A major project report on

STUDY ON PHYTOREMEDIATION POTENTIAL FOR REMOVAL OF TOXIC ELEMENTS

submitted in the fulfilment of the requirement for the award of

Degree of Master of Technology

(Environmental Engineering)

Ву

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Certificate

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Declaration

This is to declare that the report entitled "STUDY ON PHYTOREMEDIATION POTENTIAL

FOR REMOVAL OF TOXIC ELEMENTS" has been submitted by me in the academic year 2021.

The work embodied in this report has not been submitted for the award of any other degree to the best of my

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Divya Pali

Abstract

There are numerous pollutants that pose threat to the environment on an unprecedented scale. It creates undesirable effects on water, soil, and air as well. It is furthermore an essential concern as the concentration of such elements goes on accumulating in the environment. Remediation of such pollutants by absorption and accumulation in plant or animal tissues is one of the most effective natural methods of waste treatment. The use of live plants for the removal of environmental pollutants is termed phytoremediation. Phytoremediation bears down to the capacity of plants to absorb, accumulate and store various elements from water and soil into their biomass. The physiology of plants plays a vital role in phytoremediation as not all plants can hyper accumulate contaminants. Remediation of contaminants includes several mechanisms involved for uptake of metals from polluted soils or waters for treatment and render them non-toxic. Along with phytoremediation, this project also studies the properties and health impact of various toxic elements in the environment that threaten human and animal health.

The project evaluates phytoremediation through an experimental study and a case study. Experimental study was accomplished by using kitchen wastewater generated from post-cooking washing of utensils as feed to plants for phytoremediation. It included testing of water quality parameters such as pH, electrical conductivity, total dissolved solids, biochemical oxygen demand, chemical oxygen demand total phosphate for water at the inlet and excess draining water from the outlet of the pot. The case study involved study on phytoremediation potential of twelve wild plant species for removal of toxic elements and assesses their

phytoremediation potential for removing toxic elements such as arsenic, cadmium, chromium, copper, nickel, lead, and zinc from contaminated soil. Plants remove elements by absorbing and binding various elements organically in their biomass. Hence, the phytoremediation potential of different species of plants shall be assessed for absorbing different elements.

The experimental study rather being of a short duration concludes that there is good scope for plants to absorb organic materials and stabilise kitchen wastewater. The case study reveals that, during the first year of growth, all the species of plants have absorbed and stored toxic elements in their biomass, especially in their shoot, leaves, and flowers. Still, a minimal amount was found to accumulate in the roots. Also, due to the photosynthetic activity, leaves contain the most concentration of the absorbed element. On the contrary, after the second year of growth, it is evident that roots are actively involved in storing toxic elements in them. The maximum concentration of toxic elements is found in roots. In contrast, the concentration of toxic elements does not seem to increase significantly in other parts of the plant.

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Chapter 1.

Introduction

1.1 Background

Studies in toxic elements are increasingly becoming important due to their toxicity level and impact on the environment. Most of the impact on the environment is due to the population rise globally. The emission of organic and inorganic substances such as minerals, oils, salts, acids and bases, pesticides, and toxic elements has held the environment's health hostage. The accrual of these pollutants in various segments of the environment creates a hazard. The threat becomes manifold as these pollutants degrade at a languid pace—toxic elements such as pollutants are pretty prevalent in the environment. Toxic element accumulation becomes a massive threat as they are non-degradable, persistent, toxic, and causes widespread consequences to aquatic life. Natural hydrological systems such as rivers, ponds, lakes, etc., are flooded with flows of the toxic element from natural and anthropogenic sources. These metals persist in water in aqueous form or get deposited on sediments. Hence, they become a priority in ecology as the water body's self-purification process cannot remove toxic elements. As a result, toxic elements enter the food chain and food web and cause the bioaccumulation of metals (Loska and Wiechula 2003). World Health Organization (WHO) has carried out several studies to prove the significance of toxic element pollution and its effect on human health.

Metallic or metalloid elements with a relatively high-density range of 3.5 to 7 g/cm3, toxic at low levels, are termed heavy metals. Numerous elements exist that qualify this criterion, namely, copper (Cu), nickel (Ni), mercury (Hg), lead (Pb), zinc (Zn), arsenic (As), chromium (Cr), cadmium (Cd), thallium (Tl) (Duffus, 2002). Metals are an essential nutrient in the biota at low levels, while high levels may cause toxic effects. They enter the human body through modes of air, water, and food. As informed earlier, toxic elements originate from both natural

and anthropogenic sources. Perceptibly, anthropogenic sources release far more toxic elements than natural sources.

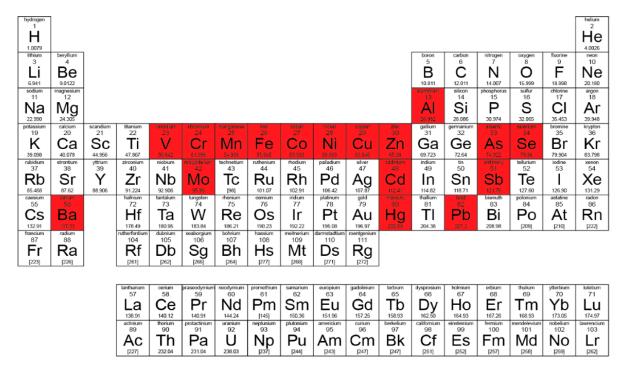


Figure 1-1 Periodic table with toxic elements (shaded)

Metals such as sodium (Na), potassium (K), magnesium (Mg), and calcium (Ca) are major metallic nutrients whereas, vanadium (V), chromium (Cr), manganese (Mn), iron (Fe), cobalt (Co), nickel (Ni), copper (Cu), zinc (Zn), and molybdenum (Mo)are minor metallic nutrients. Some non-nutrient metals such as arsenic (As), cadmium (Cd), lead (Pb), mercury (Hg), antimony (Sn) are highly toxic. These metals are found widely in the earth's crust and are non-biodegradable. Health concern surges due to surplus of these metals in the environment and due to metals present at various oxidation states. Water quality standards in various countries also prescribe limits for the presence of all the metals toxic to human health (Weiner, E.R. 2013).

1.2 Sources of Toxic Elements in Environment

Industrial and metallurgical activities comprise mining, plating, surface finishing, and milling discharge numerous toxic elements in the environment. The concentration of such metals has increased in the waters and sediments of rivers, lakes, and ponds. Soils polluted from toxic elements also pose a hazard due to their subsequent entry into food grains and vegetables.

Hence, a real potent threat exists because of toxicity, non-biodegradability, and biomagnification of such metals (Bahadir et al., 2007; Perez-Marin et al., 2008; Reddad et al., 2003).



Figure 1-2 Major and minor sources of toxic elements

1.2.1 METAL POLLUTION FROM MINING AND PROCESSING ORES

Metallurgical operations such as excavation, extraction, and processing of metallic ores causes detrimental impact over the environment, including habitat loss, loss of culturable land, and property. It corresponds to pollution of air, water, and soil through the emission of metallic dust and fumes, acid mine drainage. Cadmium (Cd), lead (Pb), selenium (Se), arsenic (As), and their oxides are grave concerns for air pollution. Surface and opencast mining generate multiple times more wastes as compared to underground mining. Deep mining operations may also cause caving of land earthquakes. Annually, a considerable number of casualties occur due to subsidence and caving in of mines. They also cause deep holes on land surface causing roads and buildings to fall into it. The issue aggravates as demand for mined minerals are increasing days by days, hence mines need to go further deeper into the crust to extract as much material as possible. Interaction of moisture, atmospheric gases and sulphur compounds causes formation of acid mine drainage. It is a strong acidic drainage that may increase dissolution of metals and cause further toxic elements issues when precipitation occurs. Both active and abandoned mines release such discharges which are historically associated to groundwater pollution issues. Severity of such emission is unimaginable as subsurface flows cannot be seen or observed directly. Metals such as copper (Cu), nickel (Ni), cobalt (Co), iron (Fe), zinc (Zn) and manganese (Mn) cause severe water quality issues. Moreover, metals such as arsenic, lead, and silver also discharges into drainage basins and enter the aquatic ecosystems.



Figure 1-3 Open Cast Mining

1.2.2 OTHER SOURCES OF METAL POLLUTION

Domestic Wastewater Effluents - Domestic discharges emit a large amount of trace metals through corrosion of metallic pipes and containers made up of iron, copper, zinc and lead, cadmium from joinery. Numerous household products exist that contain heavy metal such as detergents which releases boron (B), zinc (Zn), copper (Cu), chromium (Cr), manganese (Mn), iron (Fe) and arsenic (As) in large quantities. Treatment at a wastewater treatment plant typically reduces only 50% of metallic concentrations from water leaving behind a huge metallic residue in the effluent stream. Moreover, sludges from such treatment have copious amounts of metals. Hence, discharges of domestic and industrial wastewaters and sludges are major anthropogenic sources of toxic elements. Storm water Runoff - Since stormwater runoff is acidic nature, it dissolves metals from the rocks and metallic surfaces it comes in contact with. Urban landscape consists of a lot of such features. A lot of toxic elements are released from features such as roads, construction, traffic and factors such as town planning, traffic, land-use pattern, climatic regimes affect the presence of metals in urban areas. Industrial Wastes and Discharges -Industrial clusters, in general, has far more concentration of metals than that prescribed in permissible limits. Metals in effluents, fumes, and solid are found in plenty here. Hence, an imminent need exists to treat metallic discharges before its discharge in water bodies. Concentration of metallic discharge varies from industry to industry due to the raw material, processes used and products and by-products being produced. Sanitary Landfills - Solid waste

disposal at landfills causes leaching of a huge volume of pollutants in ground water. Engineered landfills have significantly reduced the release of such metals in the environment. Yet, leachates at sanitary-landfills are observed to contain around 5 ppm copper, 50 ppm zinc, 0.3 ppm lead and around 60 ppm mercury. *Agricultural Runoff* - Together with fertilizers a variety of agricultural chemicals such as pesticides, insecticides, herbicides, fungicides, weedicides, and sewage farming effluent increase concentration of metals in agricultural areas. These metals later get dissolved in precipitation and flow along with stormwater discharge. *Fossil Fuel Burning* - Combustion of fossil fuel in vehicular and industrial consumption releases a huge amount of airborne metal contamination.

