



International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research and Growth Evaluation.

A Review paper on: Heavy metals accumulation in soil and their remediation

Mohd Mohasin ^{1*}, Dr. Khalid Habib ², Dr. Smriti Rao ³

¹⁻³ Integral Institute of Agricultural Science & Technology, Integral University Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh, India

* Corresponding Author: Mohd Mohasin

Article Info

ISSN (online): 2582-7138

Volume: 03

Issue: 01

January-February 2022

Received: 29-12-2021;

Accepted: 16-01-2022

Page No: 336-341

Abstract

Natural contamination by sustainable metals from automobiles has accomplished a lot of attention in recent years. The weighty metals can weaken significant biochemical cycles influencing the plant development and advancement. Traffic-related pollutants have consequences for the climate. As the metropolitan region has high populace thickness and concentrated anthropogenic exercises, there are an extraordinary number of sources of weighty metals in urban communities, setting an impressive impact on human wellbeing. Outflows of substantial metals might come from home grown waste, chemical industry and transportation. These emanations have been ceaselessly adding substantial metals to soils and they will stay present for a long time even after the contamination sources have been taken out.

Keywords: Anthropogenic, Contamination, Substantial

Introduction

The most fundamental material reason for human endurance and advancement is land. Developed land is the important transporter for agrarian creation. A specific sum and nature of developed land is the regular reason for crop creation and the major assurance of food security. Lately, under the authentic foundation of urbanization, industrialization, and agrarian modernization, the pattern of non-agricultural development of land and rural workforce has heightened, the extent of non-direct utilization of rural items has expanded, which prompts the environmental issues, particularly the heavy metal defilement of farmland (Adimalla., 2020 and Zhang *et al.*, 2016) ^[2, 62]. In the process of human daily life and industrial production all kinds of wastes including solid waste, waste gas and wastewater, which contain heavy metals that are difficult to degrade are discharged. Heavy metals accumulate in organisms through contact or food chain, which not only threatens human beings, but also threatens ecosystem health (Bing *et al.*, 2019 and He *et al.*, 2016) ^[11]. Albeit heavy metals are normally happening components that are found all through the world's outside layer, most ecological tainting and human openness result from anthropogenic exercises like mining and purifying activities, modern creation and use, and home grown and agrarian utilization of metals and metal-containing compounds (Tchounwou *et al.*, 2012) ^[55]. Environmental contamination can also occur through metal corrosion, atmospheric deposition, soil erosion of metal ions and leaching of heavy metals, sediment re-suspension and metal evaporation from water resources to soil and ground water. It has been reported that metals such as cobalt (Co), copper (Cu), iron (Fe), magnesium (Mg), manganese (Mn), molybdenum (Mo), nickel (Ni) and zinc (Zn) are essential nutrients that are required for various biochemical and physiological functions (WHO.1996) ^[49]. Inadequate supply of these micro-nutrients results in a variety of deficiency diseases or syndromes (WHO.1996) ^[49]. Metal ions have been found to communicate with cell parts like DNA and nuclear proteins, causing DNA harm and conformational changes that might prompt cell cycle regulation, carcinogenesis or apoptosis (Tchounwou *et al.*, 2012) ^[55]. A few investigations from our research facility have shown that responsive oxygen species (ROS) creation and oxidative pressure assume a critical part in the harmfulness and cancer-causing nature of metals like arsenic, cadmium, chromium, lead and mercury (Tchounwou *et al.*, 2012) ^[55]. On account of their serious level of harmfulness, these five components rank among the need metals that are of incredible general wellbeing importance. They are altogether foundational poisons that are known to actuate various Organ harm even at lower levels of openness.

According to the United States Environmental Protection Agency (U.S. EPA), and the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC).

