

Metal extraction competence of plants on waste dumps of magnesite mine, Salem District, South India

N. Mathiyazhagan, D. Natarajan^{*}

Department of Biotechnology, Periyar University, Tamilnadu, India

Received 15 April 2013; received in revised form 31 July 2013; accepted 26 November 2013 *Corresponding author: natarajpu@gmail.com (D. Natarajan).

Abstract

This ex-situ study aims to assess the metal extractive potential of fourteen agriculture plants (*Vigna unguiculata, Gossypium hirsutum, Jatropha curcas, etc.*). It was conducted on Magnesite mines which had above permissible levels of Cadmium and Lead. There was no significant difference in the total chlorophyll *a* and *b*, carbohydrate and protein contents in the plants grown in the mining soil and adjacent control area (farm soil). While considering the phytoextractive potential, out of the 14 plants studied, *V. ungiculata, O. sativa, S. bicolour, S. indium, R. communis, M. uniflorum, G. hirsutum* and *J. curcas* contained a considerable amount of heavy metals Cd and Pb other test plants. The experiment confirms that these plants have the potential to accumulate the toxic trace elements from soil, especially from mining waste or dump. Further studies deal with metal tolerant index, metal transfer factor, translocation factor and MREI index values auger their potential phyto-extractive properties. The present study will pave the way for in-depth related studies in future.

Keywords: *Mine tailings, Trace elements, Agriculture plants, Phytoremediation.*

1. Introduction

For the past two decades, people have been concerned with degradation and contaminations rampant in the mining dump yards which had been laid waste. This is a problem for both the industrialised nation as well as the developing countries. It has also been found out that some of the consequences of anthropogenic pollution are transmission of contaminants, accumulation of recalcitrant chemicals in toxic or soil. destabilization of ecological balance and human health hazards [1-2]. Remediation of soil contaminated with toxic metals is exigent and unlike organic compounds metals are hard to degrade. The cleanup of metals which is usually expensive requiring exhaustive physical or chemical processes [3] which may, sometimes be ineffective. Therefore, an alternative process involving phytoremediation is the only promising option left for remedial strategies, and it is also comparatively cheaper. The plants can be effectively used for phytoextraction [4-5], phytovolatilization and phytostabilization [6]. Among all the various phytoremediation processes phyto-extraction has been suggested by various authors as a viable technology for the removal of potentially toxic metals from soil. Phytoextraction involves two types of operation: Phyto-mining and Phyto-remediation. Phytomining is the phyto-extraction of metals for commercial gain, although it has never been tested industrially. It can be used in conventional mining operations with limited commercial prospects. It also has the potential to be used in mining areas which are normally ignored by commercial ventures, but extracted using conventional methods. The plants used for phyto-extraction promisingly and considerably processes decontaminates the polluted soil [7]. This technology has gained more fascination in recent years due to its low cost implementation, environmental benefits and better efficiency compared with other traditional methods [8]. Only a few plant species are known to survive and reproduce in soil contaminated with Pb, Cd, Ni, As and Cr [9]. One such application was extensive phytoremediation process carried out to remedy the heavy load of heavy metals (Cd, Hg and Pb) and radioactive isotopes such as U²³⁸, Cs¹³⁷ and Sr^{90} from industrial waste sites [10-12], mine tailings [13] and metal contaminated soil [14]. The plants growing on mining waste or mining tailings are subjected to heavy stress from the toxic metals. It lead to changes in their growth physiology, bio molecule accumulation causing stress toxicosic effects like reduction of biomass, chlorophyll content, carbohydrate and protein content [15]. This study identifies the extent of physiological constrains effected bv phytoremediation processes (heavy metal removal) on the test plants selected for this purpose. Normally biomass and chlorophyll content [16] of plants is an important benchmark for their phytoremediation efficiency [17], this aspect is also studied along with the phytoextractive properties.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Site description and samples collection

Soil samples were collected from open cast magnesite mine (latitude: 11.69'74'68, longitude: 78.10'29'31) and adjacent agricultural lands in Salem district, Tamil Nadu, South India. The corporate company dealing with extraction of magnesite has been operating in a large site in the vicinity for two decades. The company had been converting large tract of land around the mine as dump yard. Main source of pollution in the dump soil is the dust emanating from the mining and calcinations activities, which mainly contains MgCO₃ and MgO (Dept. of Geology and mining, Govt. of Tamil Nadu, India). In spite of the severe contamination of the soil, some grasses and few tree species were found to inhabit these mining dumps i.e., Azadirachta indica and Acacia nilotica. The region gets approximately about 650mm precipitation annually and it also considerably contributes to the spread of pollutants. The area was earmarked for mining and reported to contain residual soil to a depth of approximately 75cm and the above ground biomass mostly comprised scrub vegetation. The sampling was conducted on a heap of mine waste dump where mining was ceased 10 years ago. Three mine and three farm soil samples were collected in a dirt-free container from the heap

region and farm soil respectively. The collected soils were air-dried at room temperature and sieved (12 diameter) to remove dusts and stones.

2.2. Physicochemical and metal analysis

The pH of soil sample was determined by dissolving 5g of soil in 12.5 ml of distilled water and measured using glass electrode [18]. The Electrical conductivity (EC) was determined by the method of Sudduth et al., [19], while the N, P, K, CaCl₂ and texture were analyzed using standard procedures as followed by the Department of Agriculture, Govt. of Tamil Nadu, India. The total heavy metal content in the soil samples was analyzed through acid digestion method [18, 20]. Calcium content was estimated using the soil (mine based on the modified method of Thomas [21]. The digested liquid was filtered through Whatman filter paper No. 0.5 and the heavy metal contents of filtrate were analyzed using inductively coupled plasma-optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES, Perkin-Elmer, USA). High Analytical grade reagents were used for the above analyses.

