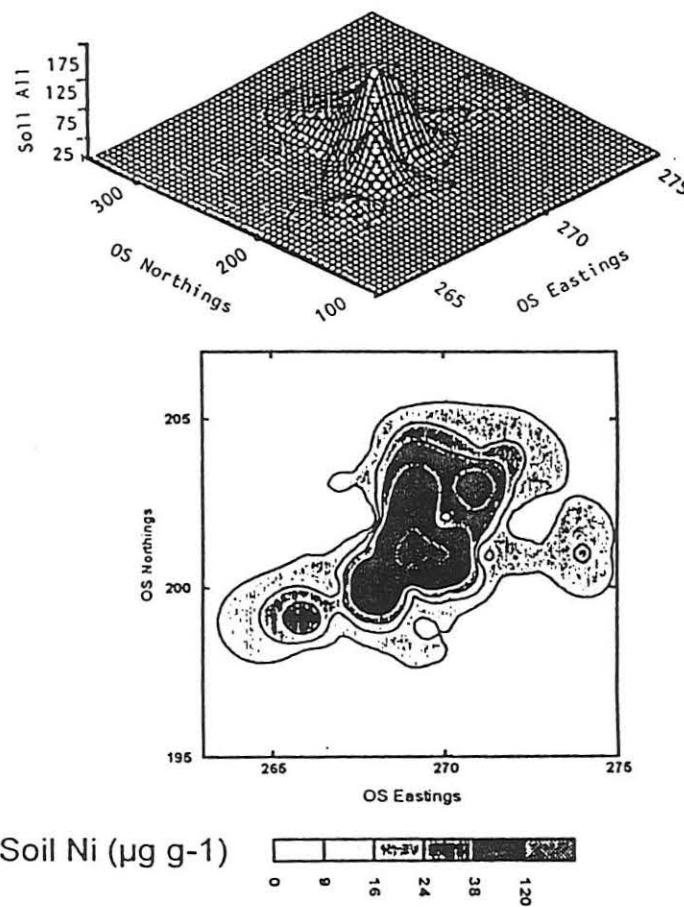
Example of the extraction of baseline values



Base Map



Figure 2 Distribution pattern
of Ni in soils around a refiner
at Clydach, south Wales,
Great Britain



090326

Davies (1983) was interested in trying to establish the background contents of lead in soils in England and Wales. Previous studies had identified areas where nineteenth century metal mining had caused extensive contamination but no systematic information was available for concentrations of lead in non-contaminated soils to assess the severity of soil contamination. Four of the author's own data sets were investigated

plus data from another author (Archer, 1980). The method of Sinclair (1974) was followed whereby, after a log 10 normalization of the data, the percentage cumulative frequency distribution was plotted on probability graph paper.

Figure 1 is derived from the Davies (1983) paper. The main plot is seen to comprise a series of intersecting, approximately linear sections, each representing an overlapping population of contaminated soils. The lower right hand section with a break at the 40th percentile, was identified as the element of the curve containing mostly uncontaminated soils. Curve B represent this section after compensation for the effects of higher lead concentrations (Sinclair, 1974). The 50th percentile corresponds to the geometric mean and was $30 \mu\text{g Pb g}^{-1}$; the geometric deviation is given by $(16\text{th percentile} - 84\text{th percentile})/2 = 1.53$ and the three standard deviation upper, threshold limit was therefore $108 \mu\text{g Pb g}^{-1}$ soil. This was in good

