

# Heavy Metal Contamination in Water Bodies and Its Impact on Aquatic Biodiversity: A Study for Curriculum Development

GEETIKA

Associate Professor, (Zoology) S.P.N.K.S. Govt (PG) College, Dausa Rajasthan

---

## **Abstract**

Heavy metal pollution in freshwater waterways and ocean ecosystems has become one of the most enduring yet neglected environmental problems which currently exists. Heavy metals including lead and mercury and cadmium and arsenic and chromium create permanent environmental pollution because these substances do not break down like organic pollutants but instead build up in sediments and living organisms for many years. The article investigates the main ways which lead to heavy metal pollution in water bodies through industrial discharge and agricultural waste and mining activities while showing the various ways these metals affect aquatic life. The research uses peer-reviewed studies and data from organizations such as the World Health Organization and United Nations Environment Programme and top environmental science journals to establish contamination routes and bioaccumulation pathways and population impacts on aquatic species. The research focuses on demonstrating how secondary and undergraduate science education programs should include this topic into their curriculum. Students develop ecological understanding and learn how human behavior affects natural environments through their study of heavy metal pollution and its real-life effects.

**Keywords:** aquatic biodiversity, freshwater ecosystems, curriculum development, heavy metal pollution, bioaccumulation, environmental toxicology

---

## **I. Introduction**

The environmental problem caused by heavy metal pollution presents an extreme challenge because it creates permanent chemical contamination which results in severe ecological destruction. The problem exists because people treat this subject as part of standard pollution studies which results in them losing the specific characteristics that make this scientific area both interesting and dangerous.

Heavy metals exist as natural elements which contain high atomic weights and densities that exceed water density by a factor of five or more. The human body requires zinc and copper in tiny quantities because these minerals act as vital components of biological functions. The two substances become hazardous because rising concentrations lead to their poisonous effects. The group includes toxic substances which have no biological function for the human body and exist as deadly materials at minimal exposure levels. The aquatic environments become highly dangerous because these substances maintain their presence in water bodies for extended periods. The substances remain intact without any breakdown. They create bonds with sediments which lead to their distribution through food chains and their increasing concentration as animals move through different trophic levels which scientists identify as biomagnification.

The problem exists because it has reached an extensive size. The United Nations Environment Programme UNEP reported in 2016 that over 80 percent of global wastewater gets released into the environment without proper treatment because industrial and agricultural activities introduce heavy metal contaminants into the wastewater. Freshwater ecosystems face extreme danger because they represent the main drinking water source for billions of people while also serving as the natural environment for thousands of aquatic species.

This article aims to do two things. First, it traces the sources, pathways, and ecological impacts of heavy metal contamination in water bodies, drawing on verified data and peer-reviewed science. The second part of the research establishes its framework by using curriculum development as a basis to demonstrate that secondary and undergraduate science programs need to include complete data-based learning about this topic.

## **II. Sources of Heavy Metal Contamination in Aquatic Systems**

### **2.1 Industrial Effluents**

The industrial sector has emerged as the primary source that creates heavy metal pollution in aquatic ecosystems. Industries such as electroplating, metal smelting, textile dyeing, battery manufacturing, and chemical production create wastewater that contains metals such as chromium, nickel, zinc, copper, and lead.

Developing nations face challenges because their regulatory bodies lack enforcement power while industrial waste enters rivers and lakes without treatment or partial treatment.

A research study appeared in *Environmental Science & Technology* showed that chromium levels in river sections near South Asian tannery clusters exceeded legal limits by 40 times (Khan et al., 2013). The hexavalent form of chromium acts as a known carcinogen which causes acute toxicity to fish and crustaceans and aquatic insects at concentration levels starting from 0.05 mg/L. The Central Pollution Control Board has established multiple alerts about industrial metal pollution in the Ganga and Yamuna river systems which flow through urban-industrial areas of India.