These metals are also classified as either “known” or “probable” human carcinogens based on epidemiological and experimental studies showing an association between exposure and cancer incidence in humans and animals. The defilement of soil with heavy metals is a genuine ecological danger and one of the most squeezing natural issues on the planet (Forley *et al.*, 2011, Muller *et al.*, 2012, Amundom *et al.*, 2015 and Xu *et al.*, 2019)^[61]. It is to a great extent because of anthropogenic exercises like mining and handling of metal minerals, consuming of non-renewable energy sources, the utilization of composts including sewage slop and pesticides, transport, and numerous other modern cycles (Pendias *et al.*, 2021). Heavy metal content can be affected by the interaction of soil physicochemical properties such as soil pH, soil granularity (Nska *et al.*, 2016 and Asiorek *et al.*, 2017). Organic matter content, and heavy metal storage capacity, which play an important role in the retention, mobilization, and migration of heavy metals in soil (Weber *et al.*, 2018). It is truly challenging to re-establish the dirt climate assuming the soil is polluted with heavy metals. Heavy metals in the soil likewise influence plant development. Metals such as chromium (Cr), mercury (Hg), arsenic (As), lead (Pb), and cadmium (Cd) are toxic to most plants and other organisms at higher concentrations (Wang *et al.*, 2021). Cadmium is a highly toxic element that affects plant growth, metabolism, and condition (Divan *et al.*, 2009). Lead is not an essential element for plants; it tends to accumulate in plant roots and cause toxicity (Siedlecka *et al.*, 2001). Vegetation and soil samples are the most economical and easiest ways to assess heavy metals pollution in roadsides (Y *et al.*, 2018, Y *et al.*, 2019 and Iqbal *et al.*, 2021)^[30], some other plants (Y *et al.*, 2021 and Aboubakar *et al.*, 2021)^[11], grasses (Gucel *et al.*, 2009)^[25] and few other organisms like fish (Nwude *et al.*, 2020 and Köse *et al.*, 2020)^[32, 43] have been used to monitor heavy metal pollution. Because of relative significance of wild plants and places, current review was led to derive heavy metal aggregation limit of various wild species growing alongside of the road heavy metals can collect and relocate in the dirt climate. Metal pollutants in soil might be consumed by the plants through their underlying foundations and vascular system. Collection of metals in soil could influence the environment security and represent a danger to animals, plants, and human. High convergences of metals in the plant could repress the capacity of the plant to deliver chlorophyll, increment the plant oxidative pressure and debilitate stomata obstruction (Ashraf *et al.*, 2011)^[6]. Plants growing at the side of the road might be presented to undeniable degrees of metal contamination, particularly vehicle emanations and trace content in the air (Feng *et al.*, 2011)^[23] proposed heavy metal from traffic emanation might aggregate in side of the road plants from the soil. In the meantime, different analysts detailed airborne heavy metal could be stored and assimilated on the leafy part (Nabulo *et al.*, 2006 and Shahid *et al.*, 2017)^[42].

Sources of Heavy Metals in the Environment

Sources of heavy metals in the environment can be both natural/geogenic/lithogenic and anthropogenic. The regular or topographical wellsprings of heavy metals in the climate incorporate enduring of metal-bearing rocks and volcanic emissions. The worldwide patterns of industrialization and

urbanization on Earth have prompted an expansion in the anthropogenic portion of heavy metals in the climate (Naga Jyoti *et al.*, 2010). The anthropogenic wellsprings of heavy metals in the climate incorporate mining and modern and agrarian exercises. These metals (heavy metals) are set during mining and extraction of various components free from their particular minerals. Weighty metals delivered to the environment during mining, refining, and other modern cycles return to the land through dry and wet affidavit. Release of wastewaters, for example, modern effluents and homegrown sewage add heavy metals to the climate. Use of chemical fertilizer and ignition of petroleum derivatives likewise add to the anthropogenic contribution of weighty metals in the climate. With respect to of heavy metals in business compound composts, phosphate manures are especially important. In general, phosphate manures are created from phosphate rock (PR) by acidulation. In the acidulation of single superphosphate (SSP), sulphuric acid is utilized, while in acidulation of triple superphosphate (TSP), phosphoric acid is utilized (Dissanayake *et al.*, 2009)^[15]. The eventual outcome contains every one of the heavy metals present as constituents in the phosphate rock (Mortvedt., 1996)^[15]. Commercial inorganic fertilizers, particularly phosphate fertilizers, can potentially contribute to the global transport of heavy metals (Carnelo *et al.*, 1997)^[36]. Heavy metals added to agricultural soils through inorganic fertilizers may leach into groundwater and contaminate it (Dissanayake *et al.*, 2009)^[15]. Phosphate fertilizers are particularly rich in toxic heavy metals. The two main pathways for transfer of toxic heavy metals from phosphate fertilizers to the human body are shown below (Dissanayake *et al.*, 2009)^[15].