2.3. Greenhouse experiment

The air-dried soil samples (2 kg) mixed with sterile cow dung manure (metal free) in the ratio of 1:6. The prepared soil was taken in polyethylene bags and the plants (Vigna radiata (L.) Wilczek, V. mungo (L.)Hepper, V_{\cdot} unguiculata (L.)Walp., Eleusine coracana (L.) Gaertn., Cajanus cajan (L.) Druce, Pennisetum glaucum (L.) R.Br., Macrotyloma uniflorum Lam., Oryza sativa L., Sorghum bicolour L., Sesamum indicum L., Ricinus communis L., Brassica juncea L., Gossypium hirsutum L. and Jatropha curcasL.), obtained from TNAU Coimbatore and Danishpet Nursery garden, Salemwere sown in triplicates. These plants were preferred due to their better adaptability and their short life span was fully analysed. In addition, it should be useful to understand the response of these crops on metal polluted environment (in both physical and biomolecule level). These plants were cultivated in a greenhouse with semi natural light condition in the range of 400-450 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ and temperature adjusted to 30 ±2 °C for eight weeks. The moisture content of each polyethylene bag was maintained at 75% (water holding capacity) [22] and monitored every two weeks. The bags were watered with 50 ml deionized water every 2 days. Necessary precautions were taken while watering the plants to avoid the spill/leakage of water from polyethylene bags, which may lead to pseudo-results. The germination rates (%) of the plants were recorded as followed by Etham et al. [23].

2.4 Chlorophyll analysis (a and b)

The total chlorophyll content (a and b) of the plants was estimated using young leaves of plants subjected to phyto-extraction using a spectrophotometer at two different wavelengths (647 and 664 nm) as per the modified protocol of Doong et al. [24].

2.4.1 Macro nutrient analysis

The leaf samples (0.2 g) were taken from the mid shoots of each plant (the intermediate plant leaves are perfect to analyse macronutrients, contains more amount of the molecules than young or matured leaves) to analyze and estimate the bio molecules (carbohydrate and protein), based on the modified method of Jones et al. [25].

2.4.2. Heavy metal analysis of plants

The shoot and roots of each plant were harvested and washed thoroughly with deionised water, rinsed well with distilled-deionized water, washed again with 0.1N HCl for a few seconds and further rinsed with distilled-deionized water to remove the foreign substances in rhizosphere region. Later fresh and dry weight of plants were measured (dried at 60° C). The metal content of the plants were estimated by mashing and acid digestion methods described by McGrath and Cunliffe [4] and the ensuing digest was analyzed using Inductively Coupled Plasma-Optical Emission Spectrometry (ICP-OES, Perkin-Elmer, USA).

2.5. Data analysis

2.5.1. Transfer factor

Metal concentration of extracts from soils and plants was calculated on the basis of dry weight. The plant concentration factor (PCF) was calculated as follows [26].

$$PCF = \frac{C \text{ plant}}{C \text{ soil}} \tag{1}$$

Here, C _{plant} and C _{soil} represent the heavy metal concentration in extracts of plants and soils on dry weight basis, respectively.

2.5.2. Translocation factor

Translocation of metals from roots to shoots of each plant was calculated by using a modified method of Mishra et al. [27].

$$TF = \frac{Concentration \ of \ element \ in \ Shoot}{Concentration \ of \ element \ in \ Root}$$
(2)

2.5.3. Tolerance Index

The heavy metal tolerance index of plants was calculated by using the following equation [28].

$$Tolerance index = \frac{The mean height of the plant growing}{The mean height of the plant growing} in garden soil (3) \times 100$$

2.5.4. MATNAT remediation efficiency index (MREI)

The researchers newly framed this index (including software: © 2011 Copyright reserved) to estimate better remediation efficiency value of the plant by using the following formula.

$$MREI = \frac{(m-n)/o}{p \times q}$$
(4)

Here, **m** is the amount of pollutants before remediation, n denotes the amount of pollutants after remediation, **o** represents the amount of sample (polluted soil) taken for remediation, **p** is the duration (in months) of the remediation process and **q** stands for the number of plants taken in the remediation process.

2.5.5. Statistical analysis

The correlation coefficient values of metals uptake by each plant was analyzed by using Pearson correlation coefficient method and it was computed using SPSS software statistical package12 [54].

3. Results

3.1. Soil analysis

The results of physicochemical characteristics of waste dumps of mine and adjacent soils are given in Table 1. The mine waste is reported to have an alkaline pH (8.12) and impermissible limits of Cd (2070mg/kg⁻¹), Pb (443 mg/kg⁻¹) and possessed an even higher Mg²⁺ (5330mg/kg⁻¹) and Ca²⁺ (4907 mg/kg⁻¹) concentrations. The farm soil had a neutral pH (7.10) and an unacceptable amount of Cd (37.98 mg/kg⁻¹) and Pb (416 mg/kg⁻¹). The mine tailings (waste dump) showed the lowest quantity of K (49.42/kg hectare⁻¹), Mn (3173 mg/kg⁻¹) and in addition they also contained Cr (69.69mg/kg⁻¹), Zn (1141 mg/kg⁻¹) and Cu

 $(65.96 \text{mg/kg}^{-1})$. The total N content of mine and adjacent soils (86.48 and 185.32 kg hectare⁻¹) were lower than the permissible limits (Table 1) the P content of mine soil was beyond the permissible limit (32.12 kg hectare⁻¹). The farm soil had the sufficient concentration of K (126.02

kg hectare⁻¹), P (19.76 kg hectare⁻¹) and higher concentration of Mn (4614mg/kg⁻¹), Cr (102.4 mg/kg⁻¹), Zn (659mg/kg⁻¹) and Cu (95.42 mg/kg⁻¹) respectively. There was no significant variation in the values of Electric conductivity (EC 0.1 dsm⁻¹) and CaCl₂ was not detected in both the test soils.

Table 1.The physicochemical and metals (mg/kg⁻¹) characteristics of magnesite waste dump and farm soil

S.No	Physico-chemicals/Metals	Magnesite soil	Farm soil	Permissible limit (BIS)
1	рН	8.12±.5	7.10±.5	6-8.5
2	Temperature	30°C ±2	$30^{\circ}C\pm2$	-
3	$ECs(dsm^{-1})$	$0.1{\pm}0.0$	1 ± 0.0	0.1-1
4	CaCl ₂	Nil	Nil	-
5	Texture	SCL	RLL	-
6	N (kg/hectare ⁻¹)	*86.48±.78	*185.32±1.1	114-180
7	$P (kg/hectare^{-1})$	**32.12±.90	19.76±.4	4.6-9
8	K (kg/hectare ⁻¹)	*49.42±.52	126.02±.98	49-113
9	Ca mg/kg ⁻¹	4907±2.57	2089.23±1.98	52000
10	Mg	5330±3.26	4274.12±2.18	9000
11	Cd	2070 ±2.43	37.98±1.42	2-6
12	Cu	65.96±.12	95.42±2.41	100
13	Fe	2222±1.07	1802.3±1.07	129000
14	Zn	1141±1.79	659.31±1.2	300
15	Cr	69.96±.27	$102.48 \pm .96$	1000
16	Mn	3173±2.81	4614.69±3.4	1000
17	Pb	443±.96	416.79±3.6	200

Table 1. SCL: Sand-Clay-Loamy soil, **RLL**: Red, Loamy and Lateritic. *lower than the permissible limit.**higher than the permissible limits. The values are average of mean of triplicates. The permissible limit for serial number 1-8 adopted from Tamil Nadu soil testing laboratory and 9-17 (in ppm) data's were adopted from Ramamurthy and Kannan [53].