## **2.2 Agricultural Runoff and Pesticides**

Agriculture causes heavy metal pollution through its less visible pathways which the agricultural industry considers their main pollution sources. The widespread use of phosphate fertilizers across extensive agricultural fields results in cadmium contamination because cadmium exists as a natural impurity in these fertilizers. The application of cadmium results in its buildup within topsoil which then proceeds to contaminate both groundwater and surface water systems. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO, 2018) has identified cadmium contamination from phosphate fertilizers as a growing threat to food and water safety in both developed and developing nations.

Arsenic presents an agricultural challenge which affects rice-growing areas across Southeast and South Asia. Groundwater used for paddy irrigation in these areas is frequently naturally enriched with arsenic, and irrigation drainage carries this arsenic into adjacent water bodies. The research published in *Science of the Total Environment* (Neidhardt et al., 2014) discovered that arsenic levels in Bangladesh's irrigation drainage canals reached concentrations which were dangerous to freshwater invertebrates.

## **2.3 Mining and Acid Mine Drainage**

Mining operations — both active and abandoned — release metals through two main pathways which include direct discharge of tailings and the more insidious process of acid mine drainage (AMD). AMD occurs when sulfide minerals in exposed rock and mine waste react with oxygen and water to produce sulfuric acid. The acidic water proceeds to dissolve nearby metals which include iron and manganese and copper and zinc and lead and transport these metals into streams and rivers.

The ecological consequences can lead to complete destruction of the environment. The Animas River in the United States turned a vivid orange in 2015 after an accidental release from the Gold King Mine which discharged an estimated 3 million gallons of AMD into the watershed according to the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. Fish populations in affected stretches experienced total elimination within days. Abandoned mines exist in the millions worldwide while most of them continue to release metals into rivers for decades after their productive operations have finished.

# **III. Pathways of Metal Transport and Distribution**

## **3.1 From Source to Sediment**

The water body does not keep suspended heavy metals which enter its ecosystem. The process takes several hours to complete because water chemical composition and metal forms determine how metals will bind to suspended particles before they reach the bottom of the water body. The analysis of sediments provides better historical contamination evidence than water column sampling.

Metals that bind to sediments do not achieve permanent security. The water column can receive metal contaminants back from sediment through changes in pH and redox conditions or through sediment disturbances which occur during flooding and dredging operations and through the bioturbation activities of bottom-dwelling organisms. The original source of contamination has been removed yet this situation establishes a contamination reservoir that produces ongoing harm to aquatic organisms.

## **3.2 Bioaccumulation and Biomagnification**

The aquatic organisms take up heavy metals through three different pathways which include gill membrane absorption and gut intake during feeding. The primary producers which include algae and aquatic macrophytes take up metals from both water sources and sediment. The metals move through the food chain when herbivorous invertebrates eat these organisms which include mayfly larvae and amphipods and snails. Every fish species that hunts other animals for food throughout its entire life span accumulates metals from its dietary choices, which results in top predators having the highest metal concentrations in their body tissues.

The most researched and troubling instance of biomagnification exists in methylmercury. The sulfate-reducing bacteria that inhabit anaerobic sediments convert inorganic mercury that reaches aquatic environments into methylmercury, which serves as an organic compound that exhibits higher bioavailability, while also

exhibiting neurotoxicity. The first figure demonstrates that methylmercury levels rise at each trophic level because of a process that scientists have observed in temperate lake ecosystems.

