Nigerian Journal of Ecology (2022) 18(2): 49-61 ©Ecological Society of Nigeria 2022. ISSN: 1116-753X (Print); E-ISSN: 2955-084X (Online)

Assessment of Heavy Metal Composition of Plants Growing in Recycled Metal Slag Polluted Soils in Ogijo, Ogun State

Sanyaolu^{*1}. V.T., Olawoyin², A. A., Fadayini³, O., Oshin⁴, T. T., Oladumiye⁵, O. R. and AbdulRaheem⁶, W.

^{1,2,5&6}Department of Biological Sciences
³Department of Chemical Engineering
⁴Department of Chemistry
Lagos state University of Science and Technology, Ikorodu
*Corresponding author's Email: vaksanyaolu@yahoo.com

(Accepted 17 December, 2022)

ABSTRACT

Soils of slag deposited waste dumpsites contain significant amounts of heavy metals, which difficult to remove from the environment. In recent years, metal pollution of the environment has increased especially in long term metal recycling facilities. This study assessed concentrations of heavy metals in soil and plants in a slag dumpsite in Ogijo, Ogun state and their comparative hyper-accumulator capacity. A 10 m by 50 m area was measured from base of a large slag heap in the study area. Slag samples were randomly collected from slag heap, soil samples were collected at the base of the heap (0 m) and at 50 m from the base. Mature whole samples of Chromolaena odorata, Alternanthera sessilis and Megathyrsus maximus were collected at 0 m, 10 m and 50 m from the base of heap. All samples were collected in three replicates and analysed for Cu, Fe, Zn, Mn, Pb, Ni, Cd and Cr. Data obtained were analysed with ANOVA, mean separation was done using Duncan's Multiple range test at $P \le .05$. Results obtained (in mg/kg) showed significant differences ($P \le .05$) in all metals tested except in Ni, Cd and Cr that were below detectable limits. Lowest mean parameters (mg/kg), except Zn were observed in plant samples. Mean Cu, Fe and Pb were significantly highest ($P \le .05$) in slag with values 81.93 ± 14.19 , 421.61 ± 71.94 and 48.73 ± 2.52 respectively. Mn in soil at 0 m with mean value 4.30 ± 0.26 and Zn in C. odorata with a mean of 52.88±5.41. In soil, highest mean concentrations were obtained, except Cu which occurred at 0 m, but not significantly different from those at 50 m. Among plants tested, lowest mean values of Cu (1.31±0.70), Fe (104.59±6.88) and Pb (0.61±0.26) occurred in A. Sessilis, Zn (7.50±0.98) in M. maximus and Mn (1.02 \pm 0.46) in C odorata. Highest mean Cu, Fe, Mn and Pb were recorded in M. maximus, with values 30.01±12.01, 255.60±21, 4.28±0.66, and 4.96±1.40 respectively, while Zn (52.88±5.41) occurred in C. odorata. Among the three plants, Megathyrsus maximus had the highest hyperaccumulator potential, and therefore is the most suitable plant for phytoremediation of heavy metal from polluted soils.

Keywords: Phytoremediation, Hyperaccumulator, Soil pollution, Invasive weeds, Scrap metal,

INTRODUCTION

Pollution of the natural environment by heavy metals have become a serious problem, because, these metals are nonbiodegradable (Gautam *et al.*, 2016; Ashraf *et al.*, 2019). In addition, most of them have toxic effects on living organisms, when they exceed a certain concentration (Ghrefat and Yusuf, 2006). Although certain metallic elements are required by plants and animals in very small quantities for some

physiological processes (WHO, 1996; Hall, 2012), high levels of these elements can become harmful to living organisms ((Uzondu, 2012; Turkdogan et al., 2013). Metals display some cytotoxicity and genotoxicity in both plant animal and (Ciriaková, 2019; Saravanan et al., 2021). Nickel and lead have been reported to produce chromosomal aberrations in Allium sativum (garlic) (Sarac et al., 2019), while Lead and cadmium are cytotoxic to human bone (Al-Ghafari et al., 2019). Pollution by heavy metals may occur through natural or anthropogenic sources. However, pollution by anthropogenic sources is the most widespread (Nazir et al., 2015). The contribution of metals from industrial, agricultural and mining processes, domestic effluent discharges, solid waste disposal and automobile and other atmospheric emissions from industrial establishments are some of sources of environmental the major pollution (Kapungwe, 2013; Rafique and Tariq, 2016; Onder et al., 2017, Tejaswini et al., 2022).

Metal recycling activities are a particularly heavy important source of metal contamination, causing negative impacts on the surrounding environment (Uzondu, 2012). The production of iron and steel from scrap iron and steel metal recycling industries yields large amounts of slag as by-products (Gunn, 2015). This slag generally contains a considerable amount of heavy metals, which, through indiscriminate disposal, makes it one of the main sources of heavy metal pollution in the environment (Beauman, 2017). Iron and steel slag are widespread in Nigeria because the industries producing these by-products are found in the north, south, west and eastern parts of the country (Elijah, 2013). Slag production in Nigeria from this source is estimated at 0.29 tonness per tonne of steel produced. Therefore, the total estimated production of iron and steel slag in Nigeria is 0.55405

million tonnes per year (Uzondu, 2012). Consequently, recycle iron waste and slag are pollutants, which litters some cities and towns in Nigeria (Uzondu, 2012).