3.2. Growth parameters of plants

The germination rate (%) of most of the plants from mine soil was lower (*V. mungo* (80%), *E. coracana* (70%), *P. glaucum* (93%), *M. uniflorum* (90%), *S. bicolour* (65%), *S. indium* (95%), *R.communis* (75%) and *G. hirsutum* (70%), compared to plants grown in soils (Table 2). The germination rate of rest of plants (*V. radiata, V. ungiculata J. curcas*) on the mine soil was stable (Table 2). The total biomass of most of the plants from mine soil was lower than that of farm soil with the exception of *J. curcas* and *V. ungiculata*.

3.3. Chlorophyll (a and b) and Macronutrients

The results of chlorophyll (*a* and*b*) content in plants on mine and adjacent soils are presented in Figure 1. A similar amount of chlorophylls was observed in most of the plants from both test soils (2.8 to 10 mg g⁻¹), except for *V. radiata* (2.8 mg g⁻¹) and *S. indicum* (2.0 mg g⁻¹). Whereas, *M. uniflorum*had higher amount of chlorophyll *a* and *b* (10 mg g⁻¹) from mine soils compared to its counterpart in adjacent soil (4 mg g⁻¹). The mine grown plants i.e., *V. radiata, V. mungo* and *V. ungiculata*, (100 to 30, 50 to 40, 60 to 35 mg g⁻¹ contained a low amount of carbohydrates than that

of farm soils, while as *M. uniflorum* and *J. curcas* contained more amount of carbohydrates (150 to 180 mg g⁻¹ & 175 & 98 mg g⁻¹) compared to adjacent soil. *E. coracana C. cajan, O. sativa, S. bicolour, S. indium, R. communis, B. juncea* and *P. glaucum* (all grown in mine soil) had more or less similar amounts of carbohydrates compared to normally grown farm plants (Figure 2). *G. hirsutum* and *J. curcas* from the magnesite mine soil had higher amount of protein (362 and 396 mg g⁻¹) than other plants (Figure 3).

3.4. Phytoextraction efficiency of plants

The results of phyto-extractive efficiencies of these plants showed a higher concentration of Cd observed in the roots of *J. curcas* (92 mg kg⁻¹), *R. communis*, *M. uniflorum* (55 and 85 mg kg⁻¹), *E. coracana* (36 mg kg⁻¹), *C. cajan* (32 mg kg⁻¹), *P. glaucum* and *G. hirsutum* (each 28 mg kg⁻¹)than other plants. Shoots of *O. sativa*, *S. bicolour*, *S. hirsutum* and *V. ungiculata* contained more concentration of Cd (98 to 73mg kg⁻¹). *V. mungo* exhibited better uptake and transfer of Cr (153 mg kg⁻¹) from roots to shoot (111 mg kg⁻¹) and there was a significant absence of Cd uptake (Table 3). The Cd concentration in root and shoot of plants

from farm soil was less (2 to 23 mg kg⁻¹ in roots and 9 to 25 mg kg⁻¹ in shoots).

The shoots and roots of all plants from the normal adjacent soil showed an average accumulation of Cr in the range of 446 to 75 mg kg⁻¹ in roots and 177 to 35 mg kg⁻¹ in shoots. The higher quantities of Pb and Mn contents were observed in roots (in the range of 1041 to 113 mg kg⁻¹ of Pb and 2771 to 251 mg kg⁻¹ of Mn) and shoots (826 to 75 mg kg⁻¹ of Pb and 1238 to 297 mg kg⁻¹ of Mn) of almost all plants from mine soil. This can be due physicochemical properties (alkaline pH, to perfect electric conductivity EC (dsm⁻¹), nature of mine (0.1dsm⁻¹) and high metal stress of mine soil. The amount of Pb and Mn in root and shoot of plants from the farm soil were in the range of $376 \pm 27 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ of Pb in roots & $135 \pm 11 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ in shoots and $1899 \pm 97 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ of Mn in roots & $575 \pm 65 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ in shoots respectively. The correlation coefficient of the metal removal efficiency of individual plant was significant at the P < 0.05 level (2-tailed) and the correlation between each plant for each metal extraction was significant at P < 0.01 level (2-tailed) (Table 4).

3.5. Soil - plant interaction

3.5.1. Metal tolerance index, metal transfer and translocation factor

The values of metal tolerant indexes as well as concentration plants differed metal of considerably. All the plants are reported to contain certain metal tolerant index (viz. 104.0, 110.34, 152.38, 104, 108.51, 85.71, 51.16, 90.32, 90.90, 127.7, 116.0, 110.5 and 113.4) except in O. sativa. The values of translocation factor indicate that metals are accumulated by the plants and are equally retained in roots and shoots in most plants except in V. radiata, V. mungo and V. unguiculata (which had values in the range of 0.305 to 9.250 for Cd and 0.462 to 5.398 for Pb and 0.279 to 3.458 for Mn) (Figure 4). The results of metal transfer factor of plants showed that J. curcas, R. communis and O. sativa have higher values followed by M. uniflorum, V. unguiculata and G. hirsutum (Figure 5). The MATNAT remediation efficiency index values are useful in indentifying the high metal removing efficiency of plants and the results are given in Table 5.

