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1 **Spatial trends and human health risks of organochlorinated pesticides from bovine milk; a**
2 **case study from a developing country, Pakistan**

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10 **Abstract**

11 Bovine milk is a nutritious food commodity extensively produced and consumed in Punjab,
12 Pakistan. This study assesses the concentration profile of organochlorine pesticides (OCP; 18
13 compounds) in buffaloes and cow's milk in eight major districts of Punjab, Pakistan and the
14 potential impacts of such exposure. The total OCPs in buffaloes and cow's milk samples ranged
15 from 3.93-27.63 ngmL⁻¹ and 14.64-77.93 ngmL⁻¹ respectively. The overall pattern of mean OCPs
16 concentration in buffaloes and cows milk showed that Hexachlorocyclohexanes (HCHs) are
17 predominant followed by Heptachlors and Dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane (DDTs). So far, the
18 concentration profile depicted that \sum HCHs, \sum DDTs and \sum Heptachlors did not exceed the
19 maximum residual limits set for buffaloes and cow's milk. The spatial trends in terms of cluster
20 analysis depicted significant variation ($p > 0.05$) among the districts in one cluster probably owing
21 to local conditions. Furthermore, recently used DDTs were also identified at some of the selected
22 districts. The risk assessment suggests that the estimated daily intake for each OCP was in
23 accordance with the acceptable daily intake, thus single compound exposure does not pose a

24 significant carcinogenic risk. However, the hazard ratios indicated that the values for \sum DDTs
25 posed risk in adults consuming cow's milk whereas children may face carcinogenic risk on the
26 consumption of both buffalo and cow's milk. The risk may be altered where mixture is considered,
27 furthermore, regarding carcinogenic risks a continuous monitoring based ecological analysis is
28 recommended in the future.

29 **Graphical abstract**

30 **Key words**

31 Cows;

32 Buffaloes;

33 Milk;

34 Organochlorine pesticides;

35 Pakistan;

36 Human health risk.

37 **1. Introduction**

38 Pakistan is an agrarian country, so the agriculture sector is the backbone of the country's
39 economy (Jaffar et al., 2019). The livestock sub-section of agriculture is growing at high speed in
40 Pakistan and is an integral part of the livelihood and economy for rural community as it is the only
41 sector which provides regular income and readily cashable assets to farming families. In addition
42 to the alleviation of poverty, livestock farming also makes a significant contribution to the
43 Pakistan's foreign exchange earnings and contributes 56.3% to the total agricultural value and
44 11.76% to the national GDP (Pakistan, 2015). In this regard, Pakistan is the 4th largest milk
45 producer in the world, producing 42.17 million tons of milk per annum with buffaloes and cows
46 contributing 62% and 34% of milk production, respectively (Perisic et al., 2015; Ishaq et al., 2018).

47 Punjab has a leading role in milk production and contributes 25.62 million liters per year to
48 Pakistan's total milk production (Umm e Zia, 2011). Milk is considered a complete natural food
49 and is deemed as an essential food commodity for healthy living of different age groups, especially
50 children, as it contains proteins, fats, lactose, zinc and vitamin B₁₂ (Zheng et al., 2014). Milk is
51 also the main constituent of the daily diet, of many vulnerable groups such as infants, school going
52 children and the elderly (Giuseppa Di Bella et al., 2014). According to Food and Agriculture
53 Organization (FAO), milk provides an average 134 kcal of energy capita⁻¹ day⁻¹ and contributes 8
54 and 7.3 grams of protein and fat capita⁻¹ day⁻¹, respectively. However, nutritional components can
55 differ remarkably with geographical production areas (Muhammad Salman et al., 2015).

56 While it is recognized that pesticides can have an impact on the wider environment (Deti
57 et al., 2014) they are an essential component of modern agricultural technology and have
58 contributed greatly to increased agriculture yields and control of vector-borne diseases. Due to
59 health hazards associated with their use, organochlorine pesticides (OCPs) have been banned or
60 restricted in many countries, but they remain in common agricultural use in many developing
61 countries (Gebremichael et al., 2013; Sajid et al., 2016) due to their low cost, versatility and long
62 half-life (Bedi et al., 2015; Hassan et al., 2015). In 2006, The World Health Organization (WHO)
63 also recommended controlled indoor spray of Dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane (DDT) in
64 developing countries to combat malaria (Rehwagen, 2006; WHO, 2011). Moreover, the illegal use
65 of OCPs is still reported in many developing countries probably due to their affordability,
66 efficiency and weak regulations (Eqani et al., 2011; Sohail et al., 2018).