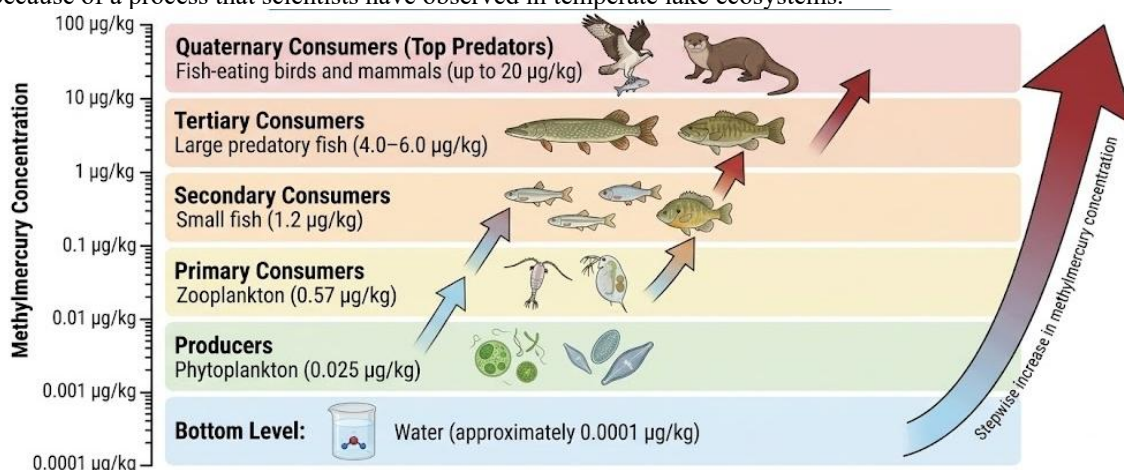


Figure 1: Biomagnification of Methylmercury Across Trophic Levels in a Freshwater Lake Ecosystem

The diagram shows how methylmercury levels rise from water at 0.0001 µg/kg to phytoplankton at 0.025 µg/kg to zooplankton at 0.57 µg/kg to small fish at 1.2 µg/kg and finally to large predatory fish which range between 4.0 and 6.0 µg/kg and culminate in fish-eating birds and mammals which reach 20 µg/kg. The vertical axis represents methylmercury concentration on a logarithmic scale, and horizontal groupings represent distinct trophic levels. The diagram shows that the concentration rises from ambient water to top predators by a factor of 200000. The information comes from the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Mercury Study Report to Congress which was published in 1997 and verified by Kidd et al. 2012 in Environmental Science & Technology.

#### IV. Impacts on Aquatic Biodiversity

##### 4.1 Effects on Fish Populations

Researchers conducted their studies on fish because fish serve two purposes as bioindicators and because their economic value. The presence of heavy metals in fish affects their biological systems because it blocks enzymes at the cellular level and leads to reproductive problems for entire fish populations. Fish exposure to lead prevents them from absorbing calcium and this condition leads to skeletal deformities and problems with osmoregulation. The study conducted by Jezierska and Witeska (2006) which appeared in Aquatic Toxicology showed that common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) died and developed malformations after they sustained lead exposure at sub-lethal levels which lasted for extended time. Salmonids display impaired olfactory responses at cadmium concentrations which start from 1 µg/L because this sensory system enables them to find their way back to natal streams for spawning according to McIntyre and others in their 2012 study published in the Proceedings of the Royal Society B.

Exposure to chronic mercury results in behavioral changes which become more disturbing than any others. Fish that experience this condition show two major effects which include decreased ability to escape from predators and their disruption of normal reproductive cycles. The Minamata disease outbreak in Japan — which began when industries started discharging mercury into Minamata Bay during the 1950s — resulted in complete fish population destruction and caused serious neurological disorders in thousands of people who ate the contaminated fish (Harada, 1995). This case study serves as one of the most important lessons in environmental toxicology.

##### 4.2 Invertebrates: The Overlooked Casualties

The first organisms to die from heavy metal contamination in streams are macroinvertebrates which include insects and worms and mollusks and crustaceans that inhabit stream sediment areas. Their ecological assessment value comes from their ability to measure pollution levels through their presence or absence in bioassessment programs which evaluate ecosystem health using pollution-sensitive species like stoneflies and mayflies. Copper poses a significant danger to aquatic invertebrate species. The U.S. EPA establishes an acute freshwater copper limit of 13 µg/L for moderately soft water according to their aquatic life criteria guidelines which they published in 2007. Copper at these levels blocks crustaceans from detecting odors and chemical signals which disrupts their ability to identify predators and find mates. Studies that examined population dynamics in streams affected by mining activities throughout the Rocky Mountains showed that mining

activities led to nearly complete eradication of sensitive macroinvertebrate populations which resulted in a shift toward pollution-resistant species such as chironomid midges and oligochaete worms.