Table 1-1 Major sources of toxic elements in environment

Sr. No.	Element	Sources
1.	Arsenic (As)	chemical wastes, mining and metal smelting, pesticides, fungicides, herbicides.
2.	Cadmium (Cd)	Cd-Ni batteries, nuclear (fission) plants, lead, zinc and copper refining, welding, electroplating, manufacture of fertilizer, pesticide.
3.	Chromium (Cr)	cement and asbestos manufacture, metallurgical operation and chemical manufacturers, industries using chromate compounds.
4.	Copper (Cu)	timber burning, acid mine discharge, smelting operations, fertilizer manufacture, fly ash utilization, municipal and industrial waste disposal also release airborne copper.
5.	Iron (Fe)	manufacture of wrought and cast iron, steel and steel alloys, machining works, construction operations, and transport and logistics.
6.	Lead (Pb)	lead based pesticides, mining and smelting operations, coal combustion, emission from coal combustion, petroleum and oil burning, automobile,
7.	Mercury (Hg)	extraction, refinery, mining of mercury, pesticides, medical and engineering instruments.
8.	Nickel (Ni)	coal and oil combustion, plating using Ni salts, metallurgical use of nickel as catalyst, Ni batteries
9.	Zinc (Zn)	galvanizing units, brass, plating, refineries, plumbing

1.3 EFFECT OF TOXIC ELEMENTS ON ENVIRONMENT

Toxic elements pollute the environment on an unprecedented scale. It creates undesirable effects on water, soil and air as well. It is furthermore an important concern as concentration of toxic elements goes on accumulating in the environment. Most of the heavy metals are toxic and produce its effects on a variety of plants and animals. Metallic elements having density more than 5 gm/cc are generally considered as toxic element. Yet multiple definitions of heavy metals are found in many literatures. International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC) states that the term heavy metal is a misnomer and commonly mislead and cause

confusion. In general, heavy metals are found in earth's crust and are mostly essential to life forms to maintain their health. Many elements such as iron, copper, zinc and selenium are trace metals essential to human body. Although, they may create undesirable effects if found in excess magnitude. Many other elements such as cadmium, lead, and mercury cause serious direct negative impact to metabolism of living organisms even at low concentrations. Metals are normally persistent in nature and exist in various forms and mostly enters food chain and ecology of a location. Numerous anthropogenic activities cause these metals to enter the environment namely, mining, extraction, smelting, etc., as listed above. Mostly, toxic element processing industries release a lot of heavy metal such as copper, cadmium, lead, nickel, zinc and chromium. Tissues of living organism readily absorb heavy metals as they are easily soluble in water. Hence, natural water environment is highly susceptible to its toxic effects. The degree of toxicity is increases due to uncontrolled dispersion and diffusion of toxic elements in surface and ground water. Presence of toxic elements in trace quantities or below detectable limits also prove to be a threat due to its resistance to degradation and persistence in natural conditions. Its concentration increases manifold as metals tend to bioaccumulate in the biotic life. Its concentration may increase to such a level to show visible effects of toxic element pollution. Silver (Ag), arsenic (As), gold (Au), bismuth (Bi), cadmium (Cd), cerium (Ce), cobalt (Co), chromium (Cr), copper (Cu), iron (Fe), gallium (Ga), mercury (Hg), manganese (Mn), nickel (Ni), lead (Pb), platinum (Pt), antimony (Sb), tin (Sn), tellurium (Te), thallium (Tl), uranium (Ur), vanadium (Va) and zinc (Zn) are the metals defined as toxic elements of all the toxic metals found. Out of the above toxic elements most damage is caused by Pb, Cd, Hg and As. Excess quantities of these causes acute toxicity whereas long-term exposure may cause chronic toxicity. It may lead to mental and CNS disorders, blood and circulation system disorders, lung damage, kidney and liver malfunction.

Neurological degenerative diseases such as Alzheimer's and Parkinson's diseases, muscular atrophy and dystrophy and sclerosis are the result of long -term exposure to toxic elements. Exposure to heavy metals may also cause allergies and repeated exposure to some may lead to cancer. Heavy metals may enter human body through egestion of water, food, air polluted with toxic elements and even absorption through skin. Industrial and manufacturing operations release a large quantity of toxic elements. Some of such units are very close to residential settlement. Instead of the severe nature of threat from toxic elements, the quantity

of toxic elements goes on increasing, globally. Hence, treatment and disposal of metallic wastes and reduce the toxicological effects of toxic element is very important.

1.4 Water Quality Standards

Water available on earth is limited so are its sources. Water resources are days by days being exposed to pollutants which further reduces the quantity of usable water. Pollutants and contaminants render the water unhealthy any type of consumption by plants and animals. Moreover, large quantity of salts and bases are present in water which causes soil pollution and threat to soil fertility. Apart from agriculture, this water cannot be used in industry as numerous expensive processes for its purification will be required. It disturbs the aquatic ecosystem by affecting turbidity, temperature, conductivity, and many other parameters in the fresh and marine water ecosystems. Hence, use of water for any type of consumption requires a minimum quality standard to ensure that concentration of pollutants is well below the permissible limits. This becomes necessary as water in use shall not pose any threat to the user and environment in general as well. To maintain such quality standard for different consumption types, water quality standards are formulated. These criteria can be made customised or specific according to the purpose. These measures are based on experimental and imperial data about health and environment and assessment of economics of treatment.

Table 1-2 Drinking Water Standards for Trace & Toxic metals (BIS-10500-2012)

Sr. Toxic metal		Requirement (Acceptable Limit)		Permissible Limit in the Absence of Alternative Source	
No.	_	(mg/L)	(µg/L)	(mg/L)	(µg/L)
1.	Arsenic as As	0.01	10	0.05	50
2.	Cadmium as Cd	0.003	3	No relaxation	
3.	Total Chromium as Cr	0.05	50	No relaxation	
4.	Copper as Cu	0.05	50	1.5	1500
5.	Iron as Fe	0.3	300	No rela	axation
6.	Lead as Pb	0.01	10	No rela	axation
7.	Mercury as Hg	0.001	1	No rela	axation
8.	Nickel as Ni	0.02	20	No rela	axation
9.	Zinc as Zn	5	5000	15	15000

For potable consumption water should be well within standard as direct consumption by humans is in consideration. Domestic supply of water is considered as the most important use of water, also the National Water Policy places it under first priority to provide potable water. Bureau of Indian Standards (BIS) in consultation with many organisations such as Indian Council of Medical Research (ICMR) have formulated water quality standards. They are mostly in consonance with the international standards laid by World Health Organisation (WHO). Table 1-2 shows drinking water standards for trace and toxic metals according to BIS code 10500-2012.

1.5 OBJECTIVE

Since the effect of pollution caused by toxic elements is widespread. This project report tries to explore methods to treat heavy meatal pollution in water. The objectives of the project are as below:

- 1. To study phytoremediation process for water pollution control and treatment of wastewater.
- 2. To study removal of heavy metals and biochemical oxygen demand from wastewater using phytoremediation.
- 3. To study phytoremediation potential for treatment of kitchen wastewater.

Chapter 2.

Literature Review

Phytoremediation is a sub-domain of bioremediation where, phyto in Greek means' plant'; and remedy comes from Latin, meaning 'restoring balance'. The phytoremediation methodology uses live green plants, having capability to remove hazardous contaminants from water, air and soil. This very safely contain the toxicity and reduce the contaminants in water. In simple words, phytoremediation is defined as removal of environmental pollutants using live plants. It is a very cost-effective plant-based approach to detoxify various compounds. Moreover, it preserves top soil and also maintain the fertility of soil. All types of pollutants in air, water and soil can be removed by phytoremediation. Naturally, toxic elements have lower degradability than organic pollutants. Hence, toxic elements shall be degraded using phytoremediation. In phytoremediation projects, pollutants such as pesticides, explosives, oil, metals and their derivatives have been alleviated. Pigweed, pennycress, mustard. Hemp and alpine, etc are proven high capacity bio-accumulator of pollutants in their biomass Physiology of plants also plays important role in phytoremediation as not all plants can hyperaccumulate contaminants. In the remediation of contaminants there are several mechanisms involved for uptake of metals in the plant biomass from polluted waters for their treatment and render them nontoxic. The different mechanisms involved in phytoremediation are shown in Figure 2-1.

2.1.1 PHYTO-EXTRACTION

Phytoextraction, also called as phyto-accumulation or phyto-sequestration, is the ability of plant to extract contaminant from water. It is basically the ability of the plant or algae for removal of pollutants in water. In this process substances from the soil or water are taken up by roots and are concentrated above the ground in the plant biomass. Plants like Populus and Salix can be used for Phytoextraction. The organisms that take up high number of contaminants are called Hyperaccumulators e.g., Avena sp. and Brassica sp. This process is

very popular around the world and is used for toxic element removal or other inorganics. A chelating agent conditions the soil to increase solubility of metals for easy plant uptake.

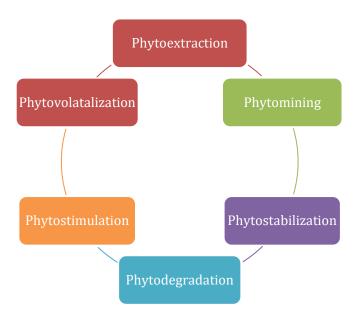


Figure 2-1 Mechanisms involved in phytoremediation

2.1.2 PHYTO-MINING

Recovery of metals can be conveniently done using phyto-mining. In this technique, metals are extracted or mined. A study by Hider and Kong, 2010 evaluates the efficiency of phyto-siderophores, a high affinity iron-chelating compound, for removal of iron. It undertakes movement of metals throughout the cell membranes (Hider and Kong, 2010) in form of metal complexes in the root zone. After harvesting it is grown and the absorbed metal pollutants stored in the plant biomass are disposed of safely. This process can be repeated several times for the contaminants concentration reduction till it comes to acceptable levels. For example; Arsenic can be accumulated by sunflower (Helianthus annuus); Cadmium, Zinc and Copper by willow (Salix Viminalis), Alpine pennycress (Thlaspi caerulescens). Similarly, chromium is toxic to many plants but Tomato (Solanum lycopersicum) helps in its accumulation; lead can be mined using dogbane, mustard (Brassica juncea), , poplar, hemp, ragweed (Ambrosia artemisiifolia), or. Mercury and selenium can be accumulated by transgenic plants containing genes of bacterial enzymes.

2.1.3 PHYTO-STABILIZATION

The contaminants in phyto-stabilization in the soil and ground water are captured through adsorption and/or accumulation by plant roots. It may also be precipitated in the root zone to immobilize (Tangahu et al., 2011). The main focus is on the long-term containment and stabilization of pollutant by binding the pollutants to sediments hence making them less bioabsorptive. This results in reduced exposure and pollutants become less available. It helps in converting toxic element pollutant into less toxic form with the help of chemical reaction by a substance excreted from plants. Migration of metals are prevented through this process.