Slag is usually a mixture of metal oxides and silicon dioxide and can contain metal sulfides and elemental metals. According to Luxan et al. (2010), the major components of these slags include the oxides of calcium, magnesium, silicon and iron, with lesser amounts of magnesium, phosphorus, and others depending on the specifics of the raw materials used. Leaching concerns are typically towards non-ferrous or base metal slags, which tend to have higher concentrations of potentially toxic elements (PTEs), but ferrous and ferroalloy slags may also have them. In recent times, slags are usually transported along with slag tailings to slag dumps. Here, they are exposed to weathering, which generates concerns about leaching of PTEs and hyper-alkaline runoffs into the soil and water, thereby, endangering the local ecological communities (Potysz et al., 2018; Ettler and Kierczak, 2021). Soils in and around slag deposited waste dumpsites have been reported to contain a significant amount of heavy metals (Ukpebor and Unuigbe, 2013).

Characteristics of heavy metals make them persistent and sometimes difficult to remove from the environment. Currently, several alternative technologies are used to treat environmental heavy metal contamination and these comprise chemical, physical and biological treatments. Most physical and chemical methods are expensive and do not make the soil suitable for plant growth (Marques et al, 2009; Li et al., 2019; Dhaliwa et al., 2019). Biological approach or bioremediation on the other hand is an economical and environmentally friendly approach (Dhaliwa et al., 2019), because it is achieved through natural processes and encourages the establishment or reestablishment of plants on polluted soils.

Phytoremediation is aspect of an bioremediation that uses plants for the treatment of polluted soils (Luxan et al., 2010; Gonzalez and Gonzalez-Chavez, 2016). It involves the use of natural hyperaccumulators, which are plants with verv high metal-accumulating ability. Hyperaccumulators accumulate 10 to 500 times more metals than ordinary plant (Chaney et al., 1997); hence, they are very suitable for phytoremediation. An important characteristic which makes hyperaccumulation possible is the tolerance of these plants to increasing concentrations of these metals.

Plant communities in soils contaminated with heavy metals respond differently to the presence of heavy metals in the soil. Heavy metals generally produce common toxic effects on plants, such as low biomass accumulation, chlorosis, inhibition of growth and photosynthesis, altered water balance and nutrient assimilation, and senescence, which ultimately cause plant death (Friedlova, 2010; Turkdogan et al., 2013). Most plants are sensitive to the contaminant verv low even at concentrations, while some have developed either by excluding resistance. or accumulating the contaminant (Chaudhry et al., 2008). Works have shown that some common plants have ability of accumulating high level of heavy metals from the soil (El-Sharabasy and Ibrahim, 2010; Zheng et al., 2017). Therefore, whenever a plant species is identified to have capacities to remediate elevated concentrations of heavy metals in the environment, emphases are usually on how to maximize its remediation abilities (Omoregie *et al.*, 2019). On this basis, it was therefore important in this research to assess concentration of heavy metals in plants and determine their hyper-accumulator potentials. This study was conducted in a slag dump in Ogijo, Ogun state, to assess heavy metals concentration in slag and soil and compare their accumulation in selected plants growing in the dumpsite.

METHODOLOGY

Description of study location

This study was conducted in slag dumpsite in Ogijo, Ogun state. Ogijo is a town in Ogun state that shares its boundary with Lagos state. It is an industrial area, among whom most recent industries have been the scrap metal recycling factories. Evidence of pollution by these factories is obvious in their immediate surroundings and extends far beyond their vicinities into neighbouring areas. Among these are untreated waste slags generated as by-products of scrap metal recycling process, often deposited indiscriminately in heaps on the soil surface (Plate 1). One of such slag dumpsites was used in this study. The site is located on latitude 60 43'47"N; longitude 30 31'35"E and 68.9 feet (21 m) above sea level.



Plate 1. The study location showing slag heap (A) and surrounding vegetation (B) (arowed)

Collection of samples

A preliminary survey of site was conducted prior to sample collection. An area of 10 m by 50 m was measured from the base of a large slag heap in the study area. Samples of slag were randomly collected from slag heap; soil samples were collected from the base of the heap (0 m) and at 50 m from the heap. Three plant species; Chromolaena odorata (L.) R.M.King & Robinson, Alternanthera sessilis (L.) R.Br. ex DC and Megathyrsus maximus (Jacq.) B. K. Simon & S. W. L. Jacobs; were selected on the basis of their availability and abundance in the study location. Mature whole plant samples were collected at approximately at 0 m, 10 m and 50 m from the base of heap. All samples were collected in three replicates and 50 g of each was analysed for; Cu, Fe, Zn, Mn, Pb, Ni, Cd and Cr.