67 To impose bans and apply restrictions on production and usage of OCPs and other
68 hazardous chemicals Stockholm Convention came into being that was globally administrated.
69 Although Pakistan is a signatory of the Stockholm Convention since 2001, OCPs production and

70 use is banned still they are reported in various matrices (Eqani et al., 2011; Chakraborty et al.,
71 2016; Ullah et al., 2019b). In 1950s more than 250 metric tons (MT) of pesticides were imported
72 to Pakistan (Khan et al., 2010). Besides the vast applications, maximum portion of these obsolete
73 pesticides was stored in various areas of Pakistan. According to (Ahad et al., 2010) Pakistan is a
74 country with one of the world's largest stocks of banned/outdated OCPs . A report from FAO states
75 that a program funded by Netherlands is being carried out by the German Agency for Technical
76 Cooperation (GTZ) in Pakistan and 917 tonnes of obsolete pesticides in 133 stores in Punjab has
77 been identified (FAO, 2001). The improper storage practices results in the leakage of these
78 chemicals into the environment (Eqani et al., 2011). The document of Pakistan's National
79 Implementation Plan (NIP) for the Stockholm Convention highlighted the storage of an estimated
80 6030 million tonnes of obsolete OCPs in the country (Environment, 2004).

81 The primary route of human exposure to organochlorines is through food and previous
82 studies have demonstrated that animal-origin food is responsible for more than 90% of the average
83 human intake of OCPs (Kannan et al., 1997; Fadaei et al., 2015; Ishaq and Nawaz, 2018). Milk-
84 producing animals can accumulate OCPs from feed sprayed with OCPs either during growth or
85 after harvest (Mumtaz et al., 2015) and/or by inhalation (Deti et al., 2014). OCP concentrations in
86 milk could be further influenced where insecticides are used for the control of insects/pests at dairy
87 farms or milk sale points (Ishaq and Nawaz, 2018). The amount of OCPs that appear in milk, will
88 be influenced by a variety of factors including the nature of the compound, its chemical and
89 physical properties, and the time period for ingestion/exposure (Aslam et al., 2013). The
90 persistence of OCPs in the environment, ability to bio accumulate, biomagnify and capacity to
91 travel from one environmental matrice to another (e.g. from air to soil and water) can also be a
92 reason of milk contamination (Yang et al., 2005). After ingestion, lipophilic OCPs get assimilated

93 from the digestive system into the general circulation. Consequently, diet paves its way for chronic
94 human exposure to some toxic chemicals such as OCPs which can adversely affect health (Tariq
95 et al., 2007; Hassan et al., 2015; Sajid et al., 2016; Yasmeen et al., 2017; Ishaq and Nawaz, 2018;
96 Muhammad Arif et al., 2020). In Pakistan, acceptable limits for OCPs in food have not been
97 documented so Acceptable Daily Intake (ADI) values for OCPs in milk given by USEPA and
98 EFSA is being followed (USEPA, 2007; EFSA, 2013). As milk is the prevalent source of nutrition
99 in Pakistan and OCPs are ubiquitous in the environment so the residues of OCPs can be found in
100 milk which can lead to health hazards. (Riaz et al., 2018; Ali et al., 2020). This study
101 comprehensively investigated OCPs contamination in bovine milk across the major districts of the
102 Punjab. This investigation provides important information about potential human exposure to such
103 contaminants, through the ingestion of dairy products and provides baseline information which
104 may be used to inform policies regarding pesticides use in the agriculture sector.

105 **2. Methodology**

106 **2.1. Material**

107 Analytical grade native standards for OCPs, PCB209 and Tetrachlorometaxylene (TCmX),
108 were purchased from AccuStandard (America). All solutions were stored at -20°C. Hexane,
109 Dichloromethane (DCM), Ethanol, Acetone were also analytical grade reagents (Merck). Pure
110 Nitrogen gas was purchased from a local gas station (Lahore, Punjab, Pakistan). Solid Phase
111 Extraction (SPE) columns were obtained from SILICYCLE_{Inc.} (SPEC-R31830B-06P,
112 CERTIFIED SiliaPrep^M C18, 500mg/6mL) and were used for the cleanup. Apparatus used for this
113 study included: micropipette, pipette, sonicator (Model PS-20A), centrifuge machine (Model 800
114 Electronic Centrifuge), vials stand, rotary evaporator. Glassware used during this study included:
115 centrifugation vials, septa vials and glass tubes.

116 **2.2. Sampling strategy**

117 Milk samples from Buffaloes (n=27) and cows (n=30) were collected from eight major
118 districts (Sahiwal, Okara, Kasur, Lahore, Gujranwala, Sialkot, Gujrat, Faisalabad, and Multan) of
119 Punjab, Pakistan. The detailed sampling locations and collected samples are provided in Table S1.
120 To obtain representative samples, sampling was done randomly and milk samples were collected
121 between March to December 2018. Samples were collected in amber glass bottles in an animal's
122 native conditions, and were stored in icebox. The samples were then transported to the
123 Environmental Toxicology Laboratory, College of Earth and Environmental Sciences, University
124 of the Punjab, Lahore and stored at -20 °C until further analysis (Deti et al., 2014; Sajid et al.,
125 2016; Ibigbami et al., 2019). Details of the native conditions, living environment and socio-
126 demographic conditions of the cows and buffaloes were collected via a self-administrated
127 questionnaire (Table S2).