2.1.4 PHYTO-DEGRADATION

It is a process in which roots secrete enzyme that degrade the organic pollutants into soil or within the body of plant. It is also called as Phyto-transformation. With the help of transpiration these molecules are released by plants. The plant enzymes such as oxygenase and nitro-reductases catalyse and expedite the degradation process (Tangahu et al., 2011). Internal and external metabolic processes degrade the organic contaminants, in which Enzymatic process and oxidation during photosynthesis are involved. Plants absorbs the pollutants in the external process and hydrolyse them into simpler components, whereas internal metabolic process uses pollutants as metabolites. Figure 2-2 shows the processes of phytodegradation.

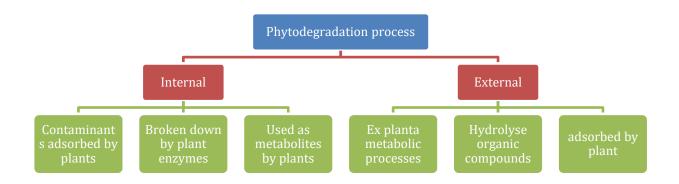


Figure 2-2 Phytodegradation process

Chapter 3.

Methodology

The project is worked in two parts:

- i. *Case Study* involving study on phytoremediation potential of twelve wild plant species for removal of toxic elements.
- ii. Experimental Study by using kitchen wastewater generated from post-cooking washing of utensils as feed to plants for phytoremediation. It included testing of water quality parameters for water at inlet and excess drainage outlet of the pot.

3.1 CASE STUDY

The case study pertains to the research conducted by Antoniadis et al., 2021 assessing the phytoremediation potential of twelve wild plants species (as listed below) for removal of toxic elements in contaminated soil.

Table 3-1 List of plants under consideration

Sr. No.	Species	Common Name	Image
1.	Alopecurus pratensis	meadow foxtail	
2.	Elytrigia repens	quackgrass, couchgrass, wheatgrass, devilgrass	

3.	Poa angustifolia	narrow-leaved meadow grass	
4.	Holcus lanatus	velvet grass, Yorkshire fog	
5.	Arrhenatherum elatius	false oat-grass	
6.	Bromus inermis	smooth brome	
7.	Artemisia vulgaris	mugwort, common wormwood	

8.	Urtica dioica	common nettle, stinging nettle	
9.	Achillea millefolium	common yarrow, western yarrow, yarrow, milfoil	
10.	Galium mollugo	hedge bedstraw, false baby's breath	
11.	Stellaria holostea	addersmeat, greater, stitchwort	
12.	Silene vulgaris	bladder champion, cowbell, maiden's tears, rattleweed	

3.1.1 MATERIAL AND METHOD

Study is located in a Mediterranean climate in Berlin, Germany at the confluence of Saale and Elbe river confluence. Ambient temperature at this location is around 8.7 °C and annual rainfall of 47.3 cm. This area is characterized by frequent flooding depending on melting of snow and intense precipitation. The study included sampling of soil in the nearby areas to access soil properties such as total carbon, total nitrogen by dry combustion and thermal

conductivity detection; organic and inorganic carbon, total phosphorus, and total potassium by XRF spectrometry; particle size distribution by wet sieving and sedimentation using pipette sampling; and pH. Metallic concentration of copper, chromium, nickel, zinc, cadmium, lead, and arsenic.

Table 3-2 Properties of soil mix

Properties	Unit	Value (±standard deviation)
рН		5.8
Sand	0/0	33
Silt	0/0	39
Clay	0/0	28
Organic	0/0	6.1
EC	cmolc kg-1	28.4
Fe	0/0	2.25
Mn	0/0	0.07
FeO	0/0	1.63
MnO	0/0	0.09
P	$mg kg^{-1}$	4015.5 (±131.1)
K	$mg kg^{-1}$	4125.8 (±265.6)
As	$mg kg^{-1}$	120.8 (±4.0)
Cd	$mg kg^{-1}$	9 (±0.4)
Cr	${\rm mg~kg^{-1}}$	145.3 (±5.4)
Cu	$mg kg^{-1}$	171 (±3.4)
Ni	$mg kg^{-1}$	60.7 (±1.7)
Pb	$mg kg^{-1}$	176 (±4.1)
Zn	$mg kg^{-1}$	880.1 (±14.8)

3.1.2 EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

Pot experiments were conducted in a cold-house (glass-house) without heating and with mobile roof. Kick-Brauckman pots with 10 kg soil from contaminated sites were used. A fixed proportion of fertilizer such as calcium hydrogen phosphate, ammonium sulphate, potassium sulphate, magnesium sulphate and ferric chloride was put in to support the growth of plants. 12 plant species as listed in Table 3-1 were used.

3.1.3 SAMPLE PREPARATION

For analysis plants were thoroughly cleaned with dil. HNO₃ and rinsed with double distilled water and dried in oven at 60 °C until no loss of weight was recorded. Plants were weighed and ground to fine powder in a non-metallic mill and stored in clean dried plastic containers.

3.2 EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

3.2.1 MATERIAL AND METHOD

Study is located at Delhi in a overlapped climate between monsoon-influenced humid subtropical (Köppen climate classification Cwa) and semi-arid (Köppen climate classification BSh), with high variation between summer and winter temperatures and precipitation. With River Yamuna passing through its eastern side. Ambient temperature at this location is around 8.7 °C and annual rainfall of 61.7 cm. The study included of sampling and testing of excess water drained from two plant pots (one filled with only soil and other with hibiscus planted in it). For observation the pots were plugging from the bottom after watering to let the plants absorb water and uptake various components in water for two days. Tests for determining various water quality parameters such as pH, electrical conductivity, BOD, COD, phosphate by using the respective standard methods for each parameter was conducted. pH and electrical conductivity and total dissolved solids were measured using a multiparameter analyser; BOD by Winkler's method, COD by gravimetric method and phosphate using UV-Vis Spectrophotometry.

3.2.2 EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

Pot experiment was conducted in the in a semi-shaded yet open to air area under the roof, without heating or artificial lighting. Plastic pot with 3 kg normal garden soil was used in both the pots. A fixed proportion of fertilizer such as NPK in a ratio of 19:9:9 was put in to support the growth of plant. The plant was kept in semi-shaded area with no ingress of rainfall water; 500 ml of kitchen wastewater was fed to the plant and the non-planted pot every alternate days.

Table 3-3 Plant used for experimental study

Sr. No.	Species	Common Name	Image
1.	Hibiscus rosa-senensis	china rose, hibiscus	

3.2.3 SAMPLE COLLECTION

For sampling potable water and fertilizer (as stated above) was applied to the plant for several days to maintain its growth. Water was then allowed to dry out partly and then the kitchen wastewater was applied in a regimen of 500 ml every alternate days. Raw feed water was considered as Sample 1. Sample 2 was collected as overflow of excess water from the bottom of the pot containing only soil plugged with a rubber cork for 2 days after application of kitchen wastewater, which represents the filtration capacity of the soil. Sample 3 was collected from the pot with the study plant after 2 days of keeping the bottom of the pot plugged with a rubber cork after application of kitchen wastewater.

Result and Discussion

4.1 CASE STUDY

4.1.1 ARSENIC

Arsenic comes from various sources such as fungicides, pesticides and herbicides, metal smelters, by-products of mining activities, chemical wastes etc. Arsenic is a toxic chemical which affects a variety of lifeforms. Arsenic present in groundwater have been found to be poisonous. Arsenic may get ingested, inhaled or get absorbed through skin. Ingested arsenic causes trouble to the gastrointestinal track.

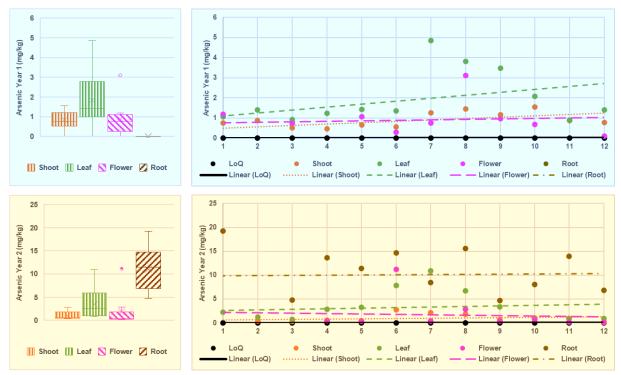


Figure 4-1 Concentration of Arsenic in root, shoot, leaf and flower in 2 years of growth of 12 species of plants If inhaled, it reaches the bloodstream through the lungs. Late manifestations of consumption of arsenic contaminated water are in form of arsenical skin lesions, conjunctivitis, hyperkeratosis, hyperpigmentation, cardiovascular diseases, issues in peripheral vascular and nervous system, gangrene, skin cancer, leucomelonisis, non-pitting swelling, hepatomegaly and

splenomegaly. WHO has prescribed a limit of 10 ppb for arsenic in water. Hence, a stringent watch is required to check the concentration of arsenic in the water environment. Plants mostly treat or remove elements such as arsenic by storing them in their biomass. Hence, chemical uptake of various chemicals is studied to determine the phytoremediation potential of different species of plants. As shown in Figure 4-1, after 1 year of growth of all species of plants under consideration, all components seem to have up-taken and stores arsenic in their biomass i.e., in the shoot, leaf and flowers but very less amount is present in the roots. Due to the photosynthetic activity, leaves has the most concentration of up-taken element. Also, the roots till now are acting as a transportation channel for various fluids and not storing arsenic. Hence, least amount of arsenic is present in roots. In the first year of growth the maximum concentration of arsenic is present in the leaves i.e., of 5 mg/kg. Species such as artemisia vulgaris, urtica dioica, achillea millefolium show maximum accumulation of arsenic in the leaves. Urtica dioica also shows arsenic retention in flowers. Yet after 2nd year of growth, it is evident that roots now store arsenic in it. Hence, show the maximum concentration of arsenic i.e., up to 20 mg/kg, more so due to the reason that roots are the nearest component to the polluted soil. Arsenic has increased up to 11mg/kg in leaves after 2 years of growth. Increase in shoot and flower is not significant. Alopecurus pratensis, bromus inermis, urtica dioica show maximum retention of arsenic in roots.