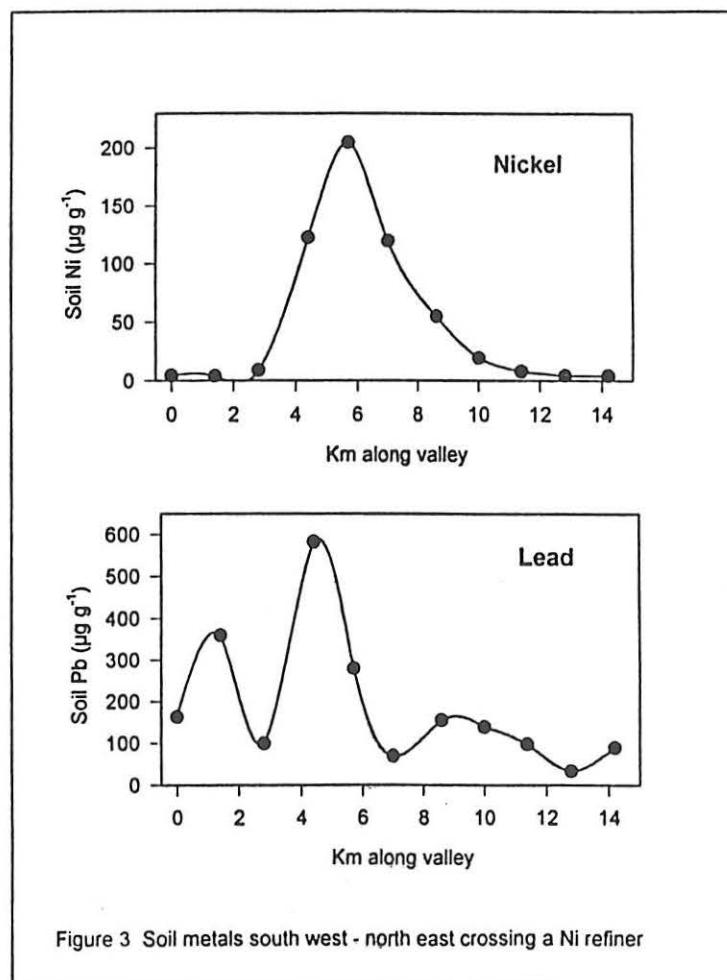
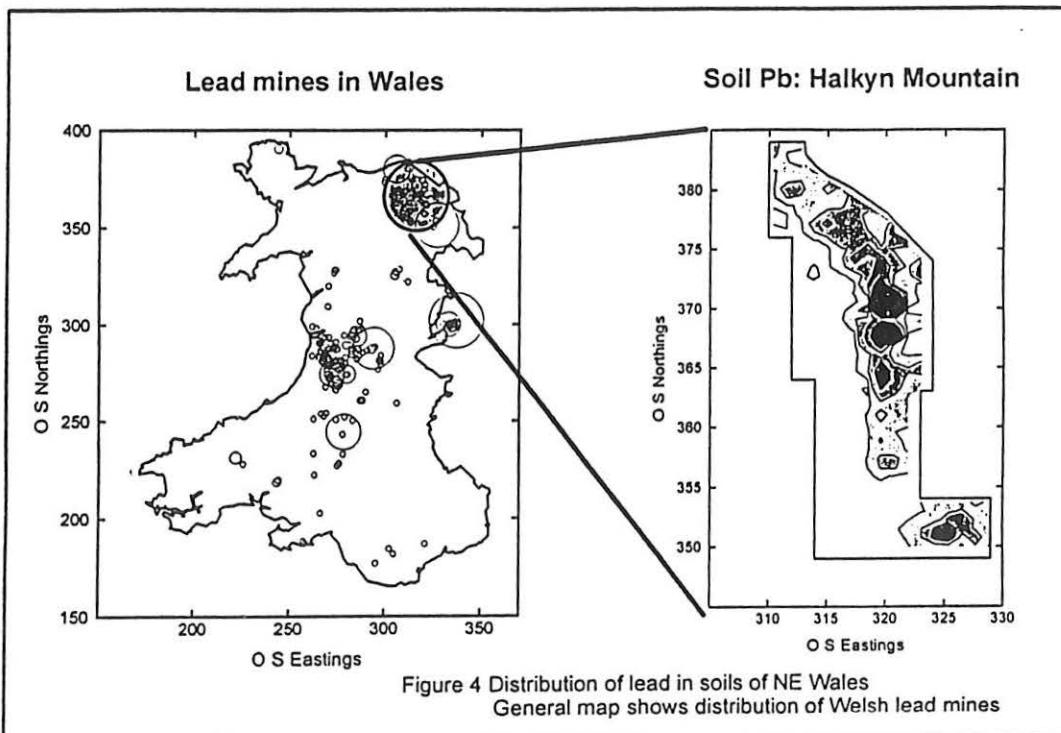


Figure 3 Soil metals south west - north east crossing a Ni refiner

agreement with the threshold derived from the other data sets, namely $106 \mu\text{g Pb g}^{-1}$ soil.

Example of the use of multivariate statistics



Useful information can sometimes be gained concerning major sources of soil trace elements from extensions of correlation analysis. This is particularly useful for multielement surveys. **Davies and Wixson (1987)** used factor analysis to differentiate pollutants from other trace metals in surface soils of the mineralised area of Madison County, Missouri, USA. The ores around the city of Fredericktown MO have been mined since the eighteenth century. Early mining was confined to lead but in the nineteenth century interest switched to the deeper ores of copper and nickel. The last mine (the Madison mine) closed in 1961.

Data were available for 12 elements and 97 samples of surface soil sampled on a regular grid 8×11 km grid with a 1000 m sampling interval. After a log₁₀ transformation of the data highly significant correlations were found between some pairs of elements (e.g., Cu and Ni, $r = 0.903$) and significant correlations between elements not associated with local ores (e.g., Ba and Be, $r = 0.658$). These and other correlations suggested the possibility of grouping the trace metals in ways which were not obvious from a study of the original data without a time consuming evaluation and synthesis of all the correlations. The data were therefore examined

using common or R-mode factor analysis to attempt to identify rapidly clusters or associations within the data set.