128 **2.3. Extraction and Clean up**

129 Extraction of the milk samples was conducted using slight modification of the method
130 described by (Dewan et al., 2013). Milk samples were brought to room temperature and 1 mL of
131 each sample was spiked with 50 µl of TCMX (100 ppb). n-hexane (6 mL) and acetone (3 mL)
132 were added to each sample and were kept overnight in the refrigerator at 4°C. The very next day,
133 OCPs were extracted using a sonicator (Model PS-20A) for 60 minutes at 3°C, followed by
134 centrifugation (3500 rpm; 10 minutes; Model 800 Electronic Centrifuge). The supernatant was
135 separated into another glass vial and the remaining sample extracted twice by similar solvent
136 mixture.

137 The milk sample may contain several polar impurities (Singh, 2006; Huang et al., 2020),
138 thus the cleanup of extracted samples was conducted with previous method with minor

139 modifications (Kampire, 2011). The extracts were cleaned by SPE using prepared C18 silica
140 cartridges. The cartridges were activated with n-hexane (5 mL), loaded and the extract eluted twice
141 with 5 mL of DCM. The cleaned extract was concentrated through gentle high purity nitrogen
142 streaming (Sosan, 2017), ^{13}C -PCB 209 (50 μL volume and 100 ngmL^{-1} strength,) was added to a
143 final volume of 1 mL. Samples were filtered (0.22 μm) and stored in the 1.5mL glass vials until
144 the final analysis.

145 **2.4. Instrumental Analysis**

146 Analysis of all samples was performed on an Agilent Gas Chromatography Mass
147 Spectrometer (Agilent Technologies 5975C inert XL EI/CI MSD with Triple Axis detector; 7890A
148 GC System) accompanied with Auto Sampler (Agilent Technologies 7693) at the Environmental
149 Biotechnology Laboratory of the University of Glasgow, United Kingdom. Selected Ion
150 Monitoring (SIM) mode was used for the analysis of 18 different OCPs (Aldrin, α -HCH, β -HCH,
151 γ -HCH, δ -HCH, trans-Chlordane, cis-Chlordane, 4,4'-DDD, 4,4'-DDE, 4,4'-DDT, α -Endosulfan,
152 β -Endosulphan, Endosulfan Sulfate, Heptachlor, Heptachlor Epoxide (Isomer B), Methoxychlor,
153 cis-Nonachlor and trans-Nonachlor). The sample injection volume was 1 μL . Varian column (CP-
154 Sil 8CB, 50 m, 0.25 mm, and 0.25 μm .) was used for sample analysis. During the analysis, the
155 injector port temperature was kept at 250 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. The source temperature of MSD (mass spectrometric
156 detector) was 230 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ and 150 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ was the quadruple temperature. The following scheme was
157 adopted for the analysis of each sample: for the first 3 min the temperature was 150 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, 4 $^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{min}$
158 to 290 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, and the isothermal process was kept for 10min.

159 **2.5. Quality control and quality assurance (QC/QA)**

160 To ensure the accurate quantification of OCPs, all procedures for quality control were
161 observed strictly. Glassware was dried at 450 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for approximately 6 h after washing and rinsing

162 with distilled water and DCM respectively. Standards of 1 ng mL⁻¹ 10 ng mL⁻¹, 20 ng mL⁻¹, 50 ng
163 mL⁻¹, 100 ng mL⁻¹, 200 ng mL⁻¹, 500 ng mL⁻¹ and 1000 ng mL⁻¹ were used for the calibration
164 curves and instrument calibration. The limit of detection and quantification were calculated (Table
165 S7). The corresponding detection limit was 3 times of the signal to noise ratio (S/N), while the
166 quantification limits were ten times of the S/N. The samples were analysed in small sets and after
167 each set of 10 samples, a procedural blank was run. The field, procedural and solvent blanks were
168 all below detection limits. The surrogate recovery for TCmX ranged between 75 and 84% for all
169 samples. The calculated spiked recoveries were 83-130% (mean= 112%). The calculated relative
170 standard deviation of the spiked replicates was less than 20% (mean= 8.04 %). The quality of the
171 data was assured and the Agilent MSD productivity Chemstation software was used for peak
172 integration and data analysis.

173 **2.6. Human Health Risk Assessment**

174 For the calculation of carcinogenic and non-carcinogenic human health risk USEPA
175 guidelines were followed (Dougherty et al., 2000; Sosan, 2017). The risk was calculated for both
176 children and adults. For non-carcinogenic health risks, estimated daily intake (EDI) of milk was
177 compared with the ADI. For the carcinogenic human health risks, the hazard ratio (HR) was
178 calculated. Average body weight was used for the calculations of EDI and the human risk level
179 along with the concentration of OCPs and daily milk consumption (Dougherty et al., 2000).