4.1.2 CADMIUM

Cadmium is a highly toxic element generated by Cadmium producing industries, electroplating, welding; by-products from refining of Pb, Zn and Cu, fertilizer industry, pesticide manufacturers, cadmium–nickel batteries, nuclear fission plants. Cadmium causes severe chronic health effects whereas acute effects are quite mild. It mostly is ingested and is absorbed by humans and animals through the gastrointestinal track. Cadmium acumulates and gets deposited in bones, liver and kidneys. It is a risk factor for cardiovascular diseases as it accumulates in soft tissues. It reduces bone mineral density and cause osteoporosis, skeletal damage and fractures. Acute exposure may cause salivation, breathing difficulty, nausea, vomiting, pain, anemia, kidney failure and diarrhea. Inhalation may cause throat dryness, headache, chest pain, coughing, bronchial trouble. The US EPA has limited a maximum contaminant level up to 0.005 mg/L of cadmium in drinking water. In phytoremediation, plants convert the subject elements to biomass. Hence, chemical uptake of various chemicals

is studied to determine the phytoremediation potential of different species of plants. As shown in Figure 4-2, after 1 year of growth of all species of plants under consideration, all components seem to have up-taken and stored cadmium in their biomass i.e., in the shoot, leaf and flowers but very less amount is present in the roots. Similar to arsenic, cadmium is also found to have maximum concentration in leaves. And the roots acting are not storing any cadmium in the first year, it is just acting as a channel for transmission of various plant fluids. Hence, least amount of cadmium is present in roots. In the first year of growth the maximum concentration of cadmium is present in the leaves i.e., of approx. 57 mg/kg. Species such as artemisia vulgaris, stellaria holostea, and silene vulgaris show maximum uptake of cadmium in the leaves. After 2 years of growth, being in close contact with the polluted soil, roots now actively store cadmium and show a maximum concentration of up to 118 mg/kg. Uptake of cadmium has not increased significantly in the leaves, shoot and flower after 2 years of growth. Galium mollugo, alopecurus pratensis, and holcus lanatus show maximum retention of cadmium in roots.

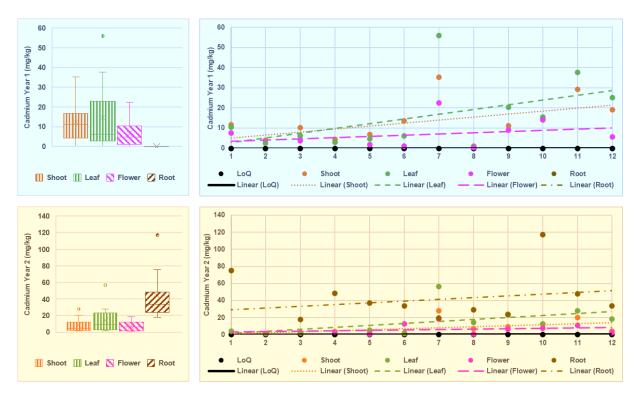


Figure 4-2 Concentration of Cadmium in root, shoot, leaf and flower in 2 years of growth of 12 species of plants 4.1.3 CHROMIUM

Chromium is mostly present in its trivalent or hexavalent form. Cr[III] is most commonly naturally occurring state in soil, whereas Cr[VI] is mostly industrial and domestic in origin.

Apart from rocks, chromium is released from metallurgical and chemical industries, processes using chromate compounds, cement and asbestos units. Tobacco smokers are most susceptible to exposure to chromium, If inhaled chromium causes nose irritations and nosebleeds. It also causes allergic reaction to skin, if present in leather apparels and products.

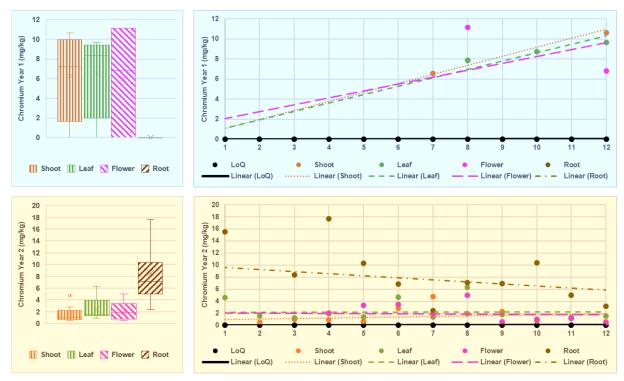


Figure 4-3 Concentration of Chromium in root, shoot, leaf and flower in 2 years of growth of 12 species of plants

Chromium causes skin rashes, upset stomachs and ulcers, respiratory problems, weakened immune systems, kidney and liver damage, alteration of genetic material, lung cancer and even death. Adverse health effects are observed due to exposure to hexavalent form; whereas low toxicity is observed with trivalent form. Inhalation of chromium causes ulcers and perforation of mucous membranes of nasal septum, irritation in pharynx and larynx, asthamatic bronchitis, bronchospasms and edema. Hexavalent chromium is toxic to both plants and animals. The WHO has prescribed a limit of 0.05 mg/l in water. Plants absorb and convert toxic element into its biomass. Hence, uptake of chromium must be studied to determine the potential of phytoremediation by different species of plants. As shown in Figure 4-3, all 12 plant species in their first year of growth shows uptake of chromium in shoot, leaves and flowers. It is worth observing that highest amount of chromium reaches flowers of urtica dioica and artemisia vulgaris. Chromium is present in biomass of shoot, leaf and flowers but very less amount is present in the roots. Similar to arsenic and cadmium, chromium is also found to have high concentration in leaves; and roots are not storing any chromium during the first year and is

acting as a transportation channel for fluids. Hence, least amount of cadmium is present in roots. In the first year of growth the maximum concentration of chromium is present in the flower i.e., of approx. 11.3 mg/kg. Species such as urtica dioca and artemisia vulgaris show maximum uptake of chromium in the flowers; whereas urtica dioica, galium mollugo, and silene vulgaris shows high accumulation in leaves. After the 2nd year, roots are now actively involved in storing chromium and show a maximum concentration of up to 18 mg/kg. Whereas, the uptake of chromium has decreased significantly in the leaves, shoot and flower. Holcus lanatus, alopecurus pratensis, galium mollugo, and arrhenatherum elatius show maximum retention of chromium in roots.

4.1.4 COPPER

Copper is found in three valence states i.e., Cu(0), Cu(I), and Cu(II). It is mostly found in ores, Hence, iron and steel industry, fertilizer industry, burning of wood, discharge of mine tailings, disposal of fly ash, disposal of municipal and industrial wastes are the sources of copper. Naturally, copper is found as cuprite and malachite. Copper is essential in low concentration to living organisms yet produce toxic effects if present in large magnitude. As an essential metal it helps for proper growth, cardiovascular health, lung elasticity, neuroendocrine functions and metabolism. It also protects against free radical damage to proteins, lipids and nucleic acids, cell and organs. Hence, deficiency of copper may create detrimental effects on health. Yet excess quantities of copper in long term causes irritation to nose, mouth, eyes causing headaches, stomach-aches, dizziness, vomiting, and diarrhea. High intake of copper may cause liver and kidney damage and even death. Industrial exposure to copper fumes results in metal fume fever with atrophic changes in nasal mucous membrane. Chronic exposure results in Wilson's disease, characterized by hepatic cirrhosis, brain damage, demyelination, renal disease and copper deposition in cornea. Uptake of copper must be studied to determine the phytoremediation potential of different species of plants. As shown in Figure 4-3, all 12 plant species in their first year of growth shows uptake of copper in shoot, leaves and flowers. It is worth observing that highest amount of copper is found in leaves. Copper is present in the shoot, leaf and flowers of the plant whereas it is absent in the roots. Similar to arsenic, cadmium, and chromium, copper is also found to have high concentration in leaves; and roots are not storing any copper during the first year and is acting as a transportation channel for fluids. Hence, least amount of copper is present in roots.

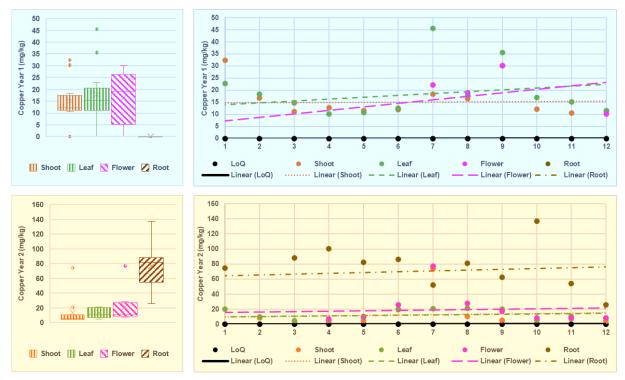


Figure 4-4 Concentration of Copper in root, shoot, leaf and flower in 2 years of growth of 12 species of plants. In the first year of growth the maximum concentration of copper is present in the leaves is approx. 45 mg/kg. Species such as artemisia vulgaris and achillea millefolium show maximum uptake of copper in the leaves; whereas alopecurus pratensis shows high accumulation in the shoot. After 2 years of growth, roots are now actively involved in storing copper and show a maximum concentration of up to 140 mg/kg, whereas the uptake of copper remains unchanged in the leaves, shoot and flower. All the species show high concentration of copper with galium mollugo, holcus lanatus, and poa angustifolia show maximum retention of copper in roots.

4.1.5 NICKEL

Nickel is one of the most abundantly found element in earth's crust. It is a natural component of soil and water. Mostly nickel is released from metallurgical industries using nickel, combustion of fuels containing nickel additives, burning of coal and oil, electroplating units using nickel salts, incineration of nickel containing substances. Naturally, nickel is found in its ores nickelite, millerite and pentlandite. Similar to copper, nickel is also essential in low concentration to living organisms yet produces toxic effects if present in large magnitude. Humans may get exposed to nickel through inhalation, drinking water, by food or by smoking cigarettes. Nickel fumes are respiratory irritants and causes pneumonitis. Dermatitis i.e nickel

itch is caused by skin exposure. Nickel tetracarbonyl (Ni(CO)₄) gas is the most toxic Ni compounds and it is the first to cause deaths in refineries.