	Magnesit	e dump		Farm soil	l		
Name of the plant		Dry mass (in g)			Dry mass (in g)		
	G.R %	Root	Shoot	G.R %	Root	Shoot	
V. radiata	75	$0.17 \pm .003$	$0.77 \pm .004$	75	$0.29 \pm .004$	$1.59 \pm .004$	
V. mungo	80	$0.22 \pm .007$	$1.65 \pm .004$	85	$0.20 \pm .004$	$1.27 \pm .004$	
V. ungiculata	100	$0.40 \pm .014$	$2.69 \pm .004$	100	$0.33 \pm .004$	$2.38 \pm .004$	
E. coracana	70	$0.04 \pm .001$	$0.05 \pm .004$	98	$0.07 \pm .004$	$0.26 \pm .004$	
C. cajan	90	0.34 ±.021	$2.11 \pm .004$	80	$0.41 \pm .004$	$3.01 \pm .004$	
P. glaucum	93	$0.11 \pm .004$	$0.33 \pm .004$	100	$0.15 \pm .004$	$0.49 \pm .004$	
M. uniflorum	90	$0.05 \pm .001$	$0.87 \pm .004$	95	$0.11 \pm .004$	$1.15 \pm .004$	
O. sativa	90	$0.05 \pm .001$	$0.15 \pm .004$	80	$0.18 \pm .004$	$0.96 \pm .004$	
S. bicolor	65	$0.11 \pm .002$	$0.40 \pm .004$	80	$0.18 \pm .004$	$0.72 \pm .004$	
S. indium	95	$0.02 \pm .001$	$0.21 \pm .004$	98	$0.07 \pm .004$	$0.52 \pm .004$	
R. communis	75	$0.06 \pm .001$	$0.24 \pm .004$	80	$0.15 \pm .004$	$0.53 \pm .004$	
B. juncea	96	$0.060 \pm .003$	$0.12 \pm .004$	95	$0.17 \pm .004$	$0.56 \pm .004$	
G. hirsutum	70	$0.51 \pm .009$	$1.35 \pm .004$	90	$0.45 \pm .004$	$1.52 \pm .004$	
J. curcas	100	0.32 ±.024	2.15 ±.004	100	$0.29 \pm .004$	$2.00 \pm .004$	

Table 2. Biomass of the plants from magnesite (waste dump) mine and farm soil

The values are given in the table is average mean of triplicates and standard deviation of \pm of replicates. G.R; Germination Rate

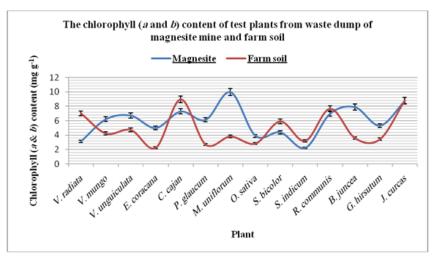
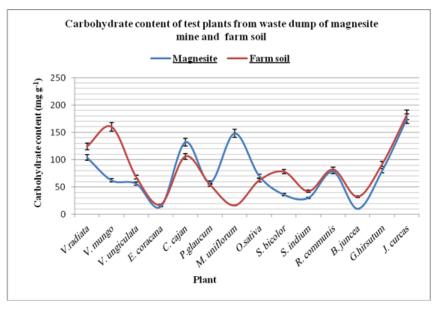


Figure 1. Chlorophyll (a and b) content of test plants grown in mine waste and adjacent soils





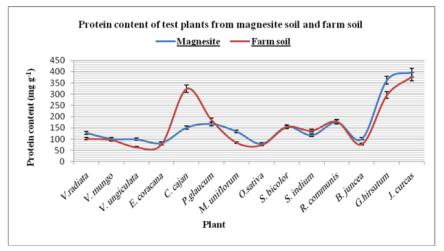


Figure 3. Protein content of test plants grown in mine waste and adjacent soils

	Magnesite	mine							Farm s	oil						
Name of the plants	Cd		Cr		Pb		Mn		Cd		Cr		Pb		Mn	
	Root	Shoot	Root	Shoot	Root	Shoot	Root	Shoot	Root	Shoot	Root	Shoot	Root	Shoot	Root	Shoot
V. radiata	5	0	179	141	241	261	705	383	2	0	56	43	27	75	275	112
	±.02	0	±1.7	±.99	±1.3	±.96	± 1.4	±1.0	$\pm.00$	Ű	±.31	±.65	±.13	±.56	±1.4	±.92
V. mungo	0	0	153	111	285	349	957	481	0	0	46	31	41	51	361	121
Ū	0	70	±1.1	±1.2	±1.1	±1.7	±1.8	±1.1		0	±.21	±.34	±.56	±.67	±.98	±.81
V. ungiculata	0	78	128	141	286	585	658	321	0	9	35	29	95	75	241	95
<u> </u>	26	±1.3	±1.6	±1.4 51	± 1.4	± 2.1	±1.7	±1.1	17	±.02 13	±.38 97	±.45	±.21 31	±.93 45	±1.2 347	±.32
E. coracana	36 ±.78	11 ±.34	268 ±1.4	51 ±.45	211 ±.99	161 ±.94	726 ±1.3	812 ±1.8	17 ±.12	13 ±.01	97 ±.89	12 ±.02	51 ±.65	45 ±.67	547 ±1.1	206 ±.96
	±.78 32	±.54 21	±1.4 92	±.43 61	±.99 352	±.94 206	± 1.5 851	±1.8 342	±.12 11	±.01 17	±.89 26	±.02 17	±.03 96	±.07 68	± 1.1 625	±.90 116
C. cajan	52 ±.65	±.12	92 ±.98	±.13	552 ±1.2	200 ±.89	±1.2	542 ±1.4	±.03	17 ±.60	20 ±.48	±.31	90 ±.23	±.53	623 ±1.2	
	±.03 28	±.12 13	±.98 167	±.15 134	±1.2 389	±.89 235	±1.2 563	±1.4 563	$\pm .03$ 0.01	±.00 12	±.48 54	±.51 56	±.23 72	±.33 69	±1.2 198	±.97 98
P. glaucum	20 ±.40	13 ±.20	±.68	134 ±.75	±2.1	±2.1	±1.3	505 ±1.1	±.00	12 ±.03	54 ±.96	50 ±.42	12 ±.65	09 ±.74	198 ±.98	98 ±.69
	±.40 85	<u>1.20</u> 29	±.08 261	<u>1.73</u>	313	412	$\frac{11.3}{711}$	±1.1 725	±.00 21	±.03 12	<u>⊥</u> .90 63	<u>⊥.</u> 42 92	±.05 95	<u>+</u> .74 117	156 <u>1</u> .98	175
M. uniflorum	±1.1	±.71	±.94	±.22	±1.8	±1.6	±1.4	±1.1	±.10	±.02	±.31	±.32	±.46	±.76	±1.1	±1.0
	.01	<u>-</u> .71 98	<u>+</u> .94 414	177	153	826	801	<u>+</u> 1.1 642	±.10 9	18	93	89	<u>+</u> .40 74	135	236	204
O. sativa	±.00	±.82	± 1.3	±1.1	±1.0	±2.4	±1.6	±1.4	±.02	±.17	±.25	±.59	±.36	±.97	±.89	±.99
	23	<u>+.02</u> 73	382	35	113	241	11.0 714	252	11	21	102	16	34	75	193	65
S. bicolor	±.54	±.12	±2.5	±.27	±.97	±1.5	±1.9	±.89	±.01	±.09	±.75	±.36	±.13	±.58	±.99	±.86
	8	74	215	151	132	805	358	1238	01	16	81	<u></u> 64	65	105	154	458
S. indium	±.30	±.32	±1.3	±.86	±1.0	±2.2	±1.3	±2.8	±.01	±.05	±.65	±.56	±.38	±.79	±.98	±1.0
	55	71	75	166	602	751	421	1223	13	25	13	25	107	111	149	575
R. communis	±.94	±.56	±.95	±1.4	±2.3	±1.7	±2.0	±3.1	±.12	±.21	±.31	±.45	±.89	±.79	±.64	±1.3
D '	16	3	181	91	162	75	251	652	11		51	47	86	11	97	132
B. juncea	±.65	±.0	±1.4	±.62	±1.1	±.56	±1.4	±1.7	±.03	0	±.26	±.29	±86	±.03	±.78	±.38
	28	36	342	82	207	325	426	297	8	21	103	33	68	112	135	83
G. hirsutum	±.46	±.02	±2.1	±.93	±1.5	±1.1	± 1.8	±.86	±.05	±.21	±.84	±.31	±.46	±1.1	±.95	±.56
T	92	41	446	129	1041	405	2771	774	23	11	96	46	376	96	1899	208
J. curcas	±1.2	±.62	± 1.8	±.39	± 2.8	±1.4	±3.6	±2.4	±.20	±.07	$\pm.98$	±.33	±.97	±.37	± 2.8	±1.5