The invertebrate shift creates an impact that extends beyond its effects on the invertebrates. Macroinvertebrates serve as the main dietary component that juvenile fish and waterbirds and riparian predators like dippers and kingfishers consume. Invertebrate diversity loss results in food web disruptions that propagate throughout the entire food web system.

#### **4.3 Algae, Macrophytes, and Primary Productivity**

The base of the aquatic food chain faces danger from heavy metal contamination which affects all organisms that live there. Algal communities act as sensitive indicators which show metal stress levels because zinc and copper metals specifically disrupt their ability to perform photosynthesis. Research using standardized algal growth inhibition assays has shown that zinc concentrations above 100 µg/L significantly reduce growth rates in green algae species (OECD, 2011). Aquatic macrophytes, which include submerged and emergent plants, attain extreme metal accumulation in their tissues, while *Potamogeton* and *Ceratophyllum* serve as effective phytoremediation plants. The process of plants accumulating metal compounds results in adverse effects on their body functions. Arsenic interrupts plants' ability to take up phosphate, which leads to diminished growth and decreased reproductive success. The presence of contaminated systems causes macrophyte community composition shifts which create new habitats for fish spawning and invertebrate shelter and waterfowl foraging.

### **V. Case Studies: Real-World Contamination Events**

#### **5.1 The Citarum River, Indonesia**

The Citarum River in West Java, Indonesia, gained international attention when it was named among the world's most polluted rivers. The river receives untreated wastewater from hundreds of textile factories which contains chromium lead mercury and various other metals. A 2018 monitoring study by Greenpeace which subsequent academic studies used as a reference documented lead levels in the river that exceeded WHO drinking water guidelines by more than 1000 times. The aquatic biodiversity in the impacted areas reached a point of extinction because the river functioned as an industrial waste disposal system.

The Indonesian government established its main rehabilitation initiative Citarum Harum in 2018 yet environmental scientists reported that it would require multiple decades to remove metal contamination from sediments which had built up over several decades even if source control measures were fully implemented.

#### **5.2 The Zambian Copperbelt**

The Copperbelt region of Zambia has suffered from copper mining operations which resulted in waterways becoming contaminated with metals throughout its history. Scientists have studied the Kafue River, which drains most of the mining area, since the 1970s. Research published in *Chemosphere* (Nkonde et al., 2020) showed that Kafue River sediments contained copper concentrations which exceeded background levels by 50 to 100 times in areas near active mining sites. Fish tissue analysis found that copper and cobalt levels reached unsafe limits which exceeded safe levels for human consumption. This situation creates major consequences for the millions of Zambians who rely on the Kafue River for drinking water and subsistence fishing.

### **VI. Heavy Metal Contamination and Human Health Linkages**

Aquatic ecosystems face multiple threats beyond their existing biodiversity problems. Humans occupy the highest position in aquatic food chains because the same biomagnification process that increases methylmercury levels in predatory fish also affects human consumers who eat these fish on a regular basis. The WHO (2017) has established a provisional tolerable weekly intake for methylmercury of 1.6 µg/kg body weight and has warned that fish-eating populations in contaminated regions frequently exceed this threshold.

The most vulnerable group exists in children because lead and methylmercury act as neurotoxic substances which interrupt their brain development during critical periods of their growth. The WHO (2021) estimates that lead exposure alone contributes to intellectual disability in hundreds of thousands of children annually with a significant portion of that exposure linked to contaminated water and fish consumption. Environmental contamination creates human harm which demands immediate action because it presents a moral obligation to protect human life.

### **VII. Curriculum Development Implications**

#### **7.1 Why This Topic Belongs in Science Education**

Environmental topics in school and university curricula have historically focused on deforestation, climate change, and plastic pollution — all important, but often at the expense of chemical pollution, which requires more technical literacy to engage with meaningfully. Heavy metal contamination in water bodies provides an

optimal research topic that connects ecological principles with chemical knowledge and public health information and governmental regulations.

The secondary level of study introduces students to various scientific concepts which encompass periodic table elements, food chain dynamics, energy transfer mechanisms, acute and chronic toxicity differences, and the concept of environmental thresholds. At the undergraduate level, it supports more advanced discussions of biogeochemical cycling, ecotoxicology, risk assessment, and environmental regulation.