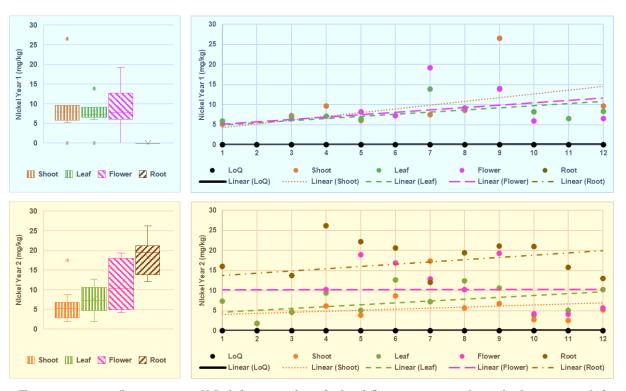


Figure 4-5 Concentration of Nickel in root, shoot, leaf and flower in 2 years of growth of 12 species of plants The immediate symptoms includes headaches, nausea, weakness, dizziness, vomiting, and epigastric pain. High level occupational exposure has been associated with renal problems, vertigo and dyspnoea. Nickel binds to the biomass of plants and animals, hence its uptake must be studied. As shown in Figure 4-5, all 12 plant species in their first year of growth shows uptake of nickel in shoot and flowers and moderately in leaves. Highest accumulation of nickel is observed in plant shoot. Similar to copper, nickel is also present in the shoot, leaf and flowers of the plant whereas it is absent in the roots. Nickel is also found to have high concentration in leaves; and roots are not actively storing nickel during the first year. In the first year of growth the maximum concentration of nickel is present in the leaves is approx. 27 mg/kg. Species such as achillea millefolium, artemisia vulgaris, and holcus lanatus show maximum uptake of nickel in the shoot; these species also show high accumulation in the leaves and flowers. After 2 years of growth, roots are now actively involved in storing nickel and show a maximum concentration of up to 27 mg/kg, whereas the uptake of nickel also increase in the leaves, shoot and flower. All the species show high concentration of nickel with holcus lanatus, arrhenatherum elatius, achillea millefolium, and galium mollugo show maximum retention of nickel in roots.

4.1.6 LEAD

Lead is the most common heavy metallic element generated by automobile emissions, lead smelters, burning of coal and oil, lead arsenate pesticides, smoking, mining and plumbing. It is mainly used for manufacture of lead-acid batteries, solder and alloys. Lead is not required nutritionally by human yet it is found in all human tissues and organs. It is called systemic poison, once absorbed into the circulation it will distribute throughout the body, where it may affect organs and tissues.

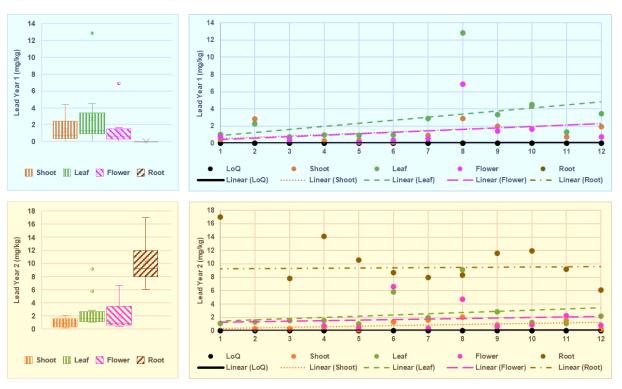


Figure 4-6 Concentration of Lead in root, shoot, leaf and flower in 2 years of growth of 12 species of plants

It causes lead poisoning leading to anaemia, renal tubular dysfunction. Secondary effects include gastrointestinal tract, nausea, anorexia, cramps and constipation. Muscle aches, joint pain, lung damage, asthma, bronchitis, pneumonia are also observed in persons exposed to lead. From point of view of phytoremediation, plants absorb lead and bind to its biomass. Hence, uptake of lead needs to be studied. Phytoremediation potential of different species of plants to absorb lead shall be carried out. As shown in Figure 4-6, after 1 year of growth of all species of plants under consideration, all components seem to have up-taken and stored lead in their biomass i.e., in the shoot, leaf and flowers but very less amount is present in the roots. Similar to previously discussed elements, lead is also found to have maximum concentration in leaves and the roots are not storing any lead. Hence, least amount of lead is present in roots.

In the first year of growth the maximum concentration of lead is present in the leaves i.e., of approx. 12.8 mg/kg. Species such as urtica dioica, galium mollugo, achillea millefolium, and artemisia vulgaris show maximum uptake of lead in the leaves. After 2 years of growth, roots now store lead and show a maximum concentration of up to 17 mg/kg. Uptake of lead has been observed to decrease in the leaves, shoot and flower after 2 years of growth. Alopecurus pratensis, holcus lanatus, galium mollugo, and achillea millefolium show maximum retention of lead in roots.

4.1.7 ZINC

Zinc is mostly generated from anthropogenic sources such as zinc refineries, galvanizing processes, brass manufacture, metal plating, and plumbing. The major source of zinc in water results from erosion. Zinc is released in air from igneous emission and forest fires. Naturally, zinc is found as sphalerite, smithsonite, hemimorphite, and franklinite. cuprite and malachite. Zinc is essential in low concentration to living organisms yet may become toxic if excessive amount of zinc salts are ingested. Excess amounts of zinc causes nausea, vomiting, fever, stomach cramps, diarrhea, lethargy, dizziness and lack of muscular coordination. Nutritional deficiency of zinc is related to retarded growth, immaturity and anemia. As an essential metal it helps for proper growth, physiological and metabolic processes. Hence, deficiency of zinc may create detrimental effects on health. High intake of zinc may cause acute renal failure. Uptake of zinc must be studied to determine the phytoremediation potential of different species of plants. As shown in Figure 4-7, all 12 plant species in their first year of growth shows uptake of zinc in shoot, leaves and flowers. It is worth observing that highest amount of zinc is found in leaves. Zinc is present in the shoot, leaf and flowers of the plant whereas it is absent in the roots. Similar to previously discussed elements, zinc is also found to have highest concentration built-up in leaves; and roots are not storing zinc during the first year and is acting as a transportation channel for fluids. Hence, least amount of zinc is present in roots. In the first year of growth the maximum concentration of zinc is present in the leaves is approx. 1200 mg/kg. Species such as artemisia vulgaris, stellaria holostea, and silene vulgaris show maximum uptake of zinc in the leaves; whereas artemisia vulgaris also shows high accumulation in the shoot. After 2 years of growth, roots are now actively involved in storing zinc and show a maximum concentration of 1300 mg/kg, whereas the uptake of zinc increase slightly in the leaves and flower. On the contrary, concentration of zinc in shoot has fallen. All

the species show high concentration of zinc with alopecurus pratensis, galium mollugo, and arrhenatherum elatius show maximum retention of zinc in roots. artemisia vulgaris, stellaria holostea still show highest built-up of zinc in leaves.

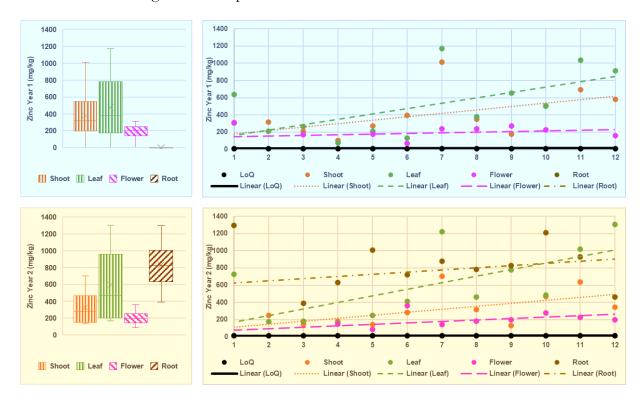


Figure 4-7 Concentration of Zinc in root, shoot, leaf and flower in 2 years of growth of 12 species of plants

Table 4-1 Maximum concentrations of toxic elements in top three species of plants

Sr.	T1 ,	T.T. 1			1st year			2 nd	year	
No.	Element	Head	Root	Shoot	Leaf	Flower	Root	Shoot	Leaf	Flower
		Max. Conc. (mg/kg)	0	1.56	4.84	3.11	19.2	2.79	10.93	11.16
1	As	Species	-	Galium mollugo, Urtica dioica, Artemisia vulgaris	Artemisia vulgaris, Urtica dioica, Achillea millefolium	Urtica dioica, Alopecurus pratensis, Arrhenatherum elatius	Alopecurus pratensis, Urtica dioica, Bromus inermis	Bromus inermis, Artemisia vulgaris, Urtica dioica	Artemisia vulgaris, Bromus inermis, Urtica dioica	Bromus inermis, Urtica dioica, Galium mollugo
		Max. Conc. (mg/kg)	0	35.21	56.01	22.49	117	27.82	56.72	18.7
2	Cd	Species	-	Artemisia vulgaris, Stellaria holostea, Silene vulgaris	Artemisia vulgaris, Stellaria holostea, Silene vulgaris	Artemisia vulgaris, Galium mollugo, Achillea millefolium	Galium mollugo, Alopecurus pratensis, Holcus lanatus	vulgaris,	Artemisia vulgaris, Stellaria holostea, Achillea millefolium	Artemisia vulgaris, Bromus inermis, Stellaria holostea
	Cr	Max. Conc. (mg/kg)	0	10.63	9.63	11.13	17.68	4.75	6.33	5.04
3		Species	-	Silene vulgaris, Urtica dioica, Artemisia vulgaris	Silene vulgaris, Galium mollugo, Urtica dioica	Urtica dioica, Silene vulgaris, Galium mollugo	Holcus lanatus, Alopecurus pratensis, Galium mollugo	Artemisia vulgaris, Bromus inermis, Achillea millefolium	Urtica dioica, Bromus inermis, Alopecurus pratensis	Urtica dioica, Bromus inermis, Arrhenatherum elatius

Sr.	T.I	TT 1			1st year			2 nd	year	
No.	Element	Head	Root	Shoot	Leaf	Flower	Root	Shoot	Leaf	Flower
		Max. Conc. (mg/kg)	0	32.36	45.53	30.27	137.25	74.18	21.17	77
4	Си	Species	-	Alopecurus pratensis, Achillea millefolium, Artemisia vulgaris	Artemisia vulgaris, Achillea millefolium, Alopecurus pratensis	Achillea millefolium, Artemisia vulgaris, Urtica dioica	Galium mollugo, Holcus lanatus, Poa angustifolia	Artemisia vulgaris, Bromus inermis, Urtica dioica	1	Artemisia vulgaris, Urtica dioica, Bromus inermis
		Max. Conc. (mg/kg)		26.52	14.02	19.2	26.18	17.44	12.66	19.3
5	Ni	Species		Achillea millefolium, Silene vulgaris, Holcus lanatus	Achillea millefolium, Artemisia vulgaris, Urtica dioica	Artemisia vulgaris, Achillea millefolium, Urtica dioica	Holcus lanatus, Arrhenatherum elatius, Achillea millefolium	Artemisia vulgaris, Bromus inermis, Achillea millefolium	Achillea	Achillea millefolium, Arrhenatherum elatius, Bromus inermis
	_	Max. Conc. (mg/kg)	0	4.38	12.85	6.89	17	2.05	9.15	6.63
6	Pb	Species	-	Galium mollugo, Urtica dioica, Elytrigia repens	Galium	Urtica dioica, Galium mollugo, Achillea millefolium	Alopecurus pratensis, Holcus lanatus, Galium mollugo		,Urtica dioica Bromus inermis, Achillea millefolium	Bromus inermis, Urtica dioica, Stellaria holostea