Table 3. Metal extractions by plants from waste dump of magnetite mine and farm soil (mg kg-1).

The mentioned values are mean value of triplicate

Name of the plants	Name of the metals							
	Cd	Cr	Pb	Mn				
V. radiata	44	78	.06	.18				
V. mungo	85	.(a)	96(*)	.(a)				
V. unguiculata	.41	.88	15	33				
E. coracana	.49	.77	18	.92				
C. cajan	89	.00	.80	.98(*)				
P. glaucum	.09	.50	45	.95(*)				
M. uniflorum	.17	.31	.07	.04				
O. sativa	.08	37	03	05				
S. bicolor	81	.94	27	.98(*)				
S. indicum	.49	84	31	.78				
R. communis	88	07	.41	.71				
B. juncea	15	.48	.32	47				
G. hirsutum	.42	.67	12	.71				
J. curcas	15	.03	.61	89				

Table 4. Pearson's correlation coefficients (r) between the waste dumps of magnesite mine and plants

(*) - Correlation is significant at the 0.05 levels (2-tailed) and the correlation between the each plant for each metal is 0.01 levels significantly (2-tailed)

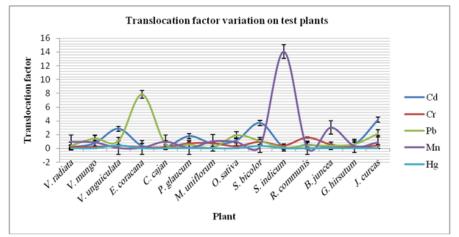


Figure 4. Translocation factor variation of test plants grown in mine waste and adjacent soils

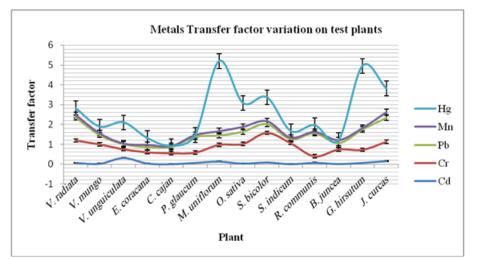


Figure 5. Metals Transfer factor variation of test plants grown in mine waste and adjacent soils

Name of the plants	Name of the metals							
	Cd	Cr	Pb	Mn				
V. radiata	4.203	0.017	0.014	0.024				
V. mungo	1.483	0.022	0.016	0.013				
V. unguiculata	0.011	0.032	0.012	0.012				
E. coracana	2.540	0.010	0.011	0.024				
C. cajan	7.027	0.011	0.013	0.013				
P. glaucum	4.324	0.022	0.012	0.024				
M. uniflorum	7.891	0.042	0.023	0.033				
O. sativa	2.324	0.021	0.022	0.028				
S. bicolor	5.567	0.012	0.011	0.015				
S. indicum	7.027	9.783	7.791	0.012				
R. communis	4.540	0.032	0.023	0.024				
B. juncea	1.081	0.011	0.022	0.025				
G. hirsutum	4.324	0.011	0.024	0.033				
J. curcas	9.243	0.023	0.044	0.040				

 Table 5. MATNAT remediation efficiency index (MREI)

The effective index values are considered as 0.010 onwards

4. Discussion

Phytoremediation is an eco-friendly cost effective technology, as compared to classical physical, chemical and even to the microorganisms-based bioremediation techniques. The results of heavy metal analysis of present investigation showed that the highest levels of Cd, Pb and Cr were found in the waste dump of bauxite mine, indicating that these wastes are the key elements for soil pollution. The presence or absence of soil microbe and macronutrients determine the viability of plants on soil type. The high Mg²⁺ concentration in mine soil is due to hydrolysis of MgCO₃, whereas the high MgO in the dusts are responsible for increasing soil pH [29] and they play an important role in nutrient cycling in plants [30]. The result of Yang et al. [31] partially correlates with the present findings and highlights the chemical composition of magnesite mine tailings. It showed the effects of mining on soil exposed to Mg dusts, i.e., increase in Mg²⁺ concentration, change in pH, the Mg²⁺/Ca²⁺ ratio and decrease in availability of N, P, and Ca. All these parameters would significantly affect the colonization and growth pattern of plant because of mine overburden and deposition of waste dump in adjacent sites [32]. The pH and heavy metals (Cd and Pb) of farm soil may also increase in future due to improper mining activity if not prevented at the latest. Yang et al. [31] reported that high pH can result in significant loss of N by volatilization since NH tends to convert to NH₃ gas, which later diffuses from alkaline soil to the atmosphere [30]. Robinson [7] stated that the physical characteristics of contaminated soil are also important for the selection of remediating plants.