Factor analysis is described by Krumbein and Graybill (1965).

Essentially, it is a technique whereby a complex data set is simplified by creating one or more new variables or factors each representing a cluster of interrelated variables within the data set.

The method starts with the computation of a correlation matrix and the validity of the subsequent transformations depends on the validity of this matrix. In this investigation

the data were normalised by a \log_{10} transformation. It is assumed that the variation in a variable is caused partly by a variation unique to itself and partly by the influence of underlying factors. Communalities describes the proportion of the variance in the variable which is accounted for by common factors and uniqueness (i.e., communality) is therefore the inherent variability in the variable.

The analysis proceeds by transforming the correlation matrix and calculating eigen values and eigen vectors. Several sequential transformations (iterations) are made until the communality of one or more variables exceeds 1.0. The number of significant factors within the data are established by considering only those with an eigen value > 1.0 . The degree of association between each variable and each factor is given by its 'loading' on that factor. The loadings, which can be printed in either tabular or graphical form, then allow the recognition of clusters.

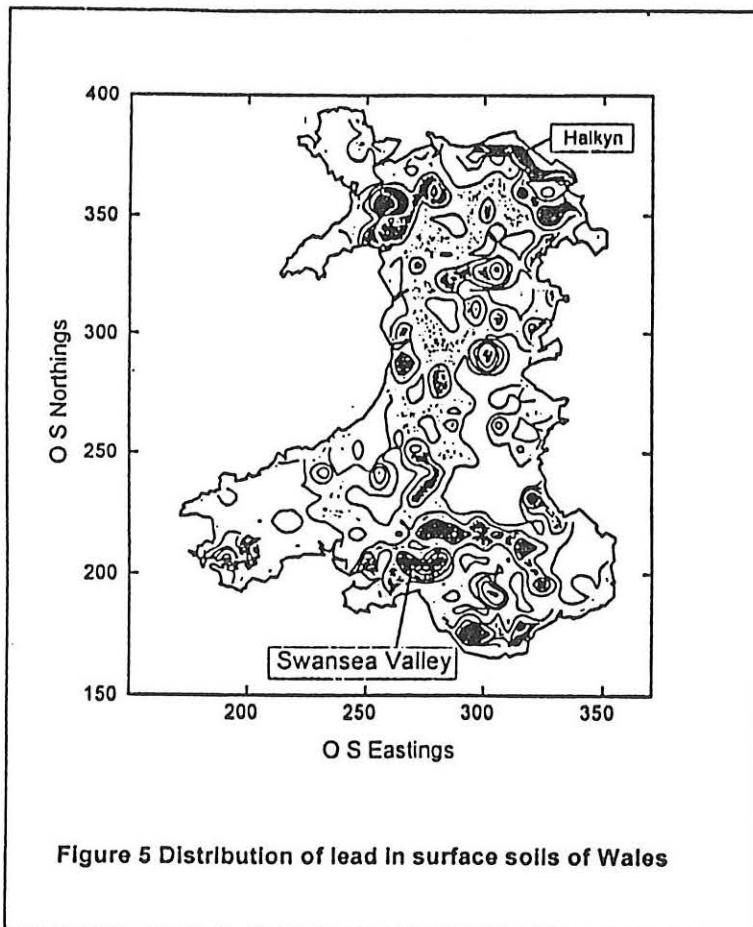


Figure 5 Distribution of lead in surface soils of Wales

Table 2 lists these loadings where Factor 1 accounted for 55.3% of the cumulative variance, Factor 2 accounted for a further 32.9% and Factor 3 accounted for the remaining 11.8%. The first factor contained elements which had contaminated the soil as a consequence of mining processes. The second factor contained those elements which had accumulated in local weathering residues. The third factor comprised elements which could be related to local rock type.

Example of patterns around a point source A smelter or refiner is a point source of contamination

Fallout decreases exponentially from the stack and the pattern of deposition is normally elongated in the direction of the prevailing winds as modified by topography. **Ashton (1972)** has described the pollution problem arising from a nickel refiner at Clydach in the Swansea Valley of Wales. **Figure 2** shows the depositional pattern around this refiner (**B.E. Davies, unpublished data**). The isoline levels are the 50, 70, 80, 90 and 95th percentiles of the soil nickel concentrations. The depositional pattern is seen to focus on the refiner and is elongated along the valley which itself is orientated with the prevailing southwesterlies.

Figure 3 is a transect south west to north east up the valley and crossing the refiner. The upper plot is of soil nickel and shows clearly the characteristic nature of the distance-decline curve away from any point source. The lower curve is of soil lead for which the refiner is not a source and lead-rich petrol fumes from traffic comprise a multiple source in nearby Clydach together with Swansea to the south west and Pontardawe to the north east. The plot of lead is therefore different as is the depositional pattern (not shown here).