Sr.	Element	Head			1 st year			2^n	^{id} year	
No.	Liemeni	пеаа	Root	Shoot	Leaf	Flower	Root	Shoot	Leaf	Flower
		Max. Conc. (mg/kg)	0	1014	1169	311.8	1296	702.7	1304	362.7
7	Zn	Species	-	Artemisia vulgaris, Stellaria holostea, Silene vulgaris	Artemisia vulgaris, Stellaria holostea, Silene vulgaris	Alopecurus pratensis, Achillea millefolium, Urtica dioica	Alopecurus pratensis, Galium mollugo, Arrhenatherum elatius	Artemisia vulgaris, Stellaria holostea, Galium mollugo	Silene vulgaris, Artemisia vulgaris, Stellaria holostea	Bromus inermis, Galium mollugo, Stellaria holostea

Table 4-2 Maximum concentrations of toxic elements in top species of plants

Sr.	Element	Head			1 st year			2 nd ye	ear	
No.	Liemeni	Пеаа	Root	Shoot	Leaf	Flower	Root	Shoot	Leaf	Flower
1	As	Max. Conc. (mg/kg)	0	1.56	4.84	3.11	19.2	2.79	10.93	11.16
1	∠13	Species	-	Galium mollugo	Artemisia vulgaris	Urtica dioica	Alopecurus pratensis	Bromus inermis	Artemisia vulgaris	Bromus inermis
2	Cd	Max. Conc. (mg/kg)	0	35.21	56.01	22.49	117	27.82	56.72	18.7
2	Ca	Species	-	Artemisia vulgaris	Artemisia vulgaris	Artemisia vulgaris	Galium mollugo	Artemisia vulgaris	Artemisia vulgaris	Artemisia vulgaris
3	Cr	Max. Conc. (mg/kg)	0	10.63	9.63	11.13	17.68	4.75	6.33	5.04
<i></i>	Cr	Species	-	Silene vulgaris	Silene vulgaris	Urtica dioica	Holcus lanatus	Artemisia vulgaris	Urtica dioica	Urtica dioica

Sr.	Element	Head			1 st year			2 nd ye	ear	
No.	Liemeni	Пеаа	Root	Shoot	Leaf	Flower	Root	Shoot	Leaf	Flower
4	Си	Max. Conc. (mg/kg)	0	32.36	45.53	30.27	137.25	74.18	21.17	77
4	Cu	Species	-	Alopecurus pratensis			Galium mollugo	Artemisia vulgaris	Urtica dioica	Artemisia vulgaris
5	Ni	Max. Conc. (mg/kg)	0	26.52 14.02		19.2	26.18	17.44	12.66	19.3
5	1 N Z	Species	-	Achillea millefolium	Achillea millefolium	Artemisia vulgaris	Holcus lanatus	Artemisia vulgaris	Bromus inermis	Achillea millefolium
6	Pb	Max. Conc. (mg/kg)	0	4.38	12.85	6.89	17	2.05	9.15	6.63
	Γθ	Species	-	Galium mollugo	Urtica dioica	Urtica dioica	Alopecurus pratensis	Urtica dioica	Urtica dioica	Bromus inermis
7	Zn	Max. Conc. (mg/kg) 0 1014		1014	1169	311.8	1296	702.7	1304	362.7
	ĽΝ	Species -		Artemisia vulgaris	Artemisia vulgaris	Alopecurus pratensis	Alopecurus pratensis	Artemisia vulgaris	Silene vulgaris	Bromus inermis

Above table reveals that out of 56 instances, artemisia vulgaris (30.35 % occurrences) is the plant species that absorbs and accumulate most of toxic elements followed by urtica dioica (16.07 %), alopecurus pratensis (8.93%), bromus inermis (8.93%). Overall ranking based on toxic element up take is as follows:

Table 4-3 Overall ranking of species of plants suitable for phytoremediation

Rank	Species	% occurrences
1	Artemisia vulgaris	30.35
2	Urtica dioica	16.07
3	Alopecurus pratensis	8.93
4	Bromus inermis	8.93
5	Galium mollugo	5.36
6	Achillea millefolium	5.36
7	Silene vulgaris	3.57
8	Holcus lanatus	3.57

4.1.8 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Correlation table reveals that at root level Cu-Cd, Zn-Cd and Pb-Cr pairs show strong positive correlation. Zn-Cd pair appears to have strong positive correlation in the shoot. In general, Zn-Cd show strong correlation in all components i.e., root, shoot, leaf and flower.

Table 4-4 Correlation table for various toxic elements in shoot, root, leaf and flower

Shoot	As	Cd	Cr	Cu	Ni	Pb	Zn	Root	As	Cd	Cr	Cu	Ni	Pb	Zn
As	1							As	1						
Cd	0.22	1						Cd	0.23	1					
Cr	0.32	0.46	1					Cr	0.39	0.46	1				
Cu	0.56	0.4	0.33	1				Cu	-0.08	0.69	0.5	1			
Ni	0.38	0.26	0.59	0.63	1			Ni	0.14	0.24	0.57	0.51	1		
Pb	0.54	0.1	0.68	0.21	0.34	1		Pb	0.41	0.58	0.84	0.25	0.38	1	
Zn	0.34	0.89	0.53	0.31	0.03	0.25	1	Zn	0.38	0.72	0.18	0.11	0	0.56	1
Leaf	As	Cd	Cr	Cu	Ni	Pb	Zn	Flower	As	Cd	Cr	Cu	Ni	Pb	Zn
As	1							As	1						
Cd	0.43	1						Cd	0.08	1					
Cr	0.02	-0.09	1					Cr	0.21	-0.48	1				
Cu	0.42	0.54	0.42	1				Cu	0.08	0.5	-0.06	1			
Ni	0.53	0.29	0.5	0.73	1			Ni	0.27	0.23	-0.16	0.23	1		
Pb	0.42	-0.08	0.65	0.25	0.5	1		Pb	0.77	-0.11	0.61	-0.01	0.01	1	
Zn	0.36	0.9	0.08	0.53	0.27	0.01	1	Zn	0.59	0.39	0.03	-0.06	0.05	0.49	1

4.2 EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

4.2.1 CHARACTERISTICS OF KITCHEN WASTE

Table 4-5 presents the descriptive statistics of the characteristics of kitchen waste found in various literatures.

Table 4-5 Typical Characteristics of Kitchen Waste (Singh & Reghu, 2015, Gurd et. al, 2019)

Parameter	Mean	Standard Error	Median	Standard Deviation	Sample Variance	Minimun	n Maximum
BOD (mg/l)	473.21	84.34	470	315.59	99597.41	58.00	1193.00
COD (mg/l)	1070.63	3182.36	980	604.84	365830.85	292.00	2305.00
Total Phosphate (mg/l)	4.36	0.28	4.60	0.49	0.24	3.80	4.70
Na+ (mg/l)	364.24	7.90	358.20	17.66	312.01	348.40	394.20
Ca+(mg/l)	450.40	35.57	468.00	79.54	6326.80	320.00	534.00
Mg+ (mg/l)	458.40	43.07	430.00	96.30	9274.30	389.00	625.00
K+ (mg/l)	34.72	1.17	33.20	2.61	6.81	32.60	38.50
TDS (mg/l)	1455.20	51.25	1450.00	114.61	13134.70	1281.00	1582.00
Electrical Conductivity (µS/cm)	3.15	0.01	3.15	0.02	-	3.12	3.18
SAR	17.15	0.45	16.66	1.00	0.99	16.26	18.59
Na%	27.85	0.56	27.38	1.25	1.56	26.74	29.49

4.2.2 PH

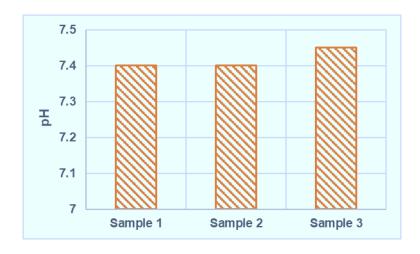


Figure 4-8Trend of pH for various samples

pH of wastewater generally reduces with time as wastewater degrades and forms acids. Figure 4-8 presents the trend of pH in water at various stages was not significantly varying. pH of kitchen wastewater initially was about 7.4. pH of second sample was 7.4. Whereas, pH of the third sample collected after 2 days of keeping the bottom of the pot plugged with a rubber cork after application of kitchen wastewater was 7.45.

4.2.3 ELECTRICAL CONDUCTIVITY

Electrical conductivity of wastewater changes as the wastewater degrades and is up-taken by the plant. Figure 4-9 presents the trend of EC in water at various stages of phytoremediation. EC of kitchen wastewater initially was about 495 μ S/cm. EC of the second sample was 512 μ S/cm. Whereas, EC of the third sample collected after 2 days of keeping the bottom of the pot plugged with a rubber cork after application of kitchen wastewater was 476 μ S/cm.

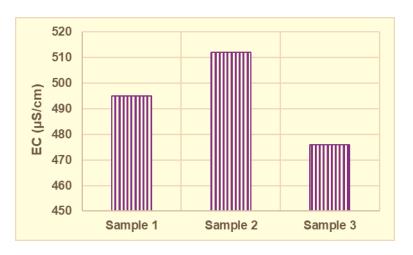


Figure 4-9 Trend of electrical conductivity (EC) for various samples

4.2.4 TOTAL DISSOLVED SOLIDS

Dissolved solids in wastewater are present as the exchanges between wastewater and soil turbidity. Figure 4-10 presents the trend of TDS in water at various stages of phytoremediation. TDS of kitchen wastewater initially was about 261 mg/l. TDS of the second sample was 280 mg/l. Whereas, TDS of the third sample collected after 2 days of keeping the bottom of the pot plugged with a rubber cork after application of kitchen wastewater was 248 mg/l.