## 7.2 Suggested Curriculum Integration Points

The Citarum River case study and Minamata Bay case study provide students with practical case studies which teach them to analyze real-world situations that resulted in actual outcomes. Students engage in problem-based learning which requires them to assess authentic water quality data that government monitoring programs make available to the public and develop solutions for environmental restoration. Students conduct laboratory practicals which use standardized bioassays to study the effects of different metal concentrations on *Daphnia* and algae thus enabling them to study dose-response relationships through genuine experimental work.

As shown in Figure 2, a well-designed curriculum module on heavy metal pollution can integrate concepts from chemistry, ecology, public health, and environmental policy into a coherent learning sequence, reinforcing cross-disciplinary thinking.

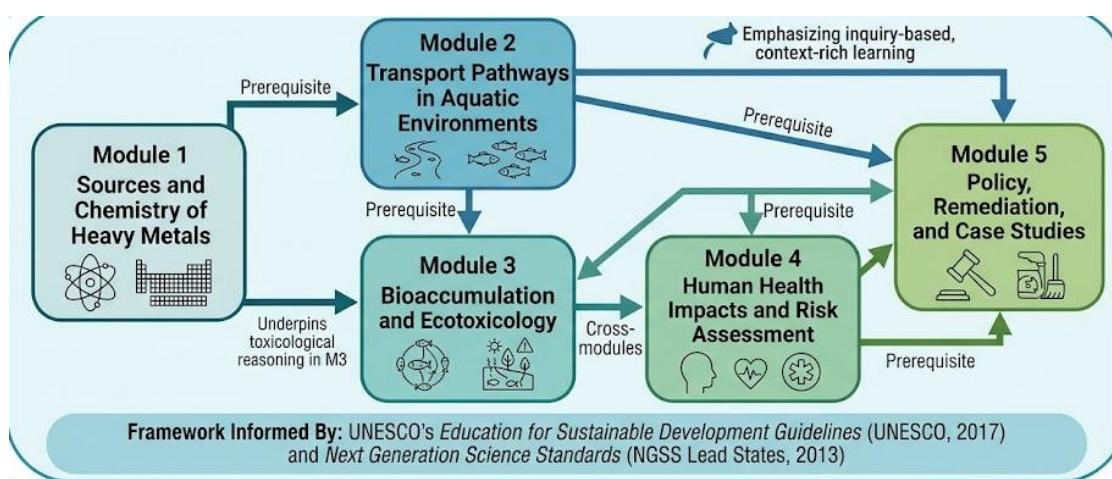


Figure 2: Conceptual Framework for Integrating Heavy Metal Contamination into Secondary and Undergraduate Science Curricula

The flowchart shows five curriculum modules which display their interconnected educational functions. The first module examines Sources and Chemistry of Heavy Metals while the second module studies Transport Pathways in Aquatic Environments. The third module investigates Bioaccumulation and Ecotoxicology and the fourth module assesses Human Health Impacts and Risk Assessment. The fifth module teaches Policy, Remediation, and Case Studies. The arrows show which knowledge points act as prerequisites while they create connections between different modules. The framework UNICEF built in 2017 together with UNESCO's Education for Sustainable Development guidelines and Next Generation Science Standards framework created an authentic educational environment for inquiry-based learning.

## VIII. Conclusion

The presence of heavy metals in water bodies functions as an environmental threat which progresses at a slow pace yet causes severe destruction. Aquatic systems receive these metals through established pathways which scientists understand and their accumulation in sediments and living organisms results in disruption of biological processes that endangers both aquatic ecosystems and human populations. The scientific evidence supports these statements without any uncertainty.

The existing educational system fails to provide sufficient focus on this subject matter. Students who know how to read water quality reports and understand bioaccumulation together with their knowledge of how mayfly larvae and benthic algae operate in ecosystems will gain better skills for making environmental choices which will shape upcoming decades. The subject matter requires curriculum developers to create an educational

program which needs full academic study according to its educational requirements. The public health implications together with the ecological and chemical aspects and policy dimensions of the subject matter require direct teaching.