180 **2.6.1. Non-carcinogenic risk assessment**

181 The following formula (equation 1) was used to calculate EDI.

$$182 \quad EDI = \frac{CR \times C}{BW} \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

183 Where,

184 CR is the consumption rate (mL d⁻¹) (Pakistan Economic Survey, 2018)

185 C is the quantified concentration (ng mL⁻¹) of selected OCPs isomers

186 BW (kg) is average bodyweight (children = 27.7 kg, adults = 60 kg) (Sosan, 2017; Adeleye, 2019)

187 **2.6.2. Carcinogenic risk assessment**

188 The formula used to calculate HR was given by (Dougherty et al., 2000) as shown in
189 equation 2. Oral Slope Factor (OSF) values were obtained from the Integrated Risk Information
190 System (IRIS), United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) for each contaminant
191 (USEPA, 2007).

192
$$HR = EDI/CBC \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

193

194 Where,

195 EDI (ng L⁻¹ d⁻¹) is estimated daily intake

196 CBC (ng L⁻¹ d⁻¹) is the cancer bench mark concentration.

197 CBC was calculated by

198
$$CBC = (RL \times OSF \times BW) / CR \dots\dots\dots (3)$$

199 Where,

200 RL is the risk level (10⁻⁶)

201 OSF (mg kg⁻¹ d⁻¹) is the oral slope factor

202 BW is average body weight (children = 27.7 kg, adults = 60 kg)

203 CR is the consumption rate (mL d⁻¹)

204 **2.7. Statistical analysis**

205 Descriptive statistics were applied to all milk samples collected from different districts.
206 Samples were further analyzed by Cluster analysis and Krushkal Wallis Test to check differences
207 in the OCPs concentration between different districts. P value > 0.05 was considered to be
208 statistically significant. Microsoft Excel version 2010, Statistica and IBM SPSS were used to
209 calculate the detailed descriptive (mean, 50th, 90th percentiles and range). The graphs were
210 prepared by using Origin (Pro 8). Furthermore, Arc GIS (version 10.2) was used to show the spatial
211 distribution of OCPs concentration profile in the different districts of Punjab, Pakistan.

212 **3. Results and Discussion**

213 **3.1. OCPs profiles in the bovine milk samples**

214 At least one OCP isomer was detectable in each of the analysed samples (n=57) Fig 1a.
215 For Buffaloes, the Hexachlorocyclohexanes isomers (Σ HCHs) were predominant (detection
216 frequency of α -HCH = 100%, β -HCH = 93%, γ -HCH = 100%, δ -HCH = 78%), followed by Σ DDTs
217 (detection frequency of 4-4'DDE = 48%, 4-4'DDD = 37%, 4-4'DDT = 30%) and Σ Heptachlors
218 isomers (detection frequency of Heptachlor = 85% and Heptachlor Epoxide = 22%). For cows, the
219 Σ HCHs isomers were predominant (detection frequencies of α -HCH = 100%, β -HCH = 90 %, γ -
220 HCH = 100%, δ -HCH = 87%), followed by isomers of Σ DDTs (detection frequencies of 4-4'DDE
221 = 27%, 4-4'DDD = 43%, 4-4'DDT = 20 %) and Σ Heptachlors isomers (detection frequencies
222 Heptachlor = 87 and Heptachlor Epoxide = 30). The predominance of HCHs is in agreement with
223 the study reported from Spain where HCHs were present in 100% of the milk samples analyzed
224 (Luzardo et al., 2012).

225 **3.1.1. Concentration profile of OCPs in the Buffaloes milk**

226 The detailed descriptive statistics of 18 selected OCPs in the buffaloes milk samples are
227 given in Table S3. The mean concentration of Σ OCPs was 15.76 ng mL⁻¹ with a range of 3.93 –
228 27.63 ng mL⁻¹. Among the selected OCPs, Σ HCHs showed the highest rate of contamination with
229 a 67% percent contribution to total OCP load and a mean concentration of α -HCH = 1.32 ng mL⁻¹,
230 β -HCH = 1.39 ng mL⁻¹, γ -HCH = 7.03 ng mL⁻¹, δ -HCH = 0.75 ng mL⁻¹. The isomers profile of
231 the present study depicted that, among Σ HCHs, the residual level of γ -HCH was the highest (range:
232 0.69-19.44 ng mL⁻¹, percent contribution: 44.59 %). These HCH isomer concentrations are lower
233 than those reported in buffalo in Turkey i.e. α -HCH: 6.34 ng mL⁻¹, β -HCH: 20.41 ng mL⁻¹, γ -HCH:
234 9.77 ng mL⁻¹, 4-4'DDE: 4.36 ng mL⁻¹ and 4-4' DDT: 13.54 ng mL⁻¹ (Atmaca, 2019). The detailed
235 comparisons are provided in Table S4. Σ Heptachlors and Σ DDTs were the second and third most
236 abundant isomers among all the OCPs with a percent contribution of 9.70 % and 9.51 %
237 respectively. The mean concentration of Heptachlor was 1.44 ng mL⁻¹ and ranged between 0.14-
238 6.32 ng mL⁻¹ with Heptachlor being the predominant (23%) isomer followed by Heptachlor
239 epoxide (6%). These results contrast with those of a study conducted in Brazil on bovine
240 pasteurized milk which found the highest mean concentration levels in Σ DDTs closely followed
241 by Σ Heptachlors i.e. 3.74 ng mL⁻¹ and 3.05 ng mL⁻¹ respectively (Avancini et al., 2013). This high
242 concentration of Heptachlors in samples collected from Punjab in the current study could be due
243 to its continued use as insecticides in this area, but its presence can also be related to surface runoff
244 from urban areas, municipal and industrial effluents, and atmospheric deposition (Zhou et al.,
245 2006; Eqani et al., 2011).