Sample preparation and analysis

All samples were analyzed for heavy metals analytical methods adopted by Association of Official Analytical Chemists (AOAC) 2005. Slag samples were crushed to fine particles. Both soil and crushed slag samples were air dried and sieved with a 2 mm sieve. Plant samples were washed in clean water to remove external impurities. Dry ashing digestion was performed, following the procedure recommended by (Issac and Kerber, (1971).

Heavy Metal Determination

The metals were determined on filtrate of sample digested by atomic absorption spectrometry. Test results were validated with calibration curves obtained with certified metal standards. Calibration standard were prepared from stock by applying dilution formula $C_1V_1 = C_2V_2$ to obtain working range.

Dilution factor (DF) was expressed as: C1/C2 = V1/V2.

Where, C1 = concentration of stocksolution, C2 = concentration of dilutedsolution, V1 = initial volume removed fromthe stock solution and V2 = volume of finaldiluted solution. Thus,

Dilution Factor = final solution volume/ volume of stock solution1

Quantitation of metal levels in the soil samples was determined with Perkin Elmer Win Lab AA software. Levels were converted from mg/1 to mg/kg by the following formula:

Conc. of metals in mg/kg = Conc. in mg/ L X Dilution Factor X volume of digest/ weight of sample digested 2

Statistical analysis of data

Data obtained were subjected to Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) using the statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS) 25.0 software. Mean separation was carried out by Duncan's Multiple range test (DMRT) at $P \le .05$. In every parameter analysed, results obtained were mean values from three replicates.

RESULTS

Results obtained from concentration of heavy metals (in mg/kg) in slag, soil and plants are presented in Table 1. Results showed that Ni, Cd and Cr that were below detectable limits in all samples tested. However, there were significant differences $(P \le .05)$ in all other metals tested which were; Cu, Fe, Pb, Mn and Zn.

Results showed that mean Cu, Fe and Pb were significantly higher ($P \le .05$) in slag compared to all other samples, with values 81.93 ± 14.19 , 421.61 ± 71.94 and 48.73 ± 2.52 respectively, while highest Zn and Mn occurred in *C. odorata* and soil at 0 m, with mean values 52.88 ± 5.41 and 4.30 ± 0.26 respectively, although, concentration of Mn at this point was not significantly different from those in other samples except in *C. odorata* at 10 m.

In soil, highest mean for all metals, except Cu, occurred in 0 m, though not significantly different $(P \ge .05)$ from those at 50 m. Mean values in soil at 0 m and 50 m respectively were: Cu: 6.96±0.35 and 7.10±0.34; Fe: 220.39±3.19 and 218.09 ± 2.65 , Zn: 32.37±1.56 and 30.98±1.17; Mn 4.30±0.26. and 3.48±0.32; Pb: 3.68±0.34 and 3.61±0.21.

In plants, lowest mean values for Cu (1.31 ± 0.70) , Fe (104.59 ± 6.88) and Pb (0.61 ± 0.26) occurred in *A. Sessilis*, Zn (7.50 ± 0.98) in *M. maximus* and Mn (1.02 ± 0.46) in *C odorata*. Highest mean values for Cu, Fe, Mn and Pb in plants were recorded in *M maximus*, with mean values 30.01 ± 12.01 , 255.60 ± 21 , 4.28 ± 0.66 , and 4.96 ± 1.40 respectively, while Zn occurred in *C. odorata* with a mean value of 52.88 ± 5.41 .

Lowest mean Cu (1.31 ± 0.70) occurred in *Alternanthera sessilis* at 10 m, but was only significantly lower ($P \le .05$) mean concentration in slag samples and M. maximus at 10 m.

Mean Cu was significantly highest ($P \le .05$) in slag (81.93±14.19) compared to other samples. This was followed by mean concentration in *M. maximus* at 10 m from the heap, with mean value of 30.01 ± 12.01 , which was also significantly higher ($P \le .05$) than all samples except in *M. maximus* at 50 m with a mean value of 15.72 ± 9.27 (Table 1).

Mean concentration Fe followed nearly a similar pattern to that of Cu. Mean Fe (104.59±6.88) was also lowest in *A. sessilis*, but at 0 m (Table 1). The value was not significantly higher ($P \ge .05$) than all other samples except in slag (421.61±71.94) and *M. maximus* at 0 m (255.60±21.36). Mean concentration in slag was significantly higher ($P \le .05$) than that found in all samples, and similarly was followed by that present in *M. Maximus* at 0 m. However, mean concentration in *M maximus* was not significantly higher ($P \le .05$) than that found in all solution of the maximum of

Concentration of Pb in samples followed the exact pattern as those observed in Fe. Lowest and significantly highest ($P \le .05$) mean Pb occurred in *A. sessilis* at 10 m with a mean value of 0.61 ± 0.26 and in slag with mean value of 48.73 ± 2.52 respectively (Table 1). Highest concentration was followed by that found in *A maximus* at 0 m, which had a mean value of 4.96 ± 1.40 , which was not significantly different ($P \ge .05$) from mean concentration of Pb in all samples except the lowest and highest mean values recorded in *A. sessilis* and slag as mentioned earlier (Table 1).