The total biomass values of most of the plants from mine soil was lower than that of soil with the exception of *J. curcas* and *V. ungiculata*. The condition may be due to low P concentration in plants grown in mining soil, because P levels determine the production of higher biomass and metal sorption processes in plants [14]. Similar reports [17] also state that biomass is an important factor in considering the phytoremediation efficiency of plants. Robinson [7] explained that high biomass yielding plants are required for the effective phyto-extraction process.

The chlorophyll (a and b) content in plants are very important for high biomass production via photosynthesis [16]. V. radiata, V. mungo and V. *ungiculata* (100 to 30, 50 to 40, 60 to 35 mg g^{-1}) are reported to contain a low amount of carbohydrates compared to farm plants. Likewise, Azmat et al. [33] and Jones [25] reported that higher concentration of heavy metals in the soil (Cd) decreases the nutritive values of plants (bean). The plants E. coracana, C. cajan, O. sativa, S. bicolour, S. indium, R. communis, B. juncea and P. glaucum had a similar amount of carbohydrates in mine soil compared to farm plants. Similarly, G. hirsutum and J. curcas from the magnesite mine soil reported to contain high amount of proteins. The results are closely correlated with the reports of Rolli et al. [34], who estimated the biochemical parameters (total chlorophyll, and carbohydrate) protein of Spirodela polyrhiza on metal (Cd) treatment and also showed a significant increase of plant bio molecules at lower concentration of cadmium.

The high amount of Pb and Mn noticed in root and shoot of plants from the farm soil indicates the spreading of metal contamination to the adjacent soil. This finding is supported by the results in maize (in farm site) which can accumulate high levels of Cd [35-36]. Further, Carrillo et al. [37] extensively studied and highlighted metal accumulation in wild plants from regions surrounding mine wastes. The results of our study were moderate, compared with the results of Shanab et al.[22], on multi metal contaminated soil using plants. Lombi et al. [38] observed that the concentrations of Cd, Cu, Ni, Pb, and Zn were higher in the roots than shoots of S. bicolour, andthese plants were recommended for phyto-stablization processes. On the other hand, Mangkoedihardjo and Surahmaida [39] had recommended J. curcas for lead and cadmium contaminated soils. Yun-Guo et al.[40] performed an experiment in phytoremediation efficiency on magnesite mine tailings by using Gnaphalium afine, Pteris vittata, Rhus chinensis etc., and they conclude that these plants are also suitable for the remediation of mine tailings sites.

Obviously, the metal accumulations in plant tissues have been raised with increasing concentration of metal as well as the period for plant growth [41]. *Brassica juncea* has also been declared to be a promising plant for metal phytoremediation because of its moderate to high Zn and Cd accumulation and high shoot biomass [42].

Under chelate-induced conditions, Indian mustard [43] has been successfully used to remove Pb from solution culture and contaminated soil. Baker[44] studied in situ heavy metal remediation using plants. The result of present study was clearly indicates that maize and Indian mustard the was uptake Pb chelates in certain concentrations of mine soil except cow dung manure. Similar kinds of plants have already been used in phytoremediation processes i.e. Alpine pennycress, Ipomea alpine, Haumania strumrobertii, Astragalus racemosus and Sebertia. They have been reported to have a high uptake (bioaccumulation) potential for Cd, Zn, Cu, Co, Se and Ni [45]. Crops like Willow (Salix viminalis), maize (Zea mays), Indian mustard (Brassica juncea) and sunflower (Helianthus annuus) too have shown high uptake potential and tolerance to heavy metals [46-47]. On the other hand, Solange Romeiro et al. [48] have reported that R. communis is a hyper-accumulator species for Pb and also have great tolerance to lead at lower concentrations. The present study is strongly supported by Kumar et al. [28] who

report in metal tolerant index of *J. curcas* from the metal contaminated soils.

The translocation factor is very important for the selection of plants for removing heavy metals and determining the bioaccumulation of heavy metal [49]. The results of metal transfer factor of selected plants correlated with the results reported Mishra et al. [27], who reported higher bv translocation and transfer factors in the case of L. minor for Cu (0.74) and lower for Zn in S. polyrrhiza (0.30) from aquatic environments. Another study was done by Turan and Esring [50] who reported a higher heavy metal uptake by roots of Brassica napus L. than shoots. Maize also has better translocation factor for Pb [51] on metal contaminated soil. Nevertheless, Khan et al. [52] studied the importance of metal transfer factor in edible plants from metal contaminated soil and the result suggesting that translocation for LMW waste water irrigation)-PAHs (Long term (polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons) is faster than HMW(Heavy metal waste)-PAHs in lettuce plants.

5. Conclusions

The results of present investigation highlights the fact that heavy metal concentrations in the mine waste dump as well as farm soil exceeds the permissible limits of Cd and Pb. Out of fourteen plants studied, V. ungiculata, O. sativa, S. bicolour, S. indium, R. communis, M. uniflorum, G. hirsutum and J. curcas have better phytoextraction efficiency (Cd and Pb) based on tolerant index, transfer and translocation factors and MREI value in magnesite mine soil. These plants are heavy-metal tolerant and have average extraction ability metal with moderate bioaccumulation factor. Based on these attributes. it can be concluded that these plants are capable continuous phyto-extraction of / phytostablization / rhizo-remediation of metals from contaminated soils. The intensive cultivation of these plants in the polluted soils is valuable in reducing pollution, rehabilitate wastelands and create healthy environments.

Acknowledgments

This study is supported by the Department of Biotechnology, Periyar University, Salem, Tamil Nadu, India. The authors thank the department for providing necessary laboratory facilities. We also thank the Department of Geology and Magnesite Mines, Salem for letting us collect soil samples. The first author is the recipient of Periyar University Research Fellowship.

References

[1]. Amisu, K.O., Coker, A.O. and Isokpehi, R.D. (2003). Acrobacter butzlieri strains from poultry abattoir effluent in Nigeria. Journal of East African Media, 80: 218-221.