Phosphate rock = fertilizer = soil = plant = food = human body
Phosphate rock = fertilizer = water = human body

Ignition of petroleum products in industries, homes, and transportation is an anthropogenic wellspring of heavy metals. Vehicle traffic is among the major anthropogenic wellsprings of heavy metals like Cr, Zn, Cd, and Pb (Ferretti *et al.*, 1995)^[39]. Higher centralization of ecologically significant substantial metals has been accounted for in soils and plants along streets in metropolitan and metropolitan regions. As to wellsprings of heavy metals, emanations from coal burning and other ignition processes are vital (Merian *et al.*, 1984)^[22]. During coal combustion, Cd, Pb, and As are partially volatile, while Hg is fully volatile. The anthropogenic sources of Cr include electroplating industries, leather tanneries, textile industries, and steel industries (P. R. Palaniappan and S. Karthikeyan., 2009). Globally, about 50,000 t/year of Cr may be emitted from coal combustion, wood burning, and refuse incineration (E. Merian., 1984)^[22]. Fertilizers also usually contain significant contents of Cr (Krüger *et al.*, 2017)^[45]. Worldwide, around 60,000 t/year of Ni might be produced from coal ignition; its greater portion remains in the ash (E. Merian. 1984)^[22]. The regular wellsprings of Cd in the climate are volcanic activity and enduring of rocks, though an anthropogenic source is nonferrous metal mining, particularly handling of Pb-Zn mine minerals (M. Hutton. 1984)^[40]. Globally, about 7,000 t/year of Cd may be emitted from coal combustion, and sewage sludge incineration is also a source of Cd (E. Merian. 1984)^[22]. Anthropogenic expansions in Cd fixations are additionally brought about by inordinate utilization of chemical fertilizer (Wang *et al.*, 2015)^[21]. P-containing fertilizer contain Compact Cd as a toxin at focuses going from follow amounts to 300 ppm on dry weight premise and

consequently might be a primary wellspring of contribution of this metal to agricultural frameworks (C. A. Grant and S. C. Sheppard, 2008) ^[13]. Pb is set to the climate free from various sources including corrosive batteries, old pipes frameworks, and lead shots utilized for hunting of game

birds. Burning of leaded fuel is likewise a wellspring of Pb in the climate. Despite the fact that utilization of the tetraethyl lead as an antiknock specialist in fuel has been restricted, it is as yet utilized in some creating locales of the world.

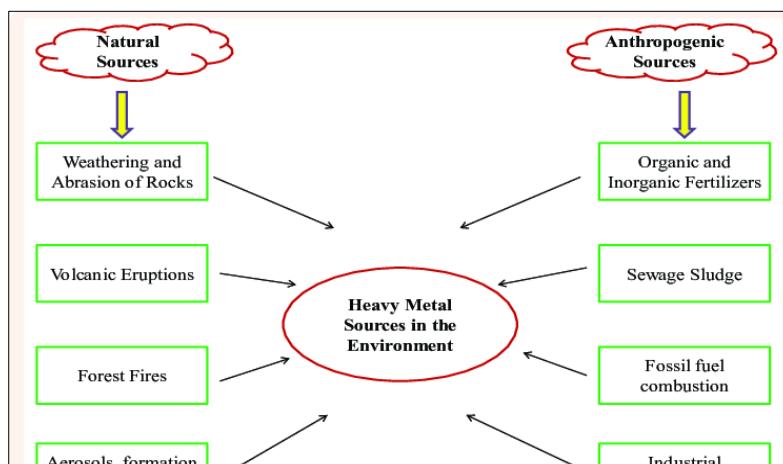


Fig 1

Translocation of Heavy Metals in Plants

There are series of cycles associated with amassing of heavy metal in plants, including heavy metal mobilization, root take-up, xylem stacking, root-to-shoot transport, cell compartmentation, and sequestration. Heavy metal generally exists as insoluble structure in soil, which isn't bioavailable to plants. Plants can build their bioavailability by delivering an assortment of root exudates, which can change rhizosphere pH and increment weighty metal solvency (Dalvi and Bhalerao.,2013) ^[18]

The bioavailable metal is sorbed at the root surface and gets across the cell layer into the root cells. The take-up of heavy metals into roots happens for the most part through two pathways, apoplastic pathway (passive diffusion) and symplastic pathway (active transport against electrochemical expected angles and fixation across the plasma film). The normal take-up of heavy metals by means of symplastic pathway is an energy-subordinate cycle interceded by metal particle transporters or complexing specialists (Peer et. al., 2005) ^[47].

Subsequent to going into root cells, heavy metal particles can shape buildings with different chelators, like organic acids. These shaped edifices including carbonate, sulfate, and phosphate encourage, are then immobilized in the extracellular space (apoplastic cell dividers) or intracellular spaces (symplastic compartments, like vacuoles) (Ali et. al., 2013).