246 The mean concentration of DDTs was 1.50 ng mL⁻¹ with 9.5% (percent contribution)
247 among all the OCPs. The isomers profile indicated that 4,4'-DDD had the highest average

248 concentration with a value of 0.97 ng mL⁻¹ followed by 4,4'-DDT and 4,4'-DDE with mean values
249 of 0.41 ng mL⁻¹ and 0.12 ng mL⁻¹ respectively.

250 ∑Chlordanes showed 3.84% contribution among all the analyzed OCPs. Its isomers trans-
251 Chlordane and cis-Chlordane showed mean concentrations of 0.39 and 0.21 ng mL⁻¹. Previously a
252 study conducted in 2015 in India showed mean concentrations in buffalo milk of trans-Chlordane
253 and cis-Chlordane of 0.66 ng mL⁻¹ and 0.17 ng mL⁻¹ respectively. The percent contribution of
254 ∑Endosulfans among all the OCPs in the current buffaloes milk samples was 1.26%, with isomeric
255 concentrations of 0.14, 0.06 ng mL⁻¹ and not detected (ND) for Endosulfan Sulfate, Endosulfan-I
256 and Endosulfan-II, respectively. When compared with a previous study conducted in Brazil in
257 2013 on bovine milk samples, values of Endosulfans were found to be higher than the present
258 study with mean values 1.95 ng mL⁻¹ and 2.23 ng mL⁻¹ for Endosulfan-I and Endosulfan-II
259 respectively (Avancini et al., 2013). Yet another study conducted in India in 2008 showed a higher
260 mean value of ∑Endosulfans as 49.2 ng mL⁻¹, its isomers followed the following trend Endosulfan-
261 II; 23 ng mL⁻¹ > Endosulfan sulfate; 19.8 ng mL⁻¹ > Endosulfan-I; 6.5 ng mL⁻¹ (Nag and Raikwar,
262 2008). ∑Nonachlors showed a percent contribution of 1% among all the selected OCPs. Its isomers
263 trans-Nonachlor and cis-Nonachlor showed mean concentration values as 0.16 ng mL⁻¹ and ND
264 respectively. This value is lower than another study conducted in Brazil in 2013 where trans-
265 Nonachlor showed mean concentration 2.05 ng mL⁻¹ (Avancini et al., 2013). Methoxychlor
266 contributed 1.20% among all the OCPs with a mean value 0.19 ngmL⁻¹ and range (0.00-0.47 ngmL⁻¹).
267 ¹). The reported concentration was higher than a previous study conducted in Brazil in 2013 where
268 Methoxychlor showed comparable concentration (Avancini et al., 2013). Aldrin showed a
269 relatively higher percent contribution (6.91%) among all the selected OCPs. The mean
270 concentration of Aldrin is 1.09 ng mL⁻¹ and range 0.52-2.25 ng mL⁻¹ in buffaloes milk. The mean

271 value of Aldrin was slightly higher than the mean value (0.99 ng mL^{-1}) reported in Turkish
272 buffaloes milk samples (Atmaca, 2019). On the whole, OCPs in buffalo milk samples in Punjab,
273 Pakistan have either higher or lower mean concentrations as compared to the OCPs level in milk
274 of other countries (Table S4). One of the possible cause for this trend maybe human activities like
275 use of pesticides or leakage from the old stocks of obsolete pesticides (Ali et al., 2020). While the
276 low concentration of some OCPs detected in milk samples of buffaloes is probably because of the
277 prevailing local conditions of Punjab, Pakistan (Neelam Shahzadi, 2013).

278 **3.1.2. Concentration profile of OCPs in the cow's milk**

279 The mean concentration of OCPs in cows milk was 44.82 ng mL^{-1} with a range of $14.64-$
280 77.93 ng mL^{-1} (Fig 1b). The homologue profile showed that among the selected OCPs, HCHs
281 were predominant (74%) followed by Σ DDTs (11%), Σ Heptachlors (7%), Σ Endosulfans (3%),
282 Aldrin (2.56%), Σ Nonachlors (2.20%), Σ Chlordanes (0.73%) and Methoxychlor (0.40%).

283 The HCHs isomer profile indicated that γ -HCH or Lindane showed highest mean
284 concentration (22.43 ng mL^{-1}) followed by δ -HCH (3.87 ng mL^{-1}) and β -HCH (3.5 ng mL^{-1}).
285 Lindane is considered as the most active and stable isomer of HCHs (Raslan, 2018). The mean
286 Σ HCH concentrations observed in this study differed from the profile reported from India, where
287 only one isomer γ -HCH was detectable but the concentration of γ -HCH was significantly greater
288 with a mean value 900 ng mL^{-1} (Bedi et al., 2015). Whereas the reported γ -HCH concentrations in
289 Iran (13.49 ng mL^{-1}) was comparable (Bayat et al., 2011) to the current study and were only
290 slightly lower than those reported in Nigeria; HCHs range from $4-144 \text{ ng mL}^{-1}$ (Ibigbami et al.,
291 2019).