In Mn, lowest mean value of 1.02 ± 0.46 occurred in *C. odorata* at 10 m. Results further showed that lowest mean value was not significantly ($P \ge .05$) lower than all samples except in soil at 0 m (4.30 ± 0.26) and 50 m (3.48 ± 0.32), *A maximus* at 0 m (4.28 ± 0.66) and *A. sessilis* at 10 m

 (3.35 ± 0.78) . Highest mean Mn occurred in soil at 0 m with a value of 4.30 ± 0.26 (Table 1).

Results obtained for concentration of Zn in samples are also shown in Table 1. Lowest mean Zn occurred in tissues of *M. maximus* at 10 m (7.50 \pm 0.98) This was however not significantly different ($P \ge .05$) from its concentration in slag (11.30 \pm 1.92), *M*. *maximus* at 50 m (23.50±7.29), *A. sessilis* at 50 m (23.37±3.12) and *C odorata* at 0 m (8.15±0.98) and 10 m (8.01±0.83) (Table 1). Highest mean Zn was found in *C. odorata* at 50 m with concentration of 52.88±5.4 which was significantly higher ($P \le .05$) than those in all other samples tested. This was followed by that in *A. sessilis* with a mean value of 36.48±8.43 (Table 1).

Sample type	D	Heavy metals							
		Cu	Fe	Pb	Mn	Zn	Ni	Cđ	Cr
Slag	NA	81.93±14.19*	421.61±71.94 ^d	48.73±2.52°	3.09±0.37 ^{ab}	11.30±1.924b	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00
Soil	0 m	6.96±0.35*	220.39±3.19bc	3.68±0.34 ^{ab}	4.30±0.26 ^b	32.37±1.56°	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00
	50 m	7.10±0.34*	218.09±2.65 ^{be}	3.61±0.21 ^{ab}	3.48±0.32 ^b	30.98±1.17 ^{bc}	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00±0.00	0.00 ± 0.00
M. maximus	0 m	4.87±1.72*	255.60±21.36°	4.96±1.40 ^b	4.28±0.66 ^b	34.57±15.99*	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00
	10 m	30.01±12.01 ^b	147.73±44.40 ^{ab}	1.80±0.80 ^{ab}	3.15±1.22*	7.50±0.98ª	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00
	50 m	15.72±9.27 ^{ab}	144.99±53.14 ^{ab}	0.67±0.31#	3.00±1.24 ^{ab}	23.50±7.29 ^{abc}	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00
A. sessilis	0 m	3.32±0.86ª	140.95±21.15 ^{ab}	3.89±2.61 ^{ab}	2.34±0.33ab	32.00±6.91°	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00
	10 m	3.95±1.47ª	104.59±6.88*	0.61±0.26ª	3.35±0.78 ^h	36.48±8.43°	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00
	50 m	1.31±0.70ª	140.42±7.14 ^{ab}	1.34±0.56 ^{ab}	2.36±0.62 ^{ab}	23.37±3.12 ^{abc}	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00
C. odorata	0 m	8.65±2.33*	243.07±32.69 ^{be}	3,17±1.07ab	1.99±0.69 ^{ab}	8.15±0.98ª	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00
	10 m	5.19±1.52*	240.04±10.46bc	1.51±0.81ab	1.02±0.46ª	8.01±0.83ª	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00
	50 m	6.70±1.30ª	234.56±21.88 ^{be}	2.16±0.22 ^{ab}	2.26±0.35 ^{ab}	52.88±5.41 ^d	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00	0.00±0.00
WHO limits for soil		36.0		85.0	12.0	50.0	35.0	0.8	100.0
FMinEnv limits for soil		200.0	50,000.0	200.0	2000	150.0		1.0	100.0

Mean values of the same parameter along the same column having the same superscripts are not significantly different (DMRT $P \ge .05$)

NA = Not applicable; D = distance from base of slag heap

DISCUSSION

Metal recycling continues to grow globally due to increasing awareness of resource conservation and economic benefits (Anderson *et al.*, 2017). However, the process usually results in generation of heavy metal contaminated liquid and solid slag wastes. Through indiscriminate disposal of these wastes, metal recycling facilities discharge variety of heavy metals into the environment. Common examples of heavy metals that have been reported include lead, aluminium, arsenic, chromium, manganese cadmium, nickel, copper, and zinc are also released by the facilities (Beauman, 2017; O'Connor *et al.*, 2019). This agrees with the results from the present study where high levels of heavy metals including iron, lead, copper, manganese, nickel and zinc were observed in samples of slag waste deposited by metal recycling factories in the study area.