The metal particles sequestered inside the vacuoles might move into the stem and go into the xylem stream by means of the root symplasm (Thakur et. al., 2016) ^[57] and along these lines are moved to the shoots through xylem vessels. Through apoplast or symplast, they are moved and circulated in leaves, where the ions are sequestered in extracellular compartments (cell walls) or plant vacuole, in this way forestalling gathering of free metal ions in cytosol (Tong et. al., 2004) ^[58].

Heavy Metal Ion Transporter

Take-up and movement of heavy metal in plant is intervened by an assortment of atoms, including metal ion carriers and complexing specialists. These specific carriers (channel

proteins) or H^+ coupled transporter proteins are situated in the plasma layer of the root cell and are fundamental for the take-up of heavy metal particles from soil. They can move explicit metals across cell films and intervene convergence efflux of metal movement from roots to shoots (Dal Corso et al., 2019). As indicated by arrangement homology, metal carriers recognized, up until now, have been ordered into a few families, like ZIP, HMAs, MTPs, and NRAMPs. Carriers of the ZIP family (ZRT-IRT-like proteins) are associated with heavy metal collection processes including take-up and transport of numerous cations (e.g., Fe, Mn, and Zn) from root to shoot (Guerinot., 2000) ^[26]. For example, Zn hyper accumulator *Thlaspi caerulescens* and *Arabidopsis halleri* roots have enhanced Zn uptake in comparison to non-hyperaccumulator species, which is correlated with enhanced expression of some ZIP family members in hyper accumulator (Assunção et al., 2001). The P1B-type ATPases of heavy metal shipping ATPases (HMAs) carrier family are associated with the vehicle of heavy metals (like Zn, Cd, Co, and Pb) and assume a crucial part in metal homeostasis and resilience (Axelsen and Palmgren., 2001) ^[8] (Williams and Mills., 2005) ^[60]. HMA3, a vacuolar P1B-ATPase, is involved in compartmentation of Zn, Cd, Co, and Pb by regulating their sequestration into the vacuole (Williams and Mills., 2005, Hanikenne and Baurain., 2014) ^[60, 28]. One more carrier of the family, HMA4, is associated with significant distance root-to-shoot movement of Zn and Cd (Verret et. al., 2004) ^[59]. Over expression of HMA4 improved Cd and Zn efflux from the root symplasm into the xylem vessels and advanced metal resistance. One more gathering of carriers that firmly control metal homeostasis is metal carrier proteins (MTPs) family, which is associated with the movement of metals (like Zn and Ni) toward inner compartments and extracellular space (Gustin et. al., 2011) ^[27]. MTP1, a vacuolar Zn^{2+}/H^+ antiporter, which localized at both vacuolar and plasma membrane, is involved in Zn accumulation as well as Zn tolerance (Desbrosses-Fonrouge et. al., 2005) ^[19]. MTP members are also involved in Ni vacuolar storage in *Thlaspi goesingense* (Persans et. al., 2001). The naturally resistant associated macrophage proteins (NRAMPs) are also

involved in the transport of many heavy metal ions including Cu^{2+} , Mn^{2+} , Co^{2+} , Fe^{2+} , and Cd^{2+} (Supek et al., 1997; Cailliatte et al., 2010, Bastow et al., 2018) [56, 14, 19]. AtNRAMP1 is localized in the plasma membrane and mediates Fe and Mn transport (Cailliatte et al., 2010) [14]. NRAMP3 and NRAMP4 are localized in the tonoplast and mediate the export of stored Fe from the vacuole in germinating seed (Bastow et al., 2018) [19]. Other than metal ion carrier, complexing specialists including natural acids and amino acids go about as metal ligands to intercede chelation of heavy metal particles. For instance, citrate is a significant chelator for Fe and Ni in the xylem (Tiffin., 1970 and Lee et al., 1977) [46]. While Ni may likewise be chelated by histidine (Krämer et al., 1996) [33].

Remediation Process

The cleaning of defiled soils from heavy metals is the most troublesome errand, especially for a large scale. The soil is made out of organic and inorganic strong constituents, water and combination of various gases present in different extents. The mineral parts differ as indicated by parent materials on which the soil had been created under a specific arrangement of climatic conditions. In this manner, soils change colossally in physical, chemical and biological properties. Soil water development is constrained by physical properties, for example, soil structure and texture. The soil moisture has extraordinary bearing in controlling solute development, salt solvency, chemical reactions and microbiological exercises and at last the bioavailability of the metal particles. An effective phytoremediation program, along these lines, should think about varieties in soil properties of the particular site. Various methodologies have been utilized or created to moderate/reclaim the heavy metal polluted soils and waters including the landfill/dumping destinations. These might be extensively arranged into physicochemical and biological methodologies.