292 Among metabolites of Σ DDTs (mean concentration: 4.76 ng mL⁻¹), the observed mean
293 concentration trend was 4,4'-DDD (2.64 ng mL⁻¹) > 4,4'-DDT (1.88 ng mL⁻¹) > 4,4'-DDE (0.23
294 ng mL⁻¹). The concentrations of DDTs (4.76 ng mL⁻¹) in the present study were lower than those
295 reported for some DDT isomers in samples of cows milk from India i.e. 2,4'-DDE 0.093 ng mL⁻¹;
296 2,4'-DDD 0.775 ng mL⁻¹ (Bhuvaneshwari et al., 2015), and two studies from Iran in 2009 and
297 2011 where the observed values were 4,4'-DDT; 51 ng mL⁻¹ > 4,4'-DDD; 28 ng mL⁻¹ > 4,4'-DDE;
298 17 ng mL⁻¹, 4,4'-DDE; 7.44 ng mL⁻¹ > 4,4'-DDT; 6.83 ng mL⁻¹ > 4,4'-DDD; 2.81 ng mL⁻¹
299 respectively (Ashnagar, 2009; Bayat et al., 2011). The detailed comparisons are shown in Table
300 S4. In contrast to these studies, a study conducted in India in 2015 reported concentrations of DDT
301 in fresh milk samples with a mean value 1.6 ng mL⁻¹ (Bedi et al., 2015) which is almost in
302 agreement with the findings of the present study.

303 Cis-Nonachlor and Endosulfan-II were not detected in any of the analyzed milk samples.
304 The inability to detect Σ Endosulfans in milk samples might be restriction on its use in Pakistan
305 (Hassan et al., 2015). Aldrin was detected in samples with a mean concentration of 1.15 ng mL⁻¹.
306 This concentration is higher than the studies conducted in Romania and Egypt; 0.63 ng mL⁻¹ and
307 0.382 ng mL⁻¹ respectively (Farag Malhat, 2012; M. Miclean et al., 2017) but is much lower than
308 a study conducted in Nigeria in 2019; 29 ng mL⁻¹ (Ibigbami et al., 2019).

309 The presence of high percentages of various OCPs in the bovine milk suggests that animals
310 are still being exposed to OCPs, the most likely route being through contaminated feedstuffs, either
311 as a result of the fact that many of these pesticides remain in the market even after being banned
312 or due to their storage and use or their persistence in the environment after use (Rainbow Vogt et
313 al., 2012). Among all of the selected OCPs, most of the compounds were in accordance with
314 MRLs. However, the observed concentration of OCPs could be due to their extensive use,

315 particularly during the cultivation of seasonal crops(Khan et al., 2020). High concentrations of
316 OCPs in the bovine milk revealed the increase and improper use of these pesticides by the farmer.
317 A continuous monitoring program is needed in future to check the profile of these compounds in
318 animals milk and other environmental components.

319 **3.2. Spatial distribution patterns of OCPs in the bovine milk**

320 Statistical analysis indicated the concentration of OCPs differs significantly ($p>0.05$)
321 between various districts of Punjab, Pakistan. Cluster analysis (Figure 2a) indicted two clusters in
322 terms of buffaloes milk, group 1 includes the districts; Sahiwal, Okara, Kasur, Lahore and Sialkot,
323 whereas group 2 includes Gujrat, Faisalabad and Multan. Furthermore, three groups of cities were
324 identified with regard to OCPs in cows milk (Figure 2b). Cluster 1 represented Sahiwal and Okara,
325 cluster 2 Kasur, Lahore, Gujranwala and the third cluster included Sialkot, Faisalabad and Multan.
326 The reason for the different clusters might be the use of a similar type of pesticides on crops,
327 analogous topographic features and environmental behavior of study sites (Osman Tiryaki, 2010).
328 Furthermore, the soils that were heavily treated with OCPs in the past are still a good source of
329 OCPs (Fiedler et al., 2000). Previously, several researchers have also reported OCPs in soils of
330 Pakistan. (Syed and Malik, 2010; Jabir et al., 2013; Syed et al., 2013; Ali et al., 2020).