Several reports have shown that presence of heavy metal contaminated slag in the environment can lead to heavy metal contamination of immediate soil of the areas

(Ettler, and Vítkova, 2021; Ettler, and Kierczak, 2021). Comparing concentration of heavy metal in slag and soil samples at different distances from slag waste deposits, showed that higher concentration of most heavy metals were recorded in slag, followed by soil and plants nearest to slag heap, with much less concentrations in soils located at a reasonably far distant from the slag heap which follows a pattern previously described by Ogundele et al. (2015). It can therefore be inferred that slag waste is the source of heavy metal pollution of soil in the study site. This agrees with earlier report that slags transported along with slag tailings to slag dumps, where they are exposed to weathering, may result in leaching of potentially toxic elements (PTEs) such as heavy metals and hyperalkaline runoffs into the soil and water, endangering the local ecological communities (Potysz et al., 2018; Ettler and Kierczak, 2021). Thus, heavy metal contamination of soil may pose risks and hazards to humans and the ecosystem (McLaughlin et al., 2011). Contamination of biota and groundwater with potentially toxic metals heavy also has important implications for human health (Slaveykova and Cheloni, 2018).

Reports have shown that plants growing in heavy metal-contaminated sites generally accumulate higher amounts of heavy metals in their edible and non-edible parts, at quantities high enough to cause clinical problems to both plants, animals and human beings (Uzondu, 2012; Ogundiran and Osibanjo, 2018). This agrees with results obtained in this study, where high concentration of heavy metals was present in all plants samples growing in metal contaminated soil of the study area, especially those plants growing nearer to the source of contamination. Through this mechanism, heavy metals in soil can accumulate in vegetables, which can be

transferred to other media through the food chain (Wang et al., 2017). Although heavy metal accumulation in edible plants can pose threat to health of plant and animals, the has been exploited mechanism in environmental remediation for removal of pollutants from different environmental media through process of а phytoremediation.

Plants have an advantage growing on metal contaminated soil. Such plants can withstand high accumulation of metals in their aerial tissues (Vesk and Reichman, 2019) and can also eliminate competitive plants (Maestri et al., 2010). These are attributes common to invasive alien plants and agree with those of the three plants selected for this study. These three were the most widespread dominant plants species in the study site. Invasive species are non-native species that have become established in a new region, devoid of natural enemies (Reichard and White, 2001; Fountain, 2016). Such plants are characteristically adaptable, aggressive and have a high reproductive capacity, having escaped natural enemies and herbivores and have dominated native plants through several mechanisms resulting in outbreak of their populations (Florida Exotic Pest Plant Council, 2007). Invasion by all three plants; C. odorata, A. sessilis and M. maximus; have been reported (Fan et al., 2013; PIER, 2013; Uyi et al. 2013; C. odorata and A. sessilis are also listed in Global Invasive Species Database (GISD, 2023) as serious invasive weeds in many parts of the world, while *M. maximus* is reported as a highly successful invader in tropical and warm temperate areas (Rojas-Sandoval and Acevedo-Rodríguez, 2013).

In this study, High levels mean concentration of heavy metals including Cu, Fe, Mn and Pb in plants were recorded in *M maximus*, showing higher accumulation of metals compared to *C. odorata* and *A*.

sessilis. However, a study has shown that obvious signs of phyto-toxicity appeared in *M maximus* plants exposed to 120 ppm Pb^{2+} and Cd^{2+} , suggesting that the plant may be a moderate metal accumulator (Olatunji et al., 2014). Chromolaena odorata showed less metal accumulation capacity except for Zn in the present study. A study on the remediating capacity of different plants showed that C. odorata still thrived under heavy metal induced stress, that resulted in disruption of physiological functions and caused morphological deficiencies in other plants (Ciriakova, 2019). Alternanthera sessilis leaves are rich in protein and are eaten raw as a fresh green leafy vegetable in many countries of South Asia (Alveera et al., 2009). It has been reported that A. sessilis has a potential to hyperaccumulate Cd in the leaves (Alveera et al., 2009). In the present study, Cd was not detected in the soil to verify this claim. However, accumulation of heavy metals in A. sessilis was lowest among the three plants, indicating significant reduction in the potential risk of the plant to humans on consumption. Higher accumulation of Zn in C. odorata at 50 m from slag heap was observes in the present study. Zinc is one of the most mobile heavy metals in surface waters and groundwater. In addition, zinc readily precipitates under reducing conditions and in highly polluted systems, present at very when it is high concentrations, and may co-precipitate with hydrous oxides of iron or Magnesium (Evanko and Dzomback, 1997). Therefore, the highly mobile nature of the metal may have accounted for rapid leaching and movement from the source, causing higher concentration at a point remotely located from the source of pollution.

CONCLUSION

Although all three plants accumulated heavy metals in their tissues, *Megathyrsus maximus* had the highest heavy metal

accumulation potential in all heavy metals assessed except Zn, with Chromolaena having highest accumulation odorata capacity for Zn while Alternanthera sessilis showed the least potential for heavy metals accumulation. Therefore, among the three plants, Megathyrsus maximus is the most suitable plant species for the phytoremediation of heavy metals from polluted soils with regard to heavy metals tested in the present study.