Physicochemical

The physicochemical methodology incorporates uncovering and internment of the soil at an unsafe waste site, obsession/inactivation (compound handling of the soil to immobilize the metals), draining by utilizing corrosive arrangements or exclusive leachants to desorb and filter the metals from soil followed by the arrival of clean soil buildup to the site (Salt et al., 1995) [52]. Precipitation or flocculation followed by sedimentation, ion exchange, invert assimilation and microfiltration (Raskin et al., 1996) [50]. The physicochemical methodologies are by and large expensive and have incidental effects (Raskin et al., 1997, McGrath et al., 2001) [58, 38].

Biological approaches of remediation

1. Utilization of microorganisms to detoxify the metals by valence change, extracellular chemical precipitation, or volatilization [some microorganism can enzymatically diminish an assortment of metals in metabolic cycles that are not identified with metal assimilation],
2. Utilization of unique kind of plants to disinfect soil or water by inactivating metals in the rhizosphere or moving them in the aerial parts. This methodology is called phytoremediation, which is considered as a new and exceptionally encouraging innovation for the recovery of dirtied locales and less expensive than

physicochemical methodologies (Garbisu and Alkorta, 2001; McGrath et al., 2001) [24, 38].

Phytoremediation

Phytoremediation, also referred as botanical bioremediation (Chaney et al., 1997), includes the utilization of green plants to sterilize soils, water and air. An arising innovation can be applied to both organic and inorganic poisons present in the soil, water or air (Salt et al., 1998) [53]. In any case, the capacity to aggregate heavy metals changes altogether among species and among cultivars inside species, as various mechanism of ion take-up are employable in every species, in light of their hereditary, morphological, physiological and physical attributes. There are different categories of phytoremediation, including phytoextraction, phytoremediation, phytostabilization, phytovolatilization and phytodegradation, depending on the mechanisms of remediation. Phytoextraction involves the use of plants to remove contaminants from soil. The metal ion gathered in the elevated parts that can be taken out to arrange or consumed to recuperate metals. Phytoremediation includes the plant roots or seedling for expulsion of metals from fluid squanders. In phytostabilization, the plant roots ingest the pollutants from the soil and keep them in the rhizosphere, delivering them innocuous by keeping them from draining. Phytovolatilization includes the utilization of plants to volatilize contaminations from their foliage like Se and Hg. Phytodegradation implies the utilization of plants and related microorganisms to corrupt organic pollutants (Garbisu and Alkorta.,2001) [24]. Some plants may have one function whereas others can involve two or more functions of phytoremediation

References

1. Aboubakar A, Douaïk A, Mewouo YCM, Madong RCBA, Dahchour A. Determination of background values and assessment of pollution and ecological risk of heavy metals in urban agricultural soils of Yaoundé, Cameroon. *Journal of Soils and Sediments*, 2021, 1-18.
2. Adimalla N. Heavy metals contamination in urban surface soils of Medak province, India, and its risk assessment and spatial distribution. *Environ. Geochem. Health*. 2020; 42:59-75. [CrossRef].
3. Ali H, Khan E, Sajad MA. Phytoremediation of heavy metals-concepts and applications. *Chemosphere*. 2013; 91:869-881. doi: 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2013.01.075
4. alCorso G, Fasani E, Manara A, Visioli G, Furini A. Heavy metal pollutions: state of the art and innovation in phytoremediation. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* 2019; 20:3412. Doi: 10.3390/ijms20143412
5. Amundson R, Berhe AA, Hopmans JW, Olson C, Sztein AE, Sparks DL. Soil and human security in the 21st century. *Science*, 2015, 348. [CrossRef] [PubMed]
6. Ashraf MA, Maah J, Yusoff I. Heavy metals accumulation in plants growing in ex-tin mining catchment. *Int J Environ Sci Technol*. 2011; 8(2):401-416.
7. Assunção A, Martins PDC, De Folter S, Vooijs, R, Schat H, Aarts M. Elevated expression of metal transporter genes in three accessions of the metal hyperaccumulator *Thlaspi caerulescens*. *Plant Cell Environ*. 2001; 24:217-226. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-3040.2001.00666.x
8. Axelsen KB, Palmgren MG. Inventory of the superfamily of P-type ion pumps in Arabidopsis. *Plant Physiol*. 2001; 126:696-706. doi: 10.1104/pp.126.2.696