Examples of patterns around multiple point sources

Lead and other ores have been mined in many parts of Wales and have given rise to extensive areas of contamination. **Davies and Roberts (1978)** have described the Halkyn Mountain area of north east Wales. This is a narrow plateau of limestone rising to about 260 m (mountain is a misnomer) which is scarred everywhere by small mines, trials and waste heaps. Soil samples were collected on a regular 1000 m grid over an area of 260 km². Contamination was widespread and was evident well away from the mines. Isoline class limits are given in **Table 3**.

The resulting plot is shown in **Figure 4** which also includes a map of the distribution of Welsh lead mines each depicted by a circle the diameter of which is proportional to recorded output of concentrates. The worst contamination occurs in the same area as the outcropping limestone and the main mines. The highest value (47955 µg Pb g⁻¹ soil) derived from a sample taken near the New North Halkyn Mine which ceased production in 1958. Isoline plots also allow an assessment of areas of land contaminated.

In the Halkyn area, **Davies and Roberts (1978)** showed that 1% (3 km²) of the study area contained soils with >10,000 µg Pb g⁻¹ and a further 17% (44 km²) contained 1000 to 10,000 µg Pb g⁻¹ soil. More recent survey work has extended to the whole of Wales (**B.E. Davies, unpublished**). **Figure 5** is a lead map

for the whole country (class limits and isoline values = 50, 70, 80, 90, 95, 99th percentiles). The locations of the Swansea Valley and Halkyn Mountain are shown. It should be compared with the map of lead mines in **Figure 4**. The spread of contamination is more extensive however than the distribution of old mines and this is provisionally explained by washout over the hillier and wetter parts of Wales.

REFERENCES

- AHRENS, L. H. 1954. The lognormal distribution of the elements. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, 5:49-73.
- AHRENS, L. H. 1966. Element distributions in specific igneous rocks. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta*, 30:109-122.
- ARCHER, F. C. 1980. Trace elements in soils in England and Wales. In *Inorganic Pollution and Agriculture*: London, HMSO, v. MAFF Reference Book 326, p. 324.
- ASHTON, W. M. 1972. Nickel pollution: *Nature (London)* 237:46-47.
- BOLVIKEN, B. and LAG, J. 1977. Natural heavy-metal poisoning of soils and vegetation: an exploration tool in glaciated terrain. *Transactions of the Institution of Mining and Metallurgy*, 86(B), p. 173-180.
- DAVIES, B. E. 1983. A graphical estimation of the normal lead content of some British soils. *Geoderma* 29:67- 75.
- DAVIES, B. E. and ROBERTS, L. J. 1978. The distribution of heavy metal contaminated soils in north east Clwyd, Wales. *Water, Air, and Soil Pollution* 9:507-518.
- DAVIES, B. E. and WIXSON, B. G. 1985. Trace elements in surface soils from the mineralised area of Madison county, Missouri, USA. *Journal of Soil Science* 36:551-570.
- DAVIES, B. E. and WIXSON, B. G. 1987. Use of factor analysis to differentiate pollutants from other trace metals in surface soils of the mineralized area of Madison County, Missouri, USA. *Water, Air, and Soil Pollution* 33:339-348.
- KRUMBEIN, W. C. and GRAYBILL, F. A. 1965. *An Introduction to Statistical Models in Geology*. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 475 p.

Table 3. Grouping of elements by Factor Analysis (Davies and Wixson, 1987)

Variable	Factors		
	F 1	F 2	F 3
Cu	0.943	<	<
Ni	0.921	<	<
Co	0.910	<	<
Pb	0.808	<	<
Zn	0.637	<	0.461
V	<	0.971	<
Cr	<	0.949	<
Li	<	0.892	<
Ba	<	0.456	0.781
Mn	0.341	<	0.761
Sr	<	-0.326	0.748
Be	<	0.496	0.661

MONMONIER, M. S. 1982. Computer-assisted cartography: principles and prospects. Englewood Cliffs, NJ, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 214 p.

SINCLAIR, A. J. 1974. Selection of thresholds in geochemical data using probability graphs. *Journal of Geochemical Exploration* 3:129-149.

TENNANT, C. B. and WHITE, M. L. 1959. Study of the distribution of some geochemical data. *Economic Geology* 54:1281-1290.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Professor Davies' visit to Chile, and attendance at the conference, was supported under the British Council Chilean Academic Links Programmes. The arrangement is between the Department of Environmental Science, University of Bradford, England (Professor Brian E. Davies) and La Platina Agricultural Experiment Station, Instituto de Investigaciones Agropecuarias (INIA) (Sr. Sergio P. González). INACAP provided support, especially through arranging hotel accommodation. All who contributed to the success of the stay are warmly thanked.