REFERENCES

- Al-Ghafari A, Elmorsy E, Fikry E, Alrowaili M, Carter WG. (2019). The heavy metals lead and cadmium are cytotoxic to human bone osteoblasts via induction of redox stress. *PLoS One*. Nov 22;14(11):e0225341.
- Anderson, H., Cohen, A., Brauer, M., Burnett, R., Frostad, J., Estep, K., and Forouzanfar, M. (2017).
 "Estimates and 25-year trends of the global burden of disease attributable to ambient air pollution: an analysis of data from the Global Burden of Diseases Study 2015". *The Lancet*, 389(82): 1907–1918.
- AOAC (Association of Official Analytical Chemists) 2005 Official Methods of Analysis of AOAC International (18th ed.). Rockville, MD: AOAC International.
- Alveera, S. Thangaraj, K. asamy, and Bharti,
 O. (2009). In vitro propagation of *Alternanthera sessilis* (sessile joyweed), a famine food plant. *African Journal of Biotechnology*, 8(21): 5691–5695.
- Ashraf, S., Ali, Q., Zahir, Z. A., Ashraf, S., and Asghar, H. N. (2019). Phytoremediation: environmentally sustainable way for the reclamation of heavy metal polluted soils. Ecotox. Environ. Safe. **174**: 714– 727.

- Beauman, C. (2017). Steel: Climate change poses stern challenge. *The Financial Times*. 71-76 pp.
- Chaney, R.L. and Oliver, D.P. (1996) Sources, Potential Adverse Effects and Remediation of Agricultural Soil Contaminants. Proceedings of the First Australasia-Pacific Conference Contaminants and Soil on Environment in the Australasia-Pacific Region, Adelaide, 18-23 February 1996, 323-359 pp. Retrieved April 12, 2022 from http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-94-009-1626-5_11
- Chaney, R. L. Malik, M. and Li Y. M (1997) Phytoremediation of soil metals. *Current Opinion in Biotechnology*, **8**(3): 279–284.
- Chaudhry, T.M., Hayes, W.J. Khan, A.G. and Khoo, C.S. (2008). Phytoremediation– focusing on accumulator plants that remediate metal-contaminated soils. *Australasian Journal of Ecotoxicology*, **4**:37-51.
- Ciriakova, A. (2019). Heavy metals in the vascular plants of Tatra Mountains. *Oecologia Montana*, **18**: 23-26.
- Dhaliwal SS, Singh J, Taneja PK, Mandal A. Remediation techniques for removal of heavy metals from the soil contaminated through different sources: a Review (2019). *Environ Sci Pollut Res.* **27**:1319-1333.
- Elijah, I. O. (2013). Scrap Iron and Steel Recycling in Nigeria. *Greener Journal of Environmental Management and Public Safety*, **2**(1): 1-9.
- El-Sharabasy, H.M. and Ibrahim A. (2010). Communities of oribatid mites and heavy metal accumulation in oribatid species in agricultural soils in Egypt impacted by wastewater. *Plant Protection Sci*ence, **46**: 159- 170.

- Ettler, V. and Kierczak, J., (2021): Environmental Impact of Slag Particulates. In *Metallurgical Slags: Environmental Geochemistry and Resource Potential*, ed. Piatak, N., Ettler, V. (eds). United Kingdom: The Royal Society of Chemistry, Cambridge. 174-193 pp.
- Ettler, V. and Vítková, M. (2021). Slag leaching properties and release of contaminants. In: *Metallurgical slags: Environmental geochemistry and resource potential*. Piatak, N., Ettler, V. (eds). The Royal Society of Chemistry, Cambridge. United Kingdom: The Royal Society of Chemistry, 151-173 pp.
- Evanko, C. R., and Dzombak, D. A. (1997). Remediation of metals-contaminated soils and groundwater. Technology evaluation report. Ground-Water Remediation Technologies Analysis Center, Carnegie Mellon University, Pittsburgh.
- Friedlova M., (2010) The influence of heavy metals on soil biological and chemical properties. *Soil and Water Research*, **5**(1):21–27.
- Fan, S. F., Yu, D. and Liu, C. H. (2013). The invasive plant *Alternanthera philoxeroides* was suppressed more intensively than its native congener by a native generalist: implications for the biotic resistance hypothesis. *PLoS ONE*, 8.12:e83619. Retrieved Aug 28, 2021 from http://www.plosone.org/article/info% 3Adoi%2

F10.1371%2Fjournal.pone.0083619

- Florida Exotic Pest Plant Council, (2007). Invasive species list. Retrieved January 20, 2022 from: http://www.fleppc.org/index.cfm
- Fountain, W. M. (2016). *Invasive Species: Understanding the Characteristics.* College of Agriculture Food and

Environment, University of Kentucky, Academic Research Extension. Retrieved May 12, 2021 from

https://ukntrees.ca.uky.edu/Treetalk/i nvasive-characteristics.