9. Bastow EL, Garcia De La Torre VS, Maclean AE, Green RT, Merlot S, Thomine S, *et al.* Vacuolar iron stores gated by NRAMP3 and NRAMP4 are the primary source of iron in germinating seeds. *Plant Physiol.* 2018; 177:1267-1276. doi: 10.1104/pp.18.00478
10. Beyersmann D, Hartwig A. Carcinogenic metal compounds: recent insight into molecular and cellular mechanisms. *Arch Toxicol.* 2008; 82(8):493-512. [PubMed] [Google Scholar].
11. Bing H, Wu Y, Zhou J, Sun H, Wang X, Zhu H. Spatial variation of heavy metal contamination in the riparian sediments after two-year flflow regulation in the Three Gorges Reservoir, China. *Sci. Total Environ.* 2019; 649:1004-1016. [CrossRef]
12. Błońska E, Lasota J, Gruba P. Effect of temperate forest tree species on soil dehydrogenase and urease activities in relation to other properties of soil derived from loess and glaciofluvial sand. *Ecol. Res.* 2016; 31:655-664. [CrossRef]
13. CA Grant, SC Sheppard. Fertilizer impacts on cadmium availability in agricultural soils and crops, Human and Ecological Risk Assessment: An International Journal. 2008; 14(2):210-228.
14. Cailliatte R, Schikora A, Briat JF, Mari S, Curie C. High-affinity manganese uptake by the metal transporter NRAMP1 is essential for *Arabidopsis* growth in low manganese conditions. *Plant Cell.* 2010; 22:904-917. doi: 10.1105/tpc.109.073023
15. CB Dissanayake, R Chandrajith. Phosphate mineral fertilizers, trace metals and human health, Journal of the National Science Foundation of Sri Lanka. 2009; 37(3):153-165,
16. Chaney RL, Malik M, Li YM, Brown SL, Brewer EP, Scott Angle J, Baker AJM. Phytoremediation of soil metals. *Curr Opin Biotechnol.* 1997; 8(3):279-284. doi: 10.1016/S0958-1669(97)80004-3. [PubMed] [CrossRef] [Google Scholar].
17. Chang LW, Magos L, Suzuki T, editors. Toxicology of Metals. Boca Raton. FL, USA: CRC Press, 1996. [Google Scholar].
18. Dalvi AA, Bhalerao SA. Response of plants towards heavy metal toxicity: an overview of avoidance, tolerance and uptake mechanism. *Ann. Plant Sci.* 2013; 2:362-368.
19. Desbrosses-Fonrouge AG, Voigt K, Schröder A, Arrivault S, Thomine S, Krämer U. Arabidopsis thaliana MTP1 is a Zn transporter in the vacuolar membrane which mediates Zn detoxification and drives leaf Zn accumulation. *Febs. Lett.* 2005; 579:4165-4174. doi: 10.1016/j.febslet.06.046
20. Dong Y, Liu S, Sun Y, Liu Y, Wang F. Effects of Landscape Features on the Roadside Soil Heavy Metal Distribution in a Tropical Area in Southwest China. *Applied Sciences.* 2021; 11:1408.
21. D Wang, Z Dang, H Feng, R Wang. Distribution of anthropogenic cadmium and arsenic in arable land soils of Hainan, China, *Toxicological & Environmental Chemistry.* 2015; 97(3-4):402-408,
22. E Merian. Introduction on environmental chemistry and global cycles of chromium, nickel, cobalt beryllium, arsenic, cadmium and selenium, and their derivatives†, *Toxicological & Environmental Chemistry.* 1984; 8(1):9-38,
23. Feng J, Wang Y, Zhao J, Zhu L, Bian X, Zhang W. Source attributions of heavy metals in rice plant along highway in Eastern China. *J Environ Sci.* 2011; 23(7):1158-1164.