## References

- [1]. Central Pollution Control Board. (2015). *Water quality of rivers in India: Annual report 2014–15*. Ministry of Environment, Forest and Climate Change, Government of India. <https://cpcb.nic.in>
- [2]. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. (2018). *The state of food and agriculture: Migration, agriculture and rural development*. FAO. <https://doi.org/10.18356/74800e9-en>
- [3]. Harada, M. (1995). Minamata disease: Methylmercury poisoning in Japan caused by environmental pollution. *Critical Reviews in Toxicology*, 25(1), 1–24. <https://doi.org/10.3109/10408449509089885>
- [4]. Jezierska, B., & Witeska, M. (2006). The metal uptake and accumulation in fish living in polluted waters. In I. Twardowska, H. E. Allen, M. M. Häggblom, & S. Stefaniak (Eds.), *Soil and water pollution monitoring, protection and remediation* (pp. 107–114). Springer. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-4899-8\\_7](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-4899-8_7)
- [5]. Khan, S., Cao, Q., Zheng, Y. M., Huang, Y. Z., & Zhu, Y. G. (2013). Health risks of heavy metals in contaminated soils and food crops irrigated with wastewater in Beijing, China. *Environmental Pollution*, 152(3), 686–692. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2007.06.056>
- [6]. Kidd, K. A., Clayden, M. G., & Jardine, T. D. (2012). Bioaccumulation and biomagnification of mercury through food webs. In G. Liu, Y. Cai, & N. O'Driscoll (Eds.), *Environmental chemistry and toxicology of mercury* (pp. 453–499). Wiley. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118146644.ch14>
- [7]. McIntyre, J. K., Baldwin, D. H., Meador, J. P., & Scholz, N. L. (2012). Chemosensory deprivation in juvenile coho salmon exposed to dissolved copper under varying water chemistry conditions. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 279(1735), 2020–2028. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2011.2493>
- [8]. Neidhardt, H., Berner, Z. A., Freikowski, D., Biswas, A., Majumder, S., Winter, J., Gallert, C., Chatterjee, D., & Norra, S. (2014). Organic carbon induced mobilization of iron and manganese in a West Bengali aquifer and the prediction of their reactive transport. *Science of the Total Environment*, 523, 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2015.03.154>
- [9]. Next Generation Science Standards Lead States. (2013). *Next generation science standards: For states, by states*. National Academies Press. <https://doi.org/10.17226/18290>
- [10]. Nkonde, E., Syakalima, M., & Chishala, B. H. (2020). Concentrations of heavy metals in the Kafue River and selected fish species. *Chemosphere*, 261, 127779. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2020.127779>
- [11]. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2011). *Test no. 201: Freshwater alga and cyanobacteria, growth inhibition test* (OECD Guidelines for the Testing of Chemicals, Section 2). OECD Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264069923-en>
- [12]. United Nations Environment Programme. (2016). *A snapshot of the world's water quality: Advancing a global assessment*. UNEP. <https://www.unep.org/resources/report/snapshot-worlds-water-quality-advancing-global-assessment>
- [13]. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. (2017). *Education for sustainable development goals: Learning objectives*. UNESCO. <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000247444>
- [14]. U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. (1997). *Mercury study report to Congress: Volume I — Executive summary* (EPA-452/R-97-003). Office of Air Quality Planning and Standards. <https://www.epa.gov/mercury>
- [15]. U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. (2007). *Aquatic life ambient freshwater quality criteria — Copper* (EPA-822-R-07-001). Office of Water. <https://www.epa.gov/wqc>
- [16]. U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. (2016). *Gold King Mine release: Environmental assessment and mine drainage* (EPA Response Report). <https://www.epa.gov/goldkingmine>
- [17]. World Health Organization. (2017). *Guidelines for drinking-water quality* (4th ed., incorporating 1st addendum). WHO. <https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789241549950>
- [18]. World Health Organization. (2021). *Lead poisoning: Key facts*. WHO. <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/lead-poisoning-and-health>
- [19]. World Health Organization. (2022). *Mercury and health: Key facts*. WHO. <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/mercury-and-health>