- Friedlova M., (2010) The influence of heavy metals on soil biological and chemical properties. *Soil and Water Research*, **5**(1):21–27.
- Gautam, P. K., Gautam, R. K., Banerjee, S., Chattopadhyaya, M. C., and Pandey, J. D. (2016). Heavy metals in the environment: fate, transport, toxicity and remediation technologies. *Nova Sci Publishers*, *60*: 101-130.
- Global Invasive Species Database (2023) Species profile: *Chromolaena odorata*. Retrieved January 12, 2023 from

http://www.iucngisd.org/gisd/species .php?sc=47 on 12-01-2023.

Global Invasive Species Database (2023) Species profile: Alternanthera sessilis. Retrieved January 12. 2023 from

http://www.iucngisd.org/gisd/species .php?sc=767 on 12-01-2023.

- Gonzalez, R.C. and Gonzalez-Chavez, M.C.A. (2016). Metal accumulation in wild plants surrounding mining wastes". *Environmental Pollution*, **144**:84-92.
- Ghrefat H. and Yusuf, N. (2006), Assessing Mn, Fe, Cu, Zn and Cd Pollution in Bottom Sediments of Wadi Al-Arab Dam, Jordan. *Chemosphere*, **65**(11): 2114-2121.
- Gunn, J. M. (2015). Restoration and Recovery of an Industrial Region. New York: Springer-Verlag. 19-25 pp.
- Hall, J.L. (2012) "Cellular mechanisms for heavy metal detoxification and tolerance. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, **53**(366): 1-11.

- Issac, R.A., Kerber, J.D., 1971. Atomic absorption and flamephotometry: techniques and uses in soil, plant and water analysis. In: *Instrumental Methods for Analysis of Soil and Plant Tissue*. Soil Science Society of America–Agronomy Society of America Inc., Madison, Wisconsin, 17–37 pp.
- Li C, Zhou K, Qin W, Tian C, Qi M, Yan X, Han W. (2019). A review of heavy metals contamination in soil: Effets, sources, and remediation techniques. *Soil and Sediments Contamination: An International Journal.* **28**(4):380-394.
- Kapungwe, E. M. (2013). Heavy metal contaminated water, soils and crops in peri urban wastewater irrigation farming in Mufulira and Kafue towns in Zambia. *Journal of Geography and Geology*, 5(2), 55-72.
- Luxan, M.P., Sotolongo, R., Borrego, F. and Herrero E. (2010). Characteristics of the slags produced in the fusion of scrap steel by electric arc and furnace. *Cement and Concrete Research*, **30**: 517-519.
- Maestri, E. Marmiroli, M. Visioli, G. and Marmiroli, N. (2010). Metal tolerance and hyper-accumulation: Costs and trade-offs between traits and environment. *Environmental and Experimental Botany*, **68**:1-13.
- Marques, A. P. G. C. Rangel, A. O. S. S. and Castro, P. M. L. (2009). Remediation of heavy metal contaminated soils: phytoremediation as a potentially promising clean-up technology. *Critical Reviews in Environmental Science and Technology*, **39**(8): 622– 654.
- McLaughlin M. J., Zarcinas B. A., Stevens D. P., and Cook N., (2011). Soil

testing for heavy metals, Communications in Soil Science and Plant Analysis, **31**(11–14):161–170

- Meitzner, L.S. and Price, M.L. (2016). *Amaranth to zai holes: ideas for growing food under difficult conditions.* North Fort Myers, Florida, USA: ECHO, 52-60 pp.
- Nazir, R., Khan, M. Muhammad, M. Hameed, U. R. Naveed U. R. Shahab, S. Nosheen, A. Muhammad, Sajed. Mohib, U. Muhammad R. and Zeenat S. (2015). Accumulation of Heavy Metals (Ni, Cu, Cd, Cr, Pb, Zn, Fe) in the soil, water and plants and analysis of physico-chemical parameters of soil and water Collected from Tanda Dam kohat. *Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences and Research*, **7**(3):89-97
- O'Connor, J. Nguyen, T.B.T. Honeyands, T. Monaghan, B. O'Dea, D. Rinklebe, J. Vinu, A. Hoang, Son A. Singh, G. Kirkham, M.B. and Bolan, N. (2019)."Production, characterization, utilization, and beneficial soil application of steel review". slag: А Journal ofHazardous Materials. 419: 126-128.
- Ogundele, D. and Adio, A. and Oludele, O. (2015). Heavy Metal Concentrations in Plants and Soil along Heavy Traffic Roads in North Central Nigeria. Journal of Environmental & Analytical Toxicology. 05. 10.4172/2161-0525.1000334.
- Ogundiran, M. and Osibanjo, O. (2018). Heavy metal concentrations in soils and accumulation in plants growing in a deserted slag dumpsite in Nigeria. *African Journal of Biotechnology*, **7**(17): 3053-3060.
- Olatunji, O. S., Ximba, B. J., Fatoki, O. S. and Opeolu, B. O (2014). Assessment of the phytoremediation potential of Panicum maximum

(guinea grass) for selected heavy metal removal from contaminated soils. *African Journal of Biotechnology* **13**(19): 1979-1984.