24. Garbisu C, Alkorta I. Phytoextraction: A cost effective plant-based technology for the removal of metals from the environment. *Biores Technol.* 2001; 77(3):229-236. doi: 10.1016/S0960-8524(00)00108-5.
25. Gücel S, Kocbas F, Ozturk M. Metal bioaccumulation by barley in Mesaoria Plain alongside the Nicosiafamaagusta Highway, northern Cyprus. *Fresenius Environ Bull.* 2009; 18:2034-2039.
26. Gueriot ML. The ZIP family of metal transporters. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta.* 2000; 1465:190-198. Doi: 10.1016/S0005-2736(00)00138-3
27. Gustin JL, Zanis MJ, Salt DE. Structure and evolution of the plant cation diffusion facilitator family of ion transporters. *BMC Evol. Biol.* 2011; 11:76. Doi: 10.1186/1471-2148-11-76
28. Hanikenne M, Baurain D. Origin and evolution of metal P-type ATPases in Plantae (Archaeplastida). *Front Plant Sci.* 2014; 4:544. Doi: 10.3389/fpls.2013.00544
29. He W, Bai Z, Liu W, Kong X, Yang B, Yang C, *et al.* Occurrence, spatial distribution, sources, and risks of polychlorinated biphenyls and heavy metals in surface sediments from a large eutrophic Chinese lake (Lake Chaohu). *Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res.* 2016; 23:10335-10348. [CrossRef] [PubMed] [Google Scholar].
30. Iqbal A, Tabinda AB, Yasar A. Environmental risk assessment of a young landfill site and its vicinity for possible human exposure. *Human and Ecological Risk Assessment: An International Journal.* 2021; 27:258-273.
31. JJ Mortvedt. Heavy metal contaminants in inorganic and organic fertilizers, *Fertilizer Research.* 1996; 43(1-3):55-61,
32. Köse E, Emiroğlu Ö, Çiçek A, Aksu S, Başkurt S. Assessment of ecologic quality in terms of heavy metal concentrations in sediment and fish on Sakarya River and Dam Lakes, Turkey. *Soil and Sediment Contamination: An International Journal.* 2020; 29:292-303
33. Krämer U, Cotter-Howells JD, Charnock JM, Baker A. J, Smith JAC. Free histidine as a metal chelator in plants that accumulate nickel. *Nature.* 1996; 379:635-638. Doi: 10.1038/379635a0
34. lee J, Reeves RD, Brooks RR, Jaffré T. Isolation and identification of a citrato-complex of nickel from nickel-accumulating plants. *Phytochemistry.* 1977; 16:1503-1505. Doi: 10.1016/0031-9422(77)84010-7
35. LenkaŠtofejová JurajFazekaš, DanicaFazekašová. Analysis of Heavy Metal Content in Soil and Plants in the Dumping Ground of Magnesite Mining Factory Jelšava-Lubeník (Slovakia) Sustainability. 2021; 13:4508. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su13084508> (4)
36. LG de LópezCarnelo, SR. deMiguez, L Marbán. Heavy metals input with phosphate fertilizers used in Argentina, *Science of the Total Environment.* 1997; 204(3):245-250,
37. Ma Y, Hao S, Zhao H, Fang J, Zhao J, *et al.* Pollutant transport analysis and source apportionment of the entire non-point source pollution process in separate sewer systems. *Chemosphere.* 2018; 211:557-565. PMID: 30092536.
38. McGrath SP, Zhao FJ, Lombi E. Plant and rhizosphere