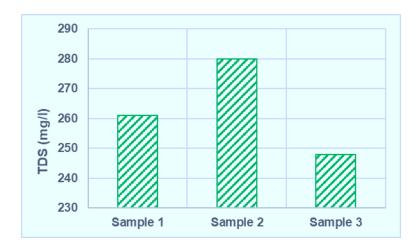


Figure 4-10 Trend of total dissolved solids (TDS) for various samples

4.2.5 BIOCHEMICAL OXYGEN DEMAND

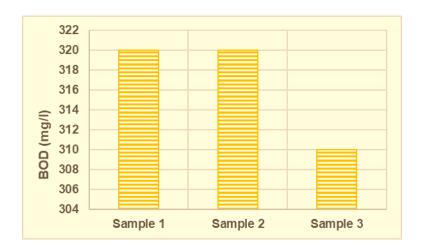


Figure 4-11 Trend of biochemical oxygen demand (BOD) for various samples

Biochemical oxygen demand of wastewater is the most important characteristic for phytoremediation, as the most uptake of plant are the organic constituents. Figure 4-11 presents the trend of BOD of water at various stages of phytoremediation. BOD of kitchen wastewater initially was about 320 mg/l. BOD of the second sample was 320 mg/l. Whereas, BOD of the third sample collected after 2 days of keeping the bottom of the pot plugged with a rubber cork after application of kitchen wastewater was 310 mg/l.

4.2.6 CHEMICAL OXYGEN DEMAND

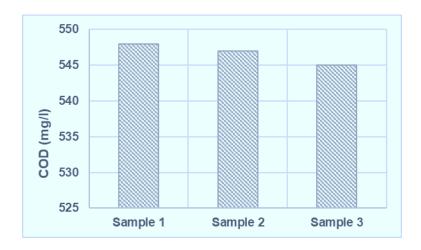


Figure 4-12 Trend of chemical oxygen demand (COD) for various samples

Chemical oxygen demand of wastewater is the factor which may be least affected by phytoremediation as it represents the non-organic component. Figure 4-12 presents the trend of COD of water at various stages of phytoremediation. There is almost no significant change in the trend of COD. COD of kitchen wastewater initially was about 548 mg/l. COD of the second sample was 547 mg/l. Whereas, COD of the third sample collected after 2 days of keeping the bottom of the pot plugged with a rubber cork after application of kitchen wastewater was 545 mg/l.

4.2.7 TOTAL PHOSPHATE

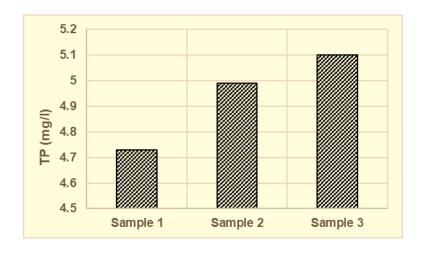


Figure 4-13 Trend of total phosphate (TP) for various samples

Total phosphate is present due to presence of detergents in the kitchen waste and also due to the nutrient dosage in form of fertilizers. It may affect the overall process of phytoremediation as it supports growth of the plant. Figure 4-13 presents the trend of TP of water at various stages of phytoremediation. TP is found to get dissolved into the wastewater and rise up after interaction with soil. TP of kitchen wastewater initially was about 4.73 mg/l. TP of the second sample was 4.99 mg/l. Whereas, TP of the third sample collected after 2 days of keeping the bottom of the pot plugged with a rubber cork after application of kitchen wastewater was 5.1 mg/l.

4.2.8 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Table 4-6 Correlation table for various water quality parameters

	рН	TDS	EC	BOD	COD	TP
рН	1					
TDS	-0.81	1				
EC	-0.88	0.99	1			
BOD	-1	0.81	0.88	1		
COD	-0.94	0.57	0.68	0.94	1	
TP	0.73	-0.18	-0.32	-0.73	-0.91	1

Correlation table reveals that TDS-EC, BOD-COD and EC-BOD pairs show strong positive correlation; whereas, pH-BOD, pH-COD, COD-Phosphate pairs appears to have strong negative correlation in the water samples.

Chapter 5.

Conclusion

The study concludes to prove the use of live plants for removal of environmental pollutants. Phytoremediation bears down to the capacity of plants to absorb, accumulate and store elements from water and soil into their biomass. Physiology of plants plays important role in phytoremediation as not all plants can hyperaccumulate contaminants. In the remediation of contaminants there are several mechanisms involved for uptake of metals from polluted waters for treatment and render them non-toxic. The report studies 13 species of plants and assess their phytoremediation potential to remove BOD from kitchen wastewater in the experimental study and toxic elements such as arsenic, cadmium, chromium, copper, nickel, lead and zinc from contaminated soil in the case study. It was found that plants remove elements by absorbing and binding various elements organically in their biomass. Hence, phytoremediation potential of different species of plants shall be assessed for absorbing different elements. The experimental study rather being of a short duration concludes that there is scope for plants to absorb organic materials and stabilise kitchen wastewater.

In the case study, during the first year of growth, all the species of plants have absorbed and stored toxic elements in their biomass specially in their shoot, leaves and flowers but very less amount was found to accumulate in the roots. Also, due to the photosynthetic activity, leaves contain the most concentration of absorbed element. On the contrary, after the second year of growth, it is evident that roots now actively store toxic elements in it. And maximum concentration of toxic elements later is found in roots. Whereas, concentration of toxic element does not seem to increase significantly in other parts of the plant. Plant species such as artemisia vulgaris, urtica dioica, achillea millefolium show maximum accumulation of arsenic in the leaves. Urtica dioica also shows arsenic retention in flowers. Arsenic has increased in leaves after two years of growth whereas, the increase in shoot and flower is not significant. Alopecurus pratensis, bromus inermis, urtica dioica show maximum retention of arsenic in roots. Species such as artemisia vulgaris, stellaria holostea, and silene vulgaris show

maximum uptake of cadmium in the leaves. Uptake of cadmium has not increased significantly in the leaves, shoot and flower after two years of growth. Galium mollugo, alopecurus pratensis, and holcus lanatus show maximum retention of cadmium in roots. Species such as urtica dioca and artemisia vulgaris show maximum uptake of chromium in the flowers; whereas urtica dioica, galium mollugo, and silene vulgaris shows high accumulation in leaves. Whereas, the uptake of chromium has decreased significantly in the leaves, shoot and flower. Holcus lanatus, alopecurus pratensis, galium mollugo, and arrhenatherum elatius show maximum retention of chromium in roots.

Species such as artemisia vulgaris and achillea millefolium show maximum uptake of copper in the leaves; whereas alopecurus pratensis shows high accumulation in the shoot. Whereas the uptake of copper remains unchanged in the leaves, shoot and flower. All the species show high concentration of copper with galium mollugo, holcus lanatus, and poa angustifolia show maximum retention of copper in roots. Species such as achillea millefolium, artemisia vulgaris, and holcus lanatus show maximum uptake of nickel in the shoot; these species also show high accumulation in the leaves and flowers. Whereas the uptake of nickel also increase in the leaves, shoot and flower. All the species show high concentration of nickel with holcus lanatus, arrhenatherum elatius, achillea millefolium, and galium mollugo show maximum retention of nickel in roots. Species such as urtica dioica, galium mollugo, achillea millefolium, and artemisia vulgaris show maximum uptake of lead in the leaves. Uptake of lead has been observed to decrease in the leaves, shoot and flower after second year of growth. Alopecurus pratensis, holcus lanatus, galium mollugo, and achillea millefolium show maximum retention of lead in roots. Species such as artemisia vulgaris, stellaria holostea, and silene vulgaris show maximum uptake of zinc in the leaves; whereas artemisia vulgaris also shows high accumulation in the shoot., whereas the uptake of zinc increase slightly in the leaves and flower. On the contrary, concentration of zinc in shoot has fallen. All the species show high concentration of zinc with alopecurus pratensis, galium mollugo, and arrhenatherum elatius show maximum retention of zinc in roots. artemisia vulgaris, stellaria holostea still show highest built-up of zinc in leaves. Concentration of elements pairs such as Cu-Cd, Zn-Cd and Pb-Cr pairs show strong positive correlation in roots. Zn-Cd pair appears to have strong positive correlation in the shoot. In general, Zn-Cd show strong correlation in all components i.e., root, shoot, leaf and flower. Numerous elements in environment tends to be toxic, hence release of such pollutants shall be consciously disposed taking adequate measures.

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Annexure I: Raw Data

Table A-1 Experimental Study Data

Species		рН	TDS, mg/l	EC, mg/l	BOD, mg/l	COD, mg/l	TP, mg/l
Hibiscus rosa-sinensis	Sample 1	7.4	261	495	320	548	4.73
	Sample 2	7.4	280	512	320	547	4.99
	Sample 3	7.45	248	476	310	545	5.1

Table A-2 Case Study Data (Antoniadis et al., 2021)

				2	004				2005						
Charins		As,	Cd,	Cr,	Cu,	Ni,	Pb,	Zn,	As,	Cd,	Cr,	Cu,	Ni,	Pb,	Zn,
Species		mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg
	LoQ	0.0208	0.0052	0.0156	0.0094	0.0271	0.0104	11.5	0.0208	0.0052	0.0156	0.0094	0.0271	0.0104	11.5
Alopecurus pratensis	Shoot	0.77	11.65		32.36	5.15	0.51	309							
		0.52	1.54		4.73		0.37	194.1							
	Leaf	1.07	10.5		22.81	5.96	1.03	640	2.22	4.36	4.63	20.51	7.36	1.09	725

				2	004							2005			
Species		As,	Cd, mg/kg	Cr, mg/kg	Cu, mg/kg	Ni, mg/kg	Pb, mg/kg	Zn, mg/kg	As,	Cd, mg/kg	Cr, mg/kg	Cu, mg/kg	Ni, mg/kg	Pb, mg/kg	Zn, mg/kg
	LoQ	0.0208	0.0052	0.0156	0.0094	0.0271	0.0104	11.5	0.0208	0.0052	0.0156	0.0094	0.0271	0.0104	11.5
		0.24	3.67		3.14	0.63	0.46	274.5	1.11	2.11	9.47	34.57	7.05	0.63	176.7
	Flower	1.2	7.52				0.83	311.8							
		0.16	4.32				0.65	139.3							
	Root								19.2	75.08	15.5	74.5	16.05	17	1296
									3.25	40.92	9.41	15.15	3.55	9.74	217.4
Elytrigia repens	Shoot	0.87	4.01		16.77		2.85	319.1	0.42	1.32	0.54	8.88	1.82	0.35	248.7
		0.57	0.84		1.99		4.54	72.24	0.07	0.25	0.16	2.61	0.51	0.06	74.51
	Leaf	1.41	2.58		18.33		2.3	209.7	1.19	1.23	1.55	10.2	1.88	1.34	177
		0.48	0.93		2.22		1.1	96.68	0.37	0.77	0.22	2.03	0.63	0.91	7.48
	Flower														
	Root														
Poa angustifolia	Shoot	0.51	10.26		11.19	7.32	0.55	211.1	0.29	2.1	0.97	4.34	4.7	0.32	150.6
		0.21	5.63		0.51	1.22	0.39	29.83	0.13	1.03	0.29	0.61	0.43	0.15	49.57
	Leaf	0.92	6.27		14.74	6.79	0.74	269.5	0.75	2.46	1.23	4.89	4.64	1.55	184.6
		0.22	1.74		3.39	1.45	0.29	50.78	0.25	0.87	0.21	0.76	1.31	0.56	47.54
	Flower	0.73	3.69				0.33	170.3							
	Root								4.79	17.9	8.35	88.25	13.83	7.86	390.2
									1.42	6.09	1.7	3.95	0.36	5.85	19.55