- Omoregie G. O. Ikhajiagbe B. and Anoliefo Geoffery (2019). О. Phytoremediation Potential of Four Heavy Metals in Soil by Chromolaena odorata (L.) King & Robinson at the Phytotoxicity Screening Benchmarks. Tanzania Journal of Science, 45(3): 372-381.
- Onder, S. Dursun, S. Gezgin, S. and Demirbas E. (2007) Determination of heavy metals pollution in Grass and soil of city centre Green Area (Konya Turkey). *Poland Journal of Environmental studies*, **1**:145-154.
- PIER, 2013. Megathyrsus maximus. Pacific Islands Ecosystems at Risk., Honolulu, Hawaii, USA: HEAR, University of Hawaii. Retrieved March 18, 2022 from http://www.hear.org/pier/index.html
- Potysz, A., Kierczak, J., Grybos, M., Pedziwiatr, A., van Hullebusch, (2018). Weathering of historical copper slags in dynamic experimental with system rhizosphere-like organic acids. Journal of Environmental Management 222: 325-337.
- Reichard, S. H. and White, P. 2001. Horticulture as a Pathway of Invasive Plant Introductions in the United States. *BioScience*, **51**(2): 103–113.
- Rafique N, Tariq SR. Distribution and source apportionment studies of heavy metals in soil of cotton/wheat fields. Environ Monit Assess. 2016 May;188(5):309.
- Rojas-Sandoval, J and Acevedo-Rodríguez P. (2013) *Megathyrsus maximus* (Guinea grass). CABI Compendium. Retrieved January 11, 2023 from

https://doi.org/10.1079/cabicompend ium.38666

- Sarac, I., Bonciu, E., Butnariu, M., Petrescu, I., and Madosa, E. (2019). Evaluation of the cytotoxic and genotoxic potential of some heavy metals by use of Allium test. *Caryologia*, **72**(2), 37-43.
- Saravanan, A., Kumar, P. S., Jeevanantham,
 S., Karishma, S., Tajsabreen, B.,
 Yaashikaa, P. R., and Reshma, B.
 (2021). Effective water/wastewater
 treatment methodologies for toxic
 pollutants removal: Processes and
 applications towards sustainable
 development. *Chemosphere*, 280:
 130595.
- Slaveykova V. I. and Cheloni G. (2018). Preface: special issue on environmental toxicology of trace metals, *Environments*, **5**(12):138-140.
- Tejaswini, M.S.s.R., Pathak, P., Gupta, D.K. (2022). Sustainable approach for valorization of solid wastes as a secondary resource through urban mining, Journal of Environmental Management, **319**: 115727,
- Turkdogan M.K. Fevzi, K. Kazim, K. Ilyas,
 T. and Ismail U. (2013). —Heavy
 metals in soil, vegetables and fruits
 in the endemic upper gastrointestinal
 cancer region. *Environmental Toxicology and Pharmacology*,
 13:175-179
- Ukpebor, E.E. and Unuigbe, C.A. (2013). "Heavy metals concentration in the subsoil of refuse dump sites in Benin City, Nigeria". *Ghana Journal of Science*, **43**: 9-15.
- Uzondu J (2012). The thriving scraps metal business. Nigerian World 01/17/2012.

- Uyi, O. O., Egbon, I. N., Igbinosa, I. B., Adebayo, R. A., Oigiangbe, O. N. (2013) Chromolaena odorata in Nigeria: extent of spread, problems and control. In: Zachariades C, Strathie LW, Day MD, Muniappan R (eds), Proceedings of the Eighth International Workshop on **Biological Control and Management** of Chromolaena odorata and other Eupatorieae, Nairobi, Kenva, 1-2 November 2010. ARCPPRI, Pretoria, pp 43
- World Health Organization, International Atomic Energy Agency & Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. (1996). Trace elements in human nutrition and health. World Health Organization. Retrieved April 12 2022 https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/1066 5/37931
- Vesk, P. and Reichman, S. (2019). Hyperaccumulators and herbivoresa Bayesian meta-analysis of feeding choice trials. *Journal of Chemical Ecology*, **35**:289-296.
- Wang, Y. Qiao, M. Liu, Y. and Zhu Y. (2017). Health risk assessment of heavy metals in soils and vegetables from wastewater irrigated area. *Journal of Environmental Science*, 24 (4):690-698
- Zheng, N. Wang, Q. Zhang, X. Zheng, D. Zhang, Z. and Zhang, S. (2017).
 Population health risk due to dietary intake of heavy metals in the industrial area of Huludao city, China. Science of Total Environmental, 387:96–104.