331 The spatial distribution trends (Figures 3a and 3b) depicted that the Okara district showed
332 the highest level of OCPs ($27.625 \text{ ng mL}^{-1}$) in buffaloes milk followed by Kasur and Multan with
333 a mean concentration of 25.4 ng mL^{-1} and 24.19 ng mL^{-1} respectively. Concerning cows milk,
334 Kasur district showed the maximum mean concentration (77.93 ng mL^{-1}). Multan and Gujranwala
335 showed nearly the same contamination status with a mean concentration of 60.99 ng mL^{-1} and
336 59.82 ng mL^{-1} respectively. While the cows milk from Okara district also contains higher values
337 of the OCPs (54.88 ng mL^{-1}). Okara district has both fertile agricultural lands and a number of

338 agriculture-based industrial units. Large quantities and variety of pesticides and insecticides usage
339 had been reported in this area (Rafique et al., 2016). The district is also one of the best milk
340 producing districts of Punjab (Muhammad Naeem Tahir, 2019) thus supports the findings of the
341 present study.

342 **3.3. Relevant sources of OCPs in the bovine milk**

343 In this study, samples from different local environment such as urban areas and dairy farms,
344 showed the presence of OCP residues in milk. Based on the isomer specific ratio, it has been
345 reported previously that it is possible to trace the sources of Σ HCHs by using the ratio α -HCH/ γ -
346 HCH. If the ratio α -HCH/ γ -HCH is greater than 4 it will suggest the fresh input of HCH and vice
347 versa (Jabir et al., 2013). The α -HCH/ γ -HCH value less than 3 indicates Lindane as a source of
348 HCHs, while the α -HCH/ γ -HCH ratio ranging between 3 and 7 is an indicator of technical HCHs
349 (Sun et al., 2010).

350 In the present study the ratio of α -HCH/ γ -HCH for all the samples were less than 4 which
351 suggested the historic use of HCH mixture. Moreover, the percentage of γ -HCH > α -HCH, ranging
352 between 0.09 - 1.07 indicates usage of Lindane or γ -HCH.. Lindane is widely used in Pakistan
353 for agricultural applications (Baqar et al., 2018), also for medicinal purpose as scabicide (Daud et
354 al., 2010; Ishaq and Nawaz, 2018), and possibly the reason for the high detected HCHs in the milk
355 of buffaloes and cows of selected districts.

356 The ratio $4,4'$ -DDT/($4,4'$ -DDE + $4,4'$ -DDD) can also provide a measure of historical and more
357 recent use <1 suggests the inputs of technical DDTs while values >1 suggest recent use (Jabir et
358 al., 2013). The buffaloes milk samples from all the studied districts of the present study except
359 Lahore showed values less than 1 which implies that recent application of DDTs is still being
360 done in Lahore. . For cow milk samples, the calculated ratio was greater than 1 in Kasur,

361 Gujranwala and Multan districts which indicated the recent use of DDTs whereas other districts
362 didn't show results for recent use of DDT. However, the detection frequency of DDTs was less
363 than 50% so it should be carefully interpreted while comparing with previous work. So far,
364 previous studies from Pakistan confirmed the usage of DDTs in different environmental matrices
365 as insecticide and pesticides (Huma Naeem, 2014; Randhawa et al., 2016). DDT can be
366 biodegraded into DDD by dechlorination (a reduction process) under anaerobic conditions and to
367 DDE under aerobic conditions through dehydrochlorination, an oxidative process (Jabir et al.,
368 2013). Since DDT is known to undergo metabolic conversion and dehydrochlorination, the
369 presence of metabolites of DDT *i.e.* DDD and DDE encountered in a previous study that is in
370 agreement with the current work might be due to reported processes (Aslam et al., 2013). The
371 DDD/DDE ratio (Eqani et al., 2011) also exceeded one for some districts for both buffaloes and
372 cows, highlighting the high proportion of DDD in the environment and indicating anaerobic
373 environmental conditions (Ullah et al., 2019a) in district Kasur, Sialkot, Gujrat and Multan. A high
374 DDT/DDE ratio (>1) symbolizes chronic and an ongoing exposure of DDT. Conversely, a low
375 DDT/DDE ratio (<1) implies high environmental persistence and continuing bioaccumulation
376 (Ahlborg et al., 1995; Jaga and Dharmani, 2003). In the present study, a high value of DDT/DDE
377 ratio was observed in some districts including Kasur, Lahore, Gujranwala and Multan. The detailed
378 calculated ratios are presented in Table S5.

379 **3.4 Human Health risk**

380 **3.4.1. Non-Carcinogenic risk**

381 Non-Carcinogenic risk can be evaluated by comparing EDI with an ADI for OCPs
382 (Dougherty et al., 2000; Wang et al., 2011). The obtained values for EDI of investigated OCPs,
383 through consumption of milk, for adults and children in Punjab province of Pakistan, were far

384 below ADI values set by the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) and also from the values set
385 by joint interaction of Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) and World Health Organization
386 (WHO) (FAO and WHO, 2002; EFSA, 2013) for different compounds which are given in Table
387 S6. For each investigated OCP for milk consumption, the EDI varied ($EDI_{\text{children}} > EDI_{\text{adults}}$).