- process involved in phytoremediation of metal-contaminated soils. *Plant Soil*. 2001; 232(1/2):207-214. doi: 10.1023/A:1010358708525. [CrossRef] [Google Scholar].
39. M Ferretti, E Cenni, F Bussotti, P Batistoni. Vehicle-induced lead and cadmium contamination of roadside soil and plants in Italy, *Chemistry and Ecology*. 1995; 11(4):213-228.
 40. M Hutton. Sources of cadmium in the environment, *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety*. 1983; 7(1):9-24.
 41. MK Zhang, ZY Liu, H Wang. Use of single extraction methods to predict bioavailability of heavy metals in polluted soils to rice, *Communications in Soil Science and Plant Analysis*. 2010; 41(7):820-831.
 42. Nabulo G, Oryem-Origa H, Diamond M. Assessment of lead, cadmium, and zinc contamination of roadside soils, surface films, and vegetables in Kampala City, Uganda. *Environ Res*. 2006; 101:42-52
 43. Nwude D, Babayemi J, Ajibode C. Heavy Metals Level in *Clarias gariepinus* (Catfish), *Oreochromis niloticus* (Tilapia) and *Chrysichthys nigrodigitatus* (Bagrid catfish) collected from Ogun River, Ogun State, Nigeria. *Journal of Applied Sciences and Environmental Management*. 2020; 24:1433-1440.
 44. Paul B Tchounwou, Clement G Yedjou, Anita K Patlolla, Dwayne J Sutton. Heavy Metals Toxicity and the Environment HHS public access. 2012; 101:133-164.(3)
 45. O Krüger, F Fiedler, C Adam, C Vogel, R Senz. Determination of chromium (VI) in primary and secondary fertilizer and their respective precursors, *Chemosphere*. 2017; 182:48-53.
 46. PC Nagajyoti, KD Lee, TVM Sreekanth. Heavy metals, occurrence and toxicity for plants: a review, *Environmental Chemistry Letters*. 2010; 8(3):199-216.
 47. Peer WA, Baxter IR, Richards EL, Freeman JL, Murphy AS. Phytoremediation and hyperaccumulator plants, in *Molecular Biology of Metal Homeostasis and Detoxification*, eds M. J. Tamas and E. Martinoia (Berlin: Springer), 2005, 299-340. Doi: 10.1007/4735_100
 48. Persans MW, Nieman K, Salt DE. Functional activity and role of cation-efflux family members in Ni hyperaccumulation in *Thlaspi goesingense*. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 2001; 98:9995-10000. Doi: 10.1073/pnas.171039798
 49. PR Palaniappan, S Karthikeyan. (2009). Bioaccumulation and depuration of chromium in the selected organs and whole body tissues of freshwater fish *Cirrhinus mrigala* individually and in binary solutions with nickel, *Journal of Environmental Sciences*. 2001; 21(2):229-236.
 50. Raskin I, Gleba D, Smith R. Using plant seedlings to remove heavy metals from water. *Plant Physiol*. 1996; 111(2):552-552. [Google Scholar].
 51. Raskin I, Smith RD, Salt DE. Phytoremediation of metals: Using plants to remove pollutants from the environment. *Curr Opin Biotechnol*. 1997; 8(2):221-226. Doi: 10.1016/S0958-1669(97)80106-1. [PubMed] [CrossRef] [Google Scholar].
 52. Salt DE, Blaylock M, kumar PBAN, Dushenkov V, Ensley BD, Chet L, Raskin L. Phytoremediation: A novel strategy for the removal of toxic metals from the environment using plants. *Biotechnology*. 1995; 13(2):468-474. [PubMed] [Google Scholar].
 53. Salt DE, Smith RD, Raskin L. Phytoremediation. *Ann Rev Plant Phys Plant Mol Biol*. 1998; 49(1):643-668. doi: 10.1146/annurev.arplant.49.1.643. [PubMed] [CrossRef] [Google Scholar].
 54. S Khan, Q Cao, YM Zheng, YZ Huang, YG Zhu. Health risks of heavy metals in contaminated soils and food crops irrigated with wastewater in Beijing, China, *Environmental Pollution*. 2008; 152(3):686-692. View at: Publisher Site | Google Scholar
 55. Sutton D, Tchounwou PB, Ninashvili N, Shen E. Mercury induces cytotoxicity, and transcriptionally activates stress genes in human liver carcinoma cells. *Intl J Mol Sci*. 2002; 3(9):965-984. [Google Scholar].
 56. Supek F, Supekova L, Nelson H, Nelson N. Function of metal-ion homeostasis in the cell division cycle, mitochondrial protein processing, sensitivity to mycobacterial infection and brain function. *J Exp. Biol*. 1997; 200:321-330.
 57. Thakur S, Singh L, Wahid ZA, Siddiqui MF, Atnaw SM, Din MFM. Plant-driven removal of heavy metals from soil: uptake, translocation, tolerance mechanism, challenges, and future perspectives. *Environ. Monit. Assess*, 2016, 188:206. Doi: 10.1007/s10661-016-5211-9
 58. Tong YP, Kneer R, Zhu YG. Vacuolar compartmentalization: a second-generation approach to engineering plants for phytoremediation. *Trends Plant Sci*. 2004; 9:7-9. Doi: 10.1016/j.tplants.2003.11.009.
 59. Verret F, Gravot A, Auroy P, Leonhardt N, David P, Nussaume L, *et al.* Overexpression of AtHMA4 enhances root-to-shoot translocation of zinc and cadmium and plant metal tolerance. *Febs. Lett*. 2004; 576:306-312. Doi: 10.1016/j.febslet.2004.09.023
 60. Williams LE, Mills RF. P1B-ATPases—an ancient family of transition metal pumps with diverse functions in plants. *Trends Plant Sci*. 2005; 10:491-502. Doi: 10.1016/j.tplants.2005.08.008
 61. Xu Y, Xiao H, Wu D. Traffic-related dustfall and NO_x, but not NH₃, seriously affect nitrogen isotopic compositions in soil and plant tissues near the roadside. *Environmental Pollution*. 2019; 249:655-665. pmid: 30933763
 62. Zhang Z, Juying L, Mamat Z, QingFu Y. Sources identification and pollution evaluation of heavy metals in the surface sediments of Bortala River, Northwest China. *Ecotox. Environ. Safe*. 2016; 126:94-101. [Cross Ref].