				2	004				2005							
Species	As,	As,	Cd,	Cr,	Cu,	Ni,	Pb,	Zn,	As,	Cd,	Cr,	Cu,	Ni,	Pb,	Zn,	
<i>Spuus</i>		mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	
	LoQ	0.0208	0.0052	0.0156	0.0094	0.0271	0.0104	11.5	0.0208	0.0052	0.0156	0.0094	0.0271	0.0104	11.5	
Holcus lanatus	Shoot	0.47	4.4		12.84	9.65	0.32	102.5	0.54	3.57	0.89	3.93	6.24	0.55	181.3	
		0.12	2.2		2.71	1.14	0.18	33.81	0.05	0.95	0.19	0.37	0.88	0.32	64.75	
	Leaf	1.23	3.05		10.14	7.14	0.96	74.6	2.87	3.53	1.97	5.88	9.5	1.55	165	
		0.28	1.11		1.08	1.24	0.48	11.37	1.77	1.11	1.05	1.33	2.05	1.04	25.77	
	Flower								0.48	3.28	2.01	7.2	10.3	0.73	146.7	
	Root								13.64	48.3	17.68	100.25	26.18	14.09	633.5	
									5.01	11.67	7.05	3.59	2.96	11.45	76.99	
Arrhenatherum elatius	Shoot	0.66	6.84		11.47	6.05	0.36	273.1	0.43	3.36	0.7	4.88	3.95	0.17	144.3	
		0.22	1.77		1.58	0.77	0.16	172.2	0.02	1.78	0.36	0.93	1.76	0.1	20.02	
	Leaf	1.43	4.61		10.81	6.5	0.92	211.5	3.28	5.17	1.39	9.31	5.11	1.03	248	
		0.76	1.79		1.7		0.53	72.17	2.47	1.25	0.47	0.84	1.91	0.43	54.95	
	Flower	1.07	1.77			8.23	0.17	178.1	0.4	0.55	3.3	10.4	19	0.51	85.6	
		0.75	0.8			2.98	0.07	54.22								
	Root								11.43	37.2	10.3	82.25	22.18	10.58	1007	
									2.35	3.8	1.84	4.99	0.86	1.33	108.8	
Bromus inermis	Shoot	0.56	13.7		11.87		0.15	395.3	2.79	1.5	2.83	20.45	8.7	1.3	281.4	
		0.21	0.14				0.03	224.4	1.84	0.58	4.6	32.22	7.01	0.86	64.7	
	Leaf	1.37	6.15		12.56		0.98	135.2	7.8	1.73	4.7	19.74	12.66	5.78	411.4	
		0.36	0.51				1.33	72.48	4.47	1.03	2.56	3.68	3	3.4	145	

				2	004				2005							
Species		As, mg/kg	Cd, mg/kg	Cr, mg/kg	Cu, mg/kg	Ni, mg/kg	Pb, mg/kg	Zn, mg/kg	As,	Cd, mg/kg	Cr, mg/kg	Cu, mg/kg	Ni, mg/kg	Pb, mg/kg	Zn, mg/kg	
	LoQ	0.0208	0.0052	0.0156	0.0094	0.0271	0.0104	11.5	0.0208	0.0052	0.0156	0.0094	0.0271	0.0104	11.5	
	Flower	0.31	1.14			7.27	0.38	71.5	11.16	12.56	3.48	25.87	16.93	6.63	362.7	
									10.52	20.12	3.14	5.01	11.51	6.04	340.1	
	Root								14.7	33.55	6.85	86	20.65	8.72	720.5	
									2.97	11.24	2.62	19.8	5.3	3.93	202.9	
Artemisia vulgaris	Shoot	1.27	35.21	6.55	18.36	7.53	0.95	1014	2.19	27.82	4.75	74.18	17.44	1.63	702.7	
		0.59	17.64		17.45	8.71	1.18	693.2	2.33	10	3.69	52.49	11.2	2.26	189.6	
	Leaf	4.84	56.01		45.53	13.86	2.89	1169	10.93	56.72	1.38	20.72	7.3	1.98	1221	
		2.43	19.17		15.25	8.24	1.34	470.9	2.34	54.63	1.69	27.91	6.56	0.55	902	
	Flower	0.76	22.49		22.24	19.2	0.56	237.1	0.44	18.7	1.92	77	12.9	0.39	142.5	
		0.44	6.59		2.98	2.65	0.37	102.8								
	Root								8.49	19.55	2.42	52.25	12.09	8	877.3	
									5.8	7.77	2.09	27.43	5.22	6.12	173.3	
Urtica dioica	Shoot	1.45	1.11	7.85	16.46	8.59	2.89	349	1.8	7.08	1.98	10.72	5.74	2.05	319.2	
		1.37	0.67	1.5	5.02	1.88	2.93	239.6	0.88	14.55	1.17	3.15	1.43	1.34	47.98	
	Leaf	3.81	0.84	7.85	18.01	9.16	12.85	380.9	6.7	14.7	6.33	21.17	12.43	9.15	464.8	
		2.14	0.37	1.61	3.82	2.13	4.45	111.1	4.31	25.18	2.89	4.76	2.09	10.71	68.89	
	Flower	3.11	0.45	11.13	19.03	9.1	6.89	238.1	2.88	0.69	5.04	28.2	10.23	4.75	184.4	
		4.81	0.59	7.21	5.25	2.68	11.37	139.2	2.54	0.23	4.06	1.71	0.83	4.52	11.11	
	Root								15.6	29.13	7.13	81.38	19.43	8.34	781	
									3.86	7.16	2.34	21.9	4.45	2.71	145.6	

				2	004				2005							
Charian		As,	Cd,	Cr,	Cu, mg/kg	Ni, mg/kg	Pb, mg/kg	Zn, mg/kg	As,	Cd, mg/kg	Cr, mg/kg	Cu, mg/kg	Ni, mg/kg	Pb, mg/kg	Zn, mg/kg	
Species		mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg					mg/kg							
	LoQ	0.0208	0.0052	0.0156	0.0094	0.0271	0.0104	11.5	0.0208	0.0052	0.0156	0.0094	0.0271	0.0104	11.5	
Achillea millefolium	Shoot	1.16	11.26		30.27	26.52	2.01	179	0.7	9.1	2.26	5.47	6.8	0.87	130.2	
		1.28	5.41			14.04	2.19	209.2	0.09	1.39	2.01	1.06	2.15	0.45	22.84	
	Leaf	3.48	20.46		35.6	14.02	3.36	655.6	3.34	24.34	1.83	20.19	10.7	2.82	778.9	
		1.26	5.98		6.4	8.15	2.59	242.6	1.04	6.15	0.54	4.52	1.82	1.35	158.6	
	Flower	0.98	9.15		30.27	13.85	1.44	270.8	0.37	6.3	0.58	17.9	19.3	0.68	196.9	
		1.39	6.59			2.58	1.84	181.7								
	Root								4.7	23.83	6.93	62.75	21.15	11.58	828.5	
									0.75	4.31	1.68	8.5	2.02	0.95	158.6	
Galium mollugo	Shoot	1.56	14.53		12.2	8.21	4.38	506.5	0.72	12.29	0.75	5.41	2.88	0.96	466.2	
		1.06	6.01				1.07	285	0.17	2.48	0.17	0.97	0.87	0.35	110.2	
	Leaf	2.09	15.48	8.76	16.97	8.24	4.5	500.7	0.99	12.93	0.89	5.84	3.89	1.23	482.8	
		1.29	5.71	1.43	3.55	1.49	4.7	211.3	0.42	2.01	0.34	1	1.16	0.66	104.1	
	Flower	0.68	13.98			5.97	1.68	226.8	0.69	7.82	0.99	8.65	4.29	0.92	279.5	
		0.43	1.79					127.7	0.34	4.86	0.41	2	0.94	0.44	108.9	
	Root								8.08	117	10.38	137.25	20.95	11.95	1208	
									3.9	8.12	2.49	18.46	1.68	8	96.7	
Stellaria holostea	Shoot	0.89	29.29		10.6		0.76	693.1	0.94	20.13	1.14	7.35	2.54	1.55	637	
		0.61	12.91		1.29		0.24	137.9	0.46	5.95	0.93	0.9	0.64	2.15	62.09	
	Leaf	0.9	37.7		15.22	6.55	1.3	1035	0.94	27.92	1.31	10.74	5.08	1.12	1017	
		0.54	20.69		4.05	1.15	0.53	393.1	0.35	13.93	0.46	3.27	1.14	1.2	208.7	

				2	004		2005								
Species		As,	Cd,	Cr,	Cu,	Ni,	Pb,	Zn,	As,	Cd,	Cr,	Cu,	Ni,	Pb,	Zn,
		mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg	mg/kg
	LoQ	0.0208	0.0052	0.0156	0.0094	0.0271	0.0104	11.5	0.0208	0.0052	0.0156	0.0094	0.0271	0.0104	11.5
	Flower								0.2	11.3	1.15	8.5	4.2	2.26	225.7
	Root								13.9	48	5.05	54.5	15.85	9.23	930
									0.43	3.11	0.35	0.71	0.64	4.14	62.23
Silene vulgaris	Shoot	0.78	19.14	10.63	11.2	9.66	1.92	584.3	0.34	4.29	0.62	4.35	5.18	0.26	342.5
		1.72	10.54		3.55	2.79	2.98	507.7	0.03	2.84	0.18	0.79	0.59	0.06	39.69
	Leaf	1.41	25.23	9.63	11.46	8.33	3.44	911.6	0.93	18.63	1.55	8.23	10.33	2.21	1304
		1.25	6.95		1.48	2.7	2	342.8	0.42	3.55	0.63	0.62	1.47	1.08	186
	Flower	0.1	5.62	6.81	10.18	6.53	0.75	162.3	0.09	2.58	0.48	8.5	5.68	0.86	202
		0.06	3.52		1.57	1.15	0.25	44.7	0.01	1.03	0.13	0.88	0.22	1.19	16.21
	Root								6.82	33.49	3.17	25.98	13.05	6.07	463
									0.87	22.52	0.55	4.54	1.17	3	57.9

Vitae

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