[2]. Bridges, O., Bridges, J.W. and Potter, J.F. (2000). A generic comparison of the airborne risks to human health from landfill and incinerator disposal of municipal solid waste. The Environment, 20: 325-334.

[3]. Lasat, M.M. (2002). Phytoextraction of toxic metals: a review of biological mechanisms. J. Environ. Qual, 31: 109-120.

[4]. McGrath, S.P. and Cunliffe, C.H. (1985). A simplified method for the extraction of the metals Fe, Zn, Cu, Ni, Cd, Pb, Ni, Cr, Co, and Mn from soils and sewage sludge. J. Sci. Food and Agri.36: 794-798.

[5]. Maxted, A.P., Black, C.R., West, H.M., Crout, N.M.J., McGrath, S.P. and Young, S.D. (2007). Phytoextraction of cadmium and zinc from arable soils amended with sewage sludge using Thlaspi caerulescens: Development of a predictive model. Environment Pollution, 150: 363 -372.

[6]. Vinita Hooda. (2007). Phytoremediation of toxic metals from soil and waste water. Journal of Environmental Biology, 28: 367-376.

[7]. Robinson, B.H. (1997). The phytoextraction of heavy metals from metalliferous soils. Massey University, New Zealand.

[8]. Suresh, B. and Ravishankar, G.A. (2004). Phytoremediation-a novel and promising approach for environmental clean-up. Crit. Review Biotechnology, 24: 97-124.

[9].Baker, A.J.M., Mc Grath, S.P., Sidoli, C.M.D. and Reeves, R.D. (1994). The possibility of insitu heavy metal decontamination of polluted soils using crops of metal accumulating plants. Resour. Cons. Recyc, 11: 41-49.

[10]. Zayed, A., Lytle, C.M., Qian, J.H. and Terry, N. (1998). Chromium accumulation, translocation and chemical speciation in vegetable plants. Plantation, 206: 293-299.

[11]. Horne, A.J. (2000). Phytoremediation by constructed wetlands. In: Phytoremediation of contaminated soil and water (Eds: N. Terry and G. Banuelos). Boca Raton, Lewis, 13-40.

[12]. Dushenkov, S. (2003). Trends in phytoremediation of radionuclides. Plant Soil, 249:167-175.

[13]. Winter Sydnor, M.E. and Redente, E.F. (2002). Reclamation of high elevation, acidic mine waste with organic amendments and topsoil. Journal of Environment Quality, 31: 1528-1537.

[14]. Chaney, RL., Brown, SL., Li, Y.M., Angle, J.S., Stuczynski, T.I., Daniels, WL., Henry, C.L., Siebelec, G., Malik, M., Ryan, J.A. and Compton, H. (2000). Progress in risk assessment for soil metals, and in-situ remediation and phytoextraction of metals from hazardous contaminated soils. U.S-EPA phytoremediation: State of Science, Boston, MA.

[15]. Raajasubramanian, D., Sundaramoorthy, P., Baskaran, L., Sankar Ganesh, K..Chidambaram, A.L.A. and Jeganathan, M. (2011).Effect of cement dust

pollution on germination and growth of groundnut (Arachis hypogaea L.). International Multidisciplinary Research Journal, 1: 25-30.

[16]. Jeffrey, S.W. and Mantoura, R.F.C. (1997). Development of pigment methods for oceanography:SCPR-supported working groups and objectives. In Phytoplankton pigments in oceanography:guidelines to modern methods, Ed SW Jeffrey, Mantoura, RFC and Wright SW, UNESCO, Paris France, 19-36.

[17]. Ciura, J., Poniedziałek, M., Sękara, A. and Jędrszczyk, E. (2005). The possibility of using plants as metal phytoremediants. Polish Journal of Environment Studies, 14: 17-22.

[18]. Black, B.C., Evans, D.D., White, J.I., Ensminger, L.E. and Clark, F.E. (1982). Methods of Soil Analysis, Amer. Soc. Agron.Inc. Madison, Wisconsin USA.

[19].Sydduth, K.A., Kitchen, N.R. and Drummond, S.T. (1998). Soil conductivity sensing on claypan soils: comparision of electromagnetic induction and direct methods. Proceedings of the 4th International conference on Precision Agriculture. Ed. PC Robert, 979-990.

[20]. Mathiyazhagan, N. and Natarajan, D. (2011). Bioremediation on effluents from Magnesite and Bauxite mines using Thiobacillus Spp and Pseudomonas Spp. Journal of Bioremediation and Biodegradation 2:115. doi:10.4172/2155-6199.1000115.

[21]. Thomas, G.W. (1982).Exchangeable cations.In Methods of Soil Analysis. 2nd ed., Part 2 ed., A. L. Page, R. H. Miller, and D. R. Keeney. eds. 159-165. Agronomy Monograph No. 9. Madison, WI: American Society of Agronomy.

[22]. Shanab,R.A., Ghanem, N., Ghanem, K. and Abdu Al Kolaibe, (2007). Phytoremediation potential of plant and wild plants for multi metal contaminated soils. Research Journal of Agricultural and Biological Science, 3: 370-376.

[23]. Etham, Z., EI- Motty, A.B.D., Shahin, M.F.M., Mabd-Migeed, M. and Sahab, A.F. (2009). Comparative studies of using compost combined with plant guard and flespar on the morphological, physiological and rhizophericmicroflora of olive seedlings. American- Eurasian Journal of Agriculture and Environment Science, 6:372-380.

[24]. Doong, R.L, MacDonald, G.E. and Shilling, D.G. (1993). Effect of fluridone on chlorophyll, carotenoid and anthocyanin content of Hydrilla. Journal of Aquatic Plant Management, 31: 55-59.

[25]. Jones, J.B., Wolf, B. and Mills, H.A. (1991). Plant Analysis Handbook.Micro-Macro Publishing House, Moscow, Russia.

[26].Cui, Y.J., Zhu, Y.G., Zhai, R.H., Chen, D.Y., Huang, Y.Z., Qiu, Y. and Ling, J.Z. (2004). Transfer of metals from soil to vegetables in an area near a smelter in Nanning, China. Environment International, 30: 785-791.

[27]. Mishra, V.K., Upadhyaya, A.R., Pandey, S.K. and Tripathi, B.D. (2008). Heavy metal pollution induced due to coal mining effluent on adjacent aquatic ecosystem and its management through naturally occurring aquatic maplanthytes. Bioresource Technology, 99: 930-936. [28]. Kumar, G.P., Yadav, S.K., Thawale, P.R., Singh, S.K. and Juwarkar, A.A. (2008). Growth of Jatropha curcas on heavy metal contaminated soil amended with industrial wastes and Azotobacter – A greenhouse study. Bioresource Technology, 99: 2078-2082.