388 In the present study, Aldrin had value below ADI i.e. $10.90 \text{ ng mL}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ for adults and 23.61
389 $\text{ ng mL}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ for children in buffaloes. Similar trend was noticed for the cows milk i.e. 11.50 ng mL^{-1}
390 d^{-1} in adults and $24.91 \text{ ng mL}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in children. HCHs, DDD and DDT depicted relatively higher
391 values as compared to other studied OCPs but all the values were lower than the ADIs. The
392 comparison depicted that EDI of the present study was lower than the values given in previously
393 published study from Egypt in Buffaloes and Cows milk (Raslan, 2018).. On the contrary, a study
394 conducted in Romania (M. Miclean et al., 2017) showed lower EDIs for adults i.e male (α -
395 HCH=0.00034, β -HCH=0.00138, γ -HCH= 0.00039, 4,4'-DDE= 0.00142, 4,4'-DDD= 0.00002,
396 4,4'-DDT= 0.00008, Endosulfan-I= 0.00009 and Endosulfan-II= 0.00007 $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$), female (α -
397 HCH=0.0004, β -HCH= 0.00180, γ -HCH= 0.00051, 4,4'-DDE= 0.00184, 4,4'-DDD = 0.00003,
398 4,4'-DDT= 0.00009, Endosulfan-I= 0.00011, and Endosulfan-II= 0.00009 $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$) and
399 children (α -HCH=0.00185, β -HCH=0.00748, γ -HCH= 0.00213, 4,4'-DDE= 0.00768, 4,4'-DDD=
400 0.00011 and 4,4'-DDT= 0.00008, 0.00009, 0.00039, Endosulfan-I= 0.00009, 0.00011, 0.00046
401 and Endosulfan-II= 0.00038 $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ which is equal to $\text{ ng mL}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$) respectively as compared to
402 the present work (Table S6). Studies conducted in Turkey (Bulut et al., 2011) showed an agreement
403 with the current work. Thus, the humans in the major districts of Punjab, Pakistan may be safe,
404 nevertheless the sample size, number of studied OCPs, geographical location and the possibility
405 that OCPs act differently in a mixture, can not be neglected.

406 3.4.2. Carcinogenic risk

407 The calculated HR greater than 1 revealed the potential human health risks (Dougherty et
408 al., 2000). Table 1 provides the HR calculated for the current study in adults and kids. It was
409 observed that γ -HCH, DDD and \sum DDTs exhibited HR values > 1 in adults for cow milk samples.
410 In 50th value δ -HCH has value greater than 1 and for 90th percentile of cow milk values for adults,
411 δ -HCH, DDD, DDT and \sum DDTs show carcinogenic risk, whereas, the HR values of DDD for 90th
412 percentile showed values greater than 1 in case of buffaloes milk. In case of children consuming
413 cow's milk, cancer threat (HR value > 1) was observed. γ -HCH, δ -HCH, DDD, DDT and
414 overall \sum DDTs... Although, risk calculated for Aldrin in children is less than 1 (Table 1) but owing
415 to its carcinogenicity, neurotoxicity and lowest ADI (0.0001 mg kg⁻¹) it cannot be
416 neglected (Lozowicka et al., 2014).

417 The results of the present study were compared to a previous study on milk samples
418 acquired from Greek markets. In this work DDTs showed highest HR values in children of 1-3
419 years age (Tsakiris et al., 2015). Another study conducted in Egypt showed no carcinogenic risk
420 in milk samples of buffaloes and cows (Raslan, 2018). Similarly, a study conducted in Nigeria
421 showed no potential health risk to the human population consuming cows' milk (Ibigbami et al.,
422 2019). The observed varying trend might be due to different local and geographical features.

423 The values of HR higher than one suggest a potential risk to human health, especially health
424 of children. Risk posed to the health by individual congeners and isomers may have different
425 potency as compared to the risk posed by mixture of OCPs. Thus the results for human health risk
426 assessment should be considered and taken seriously by environmental protection agencies and
427 agricultural governmental authorities. It is also recommended to do continuous monitoring based
428 studies in future so that fresh inputs could be traced and these health risks could be avoided.

429 **Conclusion**

430 The present study highlights the concentration profile, health risk and sources of OCPs in
431 the Bovine milk from Punjab, Pakistan. The quantified OCPs depicted that, Σ HCH was the
432 dominant OCP with comparatively higher concentration as compared to national and international
433 studies followed by DDTs and Heptachlors. The spatial distribution patterns highlighted that
434 regarding isomers, highest HCHs were reported from Kasur and Multan. While the maximum
435 concentration of Σ DDTs was in Lahore. This significant variation could be due to native
436 conditions. The investigation of source reported the fresh inputs of DDTs in Lahore followed by
437 Kasur and Gujranwala and Multan. Except Lindane all the selected HCHs were used historically.
438 Noncarcinogenic risk for selected OCPs for both buffaloes and cows was within the available
439 acceptable risk levels, whereas γ -HCH/Lindane and Σ DDTs pose a considerable carcinogenic
440 threat to the children consuming milk of either buffaloes or cows. Pakistan is lacking in such
441 continuous monitoring surveys; thus, detailed investigation is recommended in future by
442 governmental sector.

443 **Acknowledgment and conflict of interest**

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451 **Supplementary material**

452 The related additional information can be found in the attached document.

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