[29]. Machin, J. and Navas, A. (2000). Soil pH changes induced by contamination by magnesium oxides dust. Land Degradation Development, 11: 37-50.

[30]. Mengel, K. and Kirkby, E.A. (1982). Principles of Plant Nutrition. International Potash Institute: Bern.

[31]. Yang, D.H., Zeng, J., Zhang, L.J., Li, and Mao, R. (2011). Chemical and microbial properties in contaminated soils around a magnesite mine in northeast china. Land Degradation and Development, doi: 10.1002/ldr.1077

[32] Li, M.S., Luo, Y.P. and Su, Z.Y. (2007). Heavy metal concentrations in soils and plant accumulation in a restored manganese mine land in Guangxi, South China. Environment Pollution, 147, 168-175.

[33]. Azmat, R., Akhter, Y., Talat, R. and Uddin, F. (2005). The inhibition of bean plant metabolism by Cd metal and atrazine: the effect of atrazine with Cd Metal on growth, photosynthesis, nutritional level and rhizophere of soil. Biotechnology, 4: 238-242.

[34]. Rolli, N.M., Suvarnakhandi, S.S., Mulgund, G.S., Ratageri3, R.H. and Taranath T.C. (2010). Biochemical responses and accumulation of cadmium in Spirodela polyrhiza. Journal of Environmental Biology, 31:529-532.

[35]. Hinesly, T.D., Alexander, D.E, Ziegler, E.L and Barrett, G.L. (1978). Zinc and Cd accumulation by corn inbreds grown on sludge amended soil. Agronomy Journal, 70: 425-428.

[36]. Nascimento, C.W. and Xing, A. (2006). Phytoextraction: A review on enhanced metal availability and plant accumulation. Science Agriculture (Piracicaba, Braz.), 63: 299-311.

[37]. Carrillo, R., Gonzalez, Gonza, M.C.A. and lez-Cha vez. (2006). Metal accumulation in wild plants surrounding mining wastes.Journal of Environmental Pollution, doi:10.1016/j.envpol.2006.01.006.

[38]. Lombi, E., Zhao, F.J., Dunham, S.J. and McGrath, S.P. (2001). Phytoremediation of heavy metal contaminated soils: Natural hyper accumulation versus chemically enhanced phyto-extraction. Journal of Environment Quality, 30: 1919-1926.

[39]. Mangkoedihardjo, S. and Surahmaida. (2008). Jatropha curcas for phytoremediation of lead and cadmium polluted soil. Journal of World Applied Science, 4: 519-522.

[40]. Yun-Guo, LIU., Zhang Hui-Zhi., ZengGuang-Ming., Huang, Bao-Rong. and Xin, LI. (2006). Heavy Metal Accumulation in Plants on Mn Mine Tailings. Pedosphere, 16: 131-136.

[41]. Roy BK, Rajendra Prasad. and Gunjan. (2010). Heavy metal accumulation and changes in metabolic parameters in Cajanas cajan grown in mine spoil. Journal of Environmental Biology, 31: 567-573. [42]. Ebbs, S.D., Lasat, M.M., Brady, D.J., Cornish, J., Gordon, R. and Kochian, L.V. (1997). Phytoextraction of cadmium and zinc from a contaminated soil. Journal of Environment Quality, 26: 1424-1430.

[43]. Blaylock, M.J., Salt, D.E., Dushenkov, S., Zakharova, O. and Gussman, C. (1997). Enhanced accumulation of Pb in Indian mustard by soil-applied chelating agents. Environment Science and Technology, 31: 860-865.

[44].Baker, A.J.M. (1987). Metal tolerance on plants.New.Phyt., 16: 93-111.

[45]. Lasat, M.M. (2000). Phytoextraction of metals from contaminated soil: A review of plant/soil/metal interaction and assessment of pertinent agronomic issues. Journal of Hazardous Substance Research ,2, 1-25.

[46]. Wuana, R.A. and Okieimen, F.E. (2010). Phytoremediation Potential of Maize (Zea mays L).A Review. African Journal of Agriculture Research, 6: 275-287.

[47]. Quartacci, M.F., Argilla, A., Baker, A.J.M. and Navari-Izzo, F. (2006). Phytoextraction of metals from a multiply contaminated soil by Indian mustard. Chemosphere, 63: 918-925.

[48]. Solange Romeiro., Ana M.M.A., Lagoa., Pedro, R., Furlani., Cleide, A., Abreu, de., Monica F., Abreu, de. and Norma Erismann, M. (2006). Lead uptake and tolerance of Ricinus communis L. Brazian Journal of Plant Physiology, 18: 483-489.

[49]. Jana, S. (1988). Accumulation of Hg and Cr by three aquatic species and subsequent changes in several physiological and biochemical parameters. Journal of Water Air and Soil Pollution, 38: 105-109.

[50]. Turan, M. and Esringu, A. (2007). Phytoremediation based on canola (Brassica napus L.) and Indian mustard (Brassica juncea L.) planted on spiked soil by aliquot amount of Cd, Cu, Pb, and Zn. Plant Soil Environment, 53: 7-15.

[51]. Huang, J.W. and Cunningham, S.D. (1996). Lead phytoextraction: species variation in lead uptake and translocation. New Phytology, 134: 75-84.

[52]. Khan, S., Lin, A., Zhang, S., Huc, Q. and Zhu, Y. (2008). Accumulation of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons and heavy metals in lettuce grown in the soils contaminated with long-term waste water irrigation. Journal of Hazardous Material, 152: 506-515.

[53]. Ramamurthy, N. and Kannan, S. (2009). SEM-EDS analysis of soil and plant (Calotropis gigantean Linn.) collected from industrial Village, Cuddalore Dt, Tamil nadu, India. Romanian Journal of Biophysics, 19: 219–226.

[54]. Mathiyazhagan, N. and Natarajan, D. (2013). Phytoremediation efficiency of edible and economical crops on waste dumps of bauxite mines, Salem district, Tamilnadu, India. In: Ramkumar Ma. (Ed.). On a Sustainable Future of the Earth's Natural Resources.Springer earth system sciences, pp. 493-508.